The use of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies to compensate for the lack of fluency:

A pseudo-longitudinal study of L3 English university learners

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION IN MULTILINGUAL SETTINGS (LAMS)

MASTER'S THESIS

Academic year 2017-2018

Universidad del País Vasco Euskal Herriko Unibertsitatea

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Knowledge of languages
is the doorway to wisdom

Roger Bacon

eman ta zabal zazu

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Language Acquisition in Multilingual Settings (LAMS)

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AGRADECIMIENTOS

Me gustaría expresar mi más sincero agradecimiento a la supervisora del presente estudio, Dra. María Martínez Adrián. Agradecerle su proximidad e ininterrumpida supervisión desde el primer momento aun encontrándonos a más de quinientos kilómetros de distancia. Mostrarle, también, mi más sentida gratitud por la flexibilidad horaria ofrecida para encontrar momentos en los que podernos llamar y hablar del trabajo. Sin su incondicional ayuda, apoyo y ánimos, el resultado de este trabajo no hubiese sido el mismo.

También me gustaría mostrar mi gratitud a los integrantes del Proyecto de Innovación Educativa (PIE) "El uso de las TICs para la consolidación de los tiempos verbales en inglés como lengua extranjera": Dr. Francisco Gallardo del Puerto, Dra. Esther Gómez Lacabex, Dra. Junkal Gutiérrez Mangado, Dra. María Martínez Adrián, Dra. Izaskun Villareal Olaizola e Inés Uribe-Etxebarria Fernández, por facilitarme parte de los datos recogidos en su proyecto, los cuales han sido fruto de un laborioso proceso de recogida y forman parte de una amplia base de datos recopilada por todos los integrantes del PIE. Gracias a su confianza en mí y su generosidad, he podido llevar a cabo el presente trabajo. Muchas gracias.

Iosu, mi pareja, merece especial mención. Él ha sido mi soporte emocional desde el principio hasta el final del trabajo. A él le agradezco el haber aguantado mis días y momentos plagados de nervios, desasosiego y, en definitiva, la montaña rusa emocional en la que me he encontrado durante el tiempo que ha durado el trabajo. Caminar de su mano durante este momento profesional tan importante en mi vida ha sido el freno a tirar la toalla en más de una ocasión.

Finalmente, y no por ello menos importante, no podía dejar de agradecer a toda mi familia, y en especial a mi padre, mi madre, mi hermana, mi abuela, mis tíos, Conchi, Manu y mis cuñados. A ellos les doy las gracias por haber estado siempre a mi lado, por creer en mi y por darme siempre todo lo que he necesitado. Por haberme entregado su tiempo sin mirar el reloj, por lograr serenarme en más de una ocasión, y por secar mis lágrimas.

Todas y cada una de las personas mencionadas anteriormente forman parte del puzle de mi vida. Estoy segura de que sin la ayuda de cada uno de ellos, las líneas de este trabajo nunca hubiesen llegado a tener un punto y final. ¡Muchas gracias!

ABSTRACT

Linguistic gains have been the focus of attention of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) studies, particularly those carried out with primary and secondary school learners. More limited research exists with CLIL university learners. In particular, studies on the use of previously known languages and self-regulatory strategies to cover the lack of fluency are lacking at the tertiary level. In addition, there is a lack of (pseudo)longitudinal studies which could shed more light on the development of strategy use. Likewise, to the knowledge of the author no studies up to the present date have compared the use of previously known languages to self-regulatory strategies.

This paper will try to fill the aforementioned gaps by examining the (pseudo)development of these two types of strategies during an oral narration task. Participants were 51 Basque/Spanish bilinguals learning English as a third language (L3) in a CLIL setting. All participants started learning English when they were 5-6 years old, but they differed in age and proficiency level. Results showed that, overall, all groups produced few instances of previously known language-based strategies, in which only calques significantly decreased with proficiency. No differences between groups were found in the case of self-regulatory strategies in all groups. Among previously known language-based strategies, lexical discourse markers were the most widely-used strategy in all groups. Among self-regulatory strategies, both repetitions and self-repairs were used in equal proportions. Finally, target language (TL) use was prevalent over previously known languages.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Finding the best methodology to attain native-like levels of a target language (TL) has been a central topic of interest for many teachers and researchers over the last decades. Initially, it was thought that introducing TL instruction at an early age resulted in better and faster acquisition. However, studies conducted in early language teaching programmes in Catalonia (Muñoz, 2007) and in the Basque Country (Cenoz, 2003; García Mayo & García Lecumberri, 2003; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2005) revealed that these types of programmes did not prove important TL benefits as late starters outperformed early starters in all language categories when number of hours of instruction were held constant. As a possible solution to the shortcomings associated with early language instruction, a new educational approach known as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was implemented. According to Dalton-Puffer (2011, p. 183) "CLIL can be described as an educational approach where curricular content is taught through the medium of a foreign language, typically to students participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level". Through this approach, language and content are treated in an equal proportion, as none of these aspects are prioritized over the other (Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012). However, as CLIL has been implemented in different ways and in different contexts, outcomes in TL production vary, which hinders the process of eliciting CLIL effects (García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015).

Whereas CLIL has been implemented in primary, secondary and tertiary educational settings, most of the studies tackling the effects of this teaching methodology in TL acquisition revolve around primary (i.e. García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Pladevall Ballester & Vraciu, 2017) and secondary education (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2016,2017; Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012), and few studies have focused on the tertiary level. Additionally, while most of these studies in Higher Education concentrate on attitudes and perceptions of CLIL programmes (i.e. Aguilar & Rodríguez, 2012; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017; Muñoz, 2007), little is known about the benefits and effects this teaching approach may have on the acquisition of linguistic aspects (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014; Gallardo del Puerto & Gómez Lacabex, 2016) and the use of strategies to cope for the lack of fluency.

Fluency can be defined as a person's capacity to use a language in a native-like way, thus using it in a natural and effective manner, maintaining a normal rhythm, stressing some words and making pauses to provide a fluid and pleasant speech (Skehan & Foster, 1999). When learning a language, lecturers use a wide variety of strategies to compensate for the lack of fluency such as cross-linguistic influence and self-regulatory strategies.

Cross-linguistic influence (CLI) is considered a communication strategy when lecturers use prior linguistic experience to compensate for the lack of fluency. Several factors affect the use of previously known languages during production such as proficiency level in the TL (Ringbom, 1986), learner motivation (García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Storch & Adosari, 2010), age (Cenoz, 2001), gender (Jiménez Catalán 2003; Wang 2008), task-related features (Poulisse, 1990; Khanji, 1996), instructional setting (CLIL) (Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Martínez Adrián, 2015), among others. While most of the studies focus on primary and secondary education (i.e. Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Martínez Adrián, in press), little is known about the use of previous linguistic experience-based strategies in tertiary education settings. Additionally, the vast majority of studies on the use of CLI as a communicative strategy in the CLIL literature have compared CLIL to non-CLIL learners (i.e. García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Martínez Adrián, in press), and to the knowledge of the author, few (pseudo)longitudinal studies have been carried out (i.e. Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press; Pladevall Ballester & Vraciu, 2017). The present study will shed more light on the development of strategy use.

Apart from CLI, fluency seems to be affected by the use of self-regulatory strategies. Those strategies refer to language devices that learners incorporate in the communicative process when finding gaps in the interlanguage, and mainly consist of repairing and repeating words as a means to improve an utterance in the TL. Specifically, most of the studies analyzing self-regulatory strategies have examined the influence of self-initiated self-repairs and self-repetitions. While most of the investigations have addressed task-effects (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009) and motivation (Sato, 2008, 2012) in self-initiated self-repairs and language-structure effects (Bada, 2010; Rieger, 2003) in self–regulatory strategies, little is known about the impact of these two strategies on linguistic aspects. Additionally, previous studies have mainly analyzed the

effects that regulatory strategies have during peer-interaction (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Fernández Dobao, 2012; Anton & DiCamila, 1999). However, to the knowledge of the author, up to the present date few studies have addressed the influence that self-regulatory strategies have on non-collaborative tasks with university students, especially in Spain (see Trench Parera, 2009). The present study will try to address these gaps.

This paper will contribute to the area of strategies to compensate for the lack of fluency. In particular, this paper tackles both the use of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies as communication devices during oral production. We will try to fill the aforementioned gaps by examining the pseudo-development of prior linguistic experience-based strategies (transfer lapses, code-switching, off-task talk and discourse markers), together with self-regulatory strategies (self-repetitions and self-initiated self-repairs). Oral data from three different proficiency groups of university students immersed in a CLIL programme will be examined in this respect.

The present study is divided into seven different sections. Section two presents the literature review, which is structured into two sections. First, a section on CLIL at university is offered. Then, the following section of the literature review focuses on fluency and on the strategies to compensate for the lack of this ability, which includes both prior linguistic experience-based strategies use and self-regulatory strategies. Research questions are subsequently addressed in section three. Next, the fourth section deals with the methodology of the study. Sections five and six present and discuss the results of the study. The paper finishes with the main conclusions drawn from the study.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This section is divided into two different parts. First of all, a brief introduction on research conducted on CLIL at university is offered. The second part of the literature review is devoted to fluency, in particular, to the strategies learners use to cover the lack of this ability. More specifically, research on the use of previously known languages as a communication strategy in CLIL and non-CLIL settings will be reviewed as well as research on self-regulatory strategies such as self-initiated self- repairs and self-repetitions.

2.1 CLIL AT UNIVERSITY

Over the last decades, European language policy has recommended the competency in two other European languages apart from the local or national language (Commission of the European Communities, 1995, as cited in Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2017). As a way to overcome the "perceived weakness of traditional TL teaching" (Dalton- Puffer 2011, p. 185), several European countries have implemented CLIL, defined as an umbrella term that embraces content-based subjects teaching through a foreign language (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2017). In most CLIL European practices, English seems to be the most frequently used language over other languages (Gallardo del Puerto & Martínez Adrián, 2015). In the contexts where the language of instruction is English, it is also known as Content and English Integrated Learning (CEIL) (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, & Smit, 2010, cited in Gallardo del Puerto & Martínez Adrián, 2015, p. 74), and a popular term in tertiary education is English-Medium Instruction (EMI) (Smit & Dafouz, 2012; cited in Gallardo del Puerto & Martínez Adrián, 2015, p. 74). Nonetheless, in the present study, the term 'CLIL' will be employed, since it is the most widespread term used in all educational levels (i.e. Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014; Gallardo del Puerto & Martínez Adrián, 2015).

In the last years, as claimed by Aguilar and Muñoz (2014), the use of English as the language of instruction in European university degrees has increased. This international attempt to incorporate English as the language of instruction has been motivated by the increasing dependence of universities on incomes generated from international programmes.

To the present date, there has been a wealth of research on CLIL in primary and secondary educational settings, while more limited research exists with CLIL university learners. Most of these studies carried out with secondary school learners report a better language proficiency in CLIL settings than in non-CLIL (i.e. Pérez-Vidal 2011; Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009). However, CLIL learners have been found to have problems with some specific linguistic features (García Mayo & Villarreal Olaizola, 2010; Gutiérrez Mangado & Martínez Adrián, 2018; Martínez Adrián & Gutierrez Mangado, 2015ab).

Regarding studies with university students, most of them have focused their attention on lecturers and/or students' perceptions and attitudes towards the implementation of CLIL. Muñoz (2007) conducted a study based on a written questionnaire and oral interviews among English Philology students. Their perceptions revealed a particular improvement in listening comprehension, higher gains in receptive than in productive skills, as well as improved self-confidence. In a similar vein, Aguilar and Rodríguez (2012) analysed perceptions of both lecturers and students from an Engineering degree at a Spanish university who had taken part in a pilot CLIL programme. While lecturers' perceptions were gathered from meetings and interviews, an open-ended questionnaire was delivered to the students. In line with Muñoz's (2007) study, participants showed an overall positive attitude, and self-reported linguistic improvements mostly in the acquisition of vocabulary, as well as in listening and speaking skills. However, the most negative aspect they highlighted was lecturers' insufficient level of English. With respect to lecturers, it was found that their main interest was to practice and improve their English spoken fluency and considered that the quality of their teaching had not been affected. Nevertheless, they showed a reluctant attitude towards receiving any CLIL methodology training.

Similarly, Feixas, Codo, Couso, Espinet, and Masats, (2009) reported that 67% of the students' involved in a CLIL experience showed positive reactions both in motivation and overall gains, especially in general language competence as well as in oral skills and vocabulary. However, they identified some problems related to their insufficient language competence in expressing the content knowledge in English. Dafouz, Núñez, Sancho and Foran (2007) interviewed both content teachers and students from three different degrees (Chemistry, Health Sciences and Aeronautical Engineering) in Spain enrolled in a content-specific course given entirely in English. Overall, all agreed on the benefits of CLIL implementation. Nevertheless, while lecturers claimed lack of administrative recognition (financial and pedagogical), students reported a need of more interactive classes and considered it rather difficult to learn content through English. Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2011) gathered opinions from five teachers from different faculties in the Basque Country involved in a multilingual program based on EMI instruction. Opinions and perceptions were extracted and analysed from a discussion group, which served "to capture ideological discourses and to draw out different positions, spontaneous expressions and

contradictions" (p.351). Overall, they agreed on the importance of implementing EMI at the tertiary level and breaking up with the false myth "the sooner the better". They agreed on its beneficial effects on students but highlighted the need of higher quality standards and EMI implementation. Thus, they argued for a careful planning of the introduction of EMI subjects in degree courses, and stated the importance of encouraging lecturers to implement such an approach, which could be incentivised by offering them promotion in their professional career or a lighter teaching load. In a subsequent study, Lasagabaster and Doiz (in press) analysed the content teacher and the language teacher's positions in relation to language errors in the students' writing in EMI. Specifically, they were students from the BA in History and Business Administration and Management taking the course "World Economic History" at the University of the Basque Country. For the purpose of the investigation, the content teacher of the course and two language teachers (who were also the authors of this study) corrected 20 written essays. Subsequently, the researchers compared the number of errors detected by the content teacher and the two language teachers in order to characterize the quantity and type of errors students produced in their written assignments. Additionally, they determined whether there was a correlation between the mark assigned by the content teacher and the total number of errors produced. Results confirmed statistically significant differences between the content and language teachers', as the latter marked significantly more errors than the former. Overall, learners produced a large amount of errors, grammatical errors being the most frequent. In addition, findings did not show a correlation between the students' errors and the scores assigned by the content teacher, which confirms that the content teacher did not take language into account when marking the essays.

Other studies dealing with CLIL in Higher Education have focused their research on language gains. Aguilar and Muñoz (2014) concluded that the effect of CLIL interacts with the initial level of proficiency, as the CLIL experience was more advantageous for less proficient students than for more proficient ones. Thus, participants with the lowest initial level obtained significant gains in both listening and grammar skills, those in the upper intermediate level scored a positive but not significant evolution in listening, while the most advanced participants scored a significant decrease in grammar. Gallardo del Puerto and Martínez Adrián (2015) conducted a study with CLIL and non-CLIL lecturers based on an Innovation Project aimed at improving students' abilities to express

themselves orally in academic presentations in English. Whereas non-CLIL students reported significant gains, CLIL students did not perceive any improvements as regards to their English skills. Finally, Gallardo del Puerto and Gómez Lacabex (2016) analysed the L3 English oral production of university students belonging to the same innovation project as the participants in the present study. Specifically, they were divided into three different groups according to their level (upper-intermediate, advanced and lower-advanced). Participants were tested before and after taking an online 4-week intervention practising verb tenses with tutorials on pronunciation. Researchers analysed the degree of phonetic and morphological influence that the previously known languages of the participants had on their L3 English oral productions. In particular, researchers compared the three proficiency groups and looked for potential differences in (a) the cluster productions between the inflected forms and the root forms, (b) the complex codas resulting from the addition of [-(e)d] and [(e)s] morphemes, and (c) the cluster productions before and after the practice period. Results yielded a positive correlation between mispronunciation of clusters in the root forms and inflected forms, as errors may be phonetically conditioned. Moreover, a decreasing tendency between the level of TL and rate of error incidence appeared, as the higher the English level they had the lower the error-rate they produced. However, results did not claim any treatment effect, as no differences between testing times were found in their productions.

Overall, tertiary education studies carried out in a CLIL context have focused on either lecturers or students' perceptions of these types of programmes. There seems to be an agreement among both teachers and students' on some gains in the TL through CLIL implementation (Aguilar & Rodríguez, 2012; Dafouz et al., 2007; Doiz et al., 2011; Feixas et al., 2009; Muñoz, 2007). In general, they perceive that listening, receptive skills (vocabulary), motivation and self-confidence seem to be the most benefited language aspects (Aguilar & Rodríguez, 2012; Feixas et al., 2009; Muñoz, 2007). However, there seems to be a low implication of CLIL content teachers on linguistic aspects (Lasagabaster & Doiz, in press.) as their teaching procedure appears to be reduced to content aspects in which language issues are not treated. In addition, the effects of CLIL in terms of TL linguistic aspects are still unclear, as while significant gains in listening and grammar skills seem to appear only with low-proficient CLIL learners (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014), error-rates of phonetic and morphology seem to decrease with proficiency gains (Gallardo del

Puerto & Gómez Lacabex, 2016). Also, CLIL implementation needs to improve in terms of lecturers' training, learners' level of the language and administrative recognition (Aguilar & Rodríguez, 2012; Dafouz et al., 2007; Doiz et al., 2011; Feixas et al., 2009). Given the scarcity of studies on the effect of CLIL at university in terms of language gains, a call has been made for more empirical studies in this respect (Gallardo del Puerto & Martínez Adrián, 2015).

The present study will contribute to the scarcity of research on linguistic aspects with CLIL university learners. In particular, the use of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies during TL oral productions by university learners will be examined. Section 2.2 addresses the area of compensatory strategies for the lack of fluency.

2.2 COMPENSATORY STRATEGIES FOR THE LACK OF FLUENCY

Fluency is one of the aspects that certainly determines the proficiency of a person in a particular language. According to Skehan (1992, 1996, as cited in Skehan & Foster, 1999, p. 96) this term refers to "the capacity to use language in real time and to emphasize meanings, possibly drawing on more lexicalized systems". In other words, it is the ability to speak easily and effectively in a language, maintaining a normal speed, being able to make pauses and hesitations in a native-like way to produce a proper speech rate, stressing words when needed, and not using words and expressions from other languages (Sato, 2008). Being fluent in a language is one of the highest goals of a language learner, and in order to cope with the lack of fluency, learners frequently "try to compensate their shortcomings and incompetence in the TL by means of communication strategies" (Sharwood Smith, 1994, as cited in Bad a, 2010, p. 1682).

The study of the strategies used by learners of a foreign language to cover communication breakdowns was first noted in the early 1970s (Lafford, 2004). It was Selinker (1972) who introduced this term within the L2 context, defining it as the strategies used by L2 learners when facing a gap in communication, caused from their incapacity to express themselves in the L2. There seems to be an agreement in research towards the fact that less proficient learners use communication strategies to a higher extent than more proficient students, which is due to their limited command of the TL (Hyde 1982; Liskin Gasparro, 1996;

Paribakht, 1985; Poulisse et al., 1990, as cited in Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press, p. 4). In this sense, several studies have concluded that avoidance, mime and previously known language-based strategies are used to a higher extent by low-proficient learners (Bialystok and Fröhlich 1980; Bialystok 1983; Jourdain 2000; Wannaruk 2003, as cited in Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press, p. 4).

Among previously known language-based strategies, the present study will investigate most of the strategies that have received a wide focus of attention by several researchers in the Spanish context in both non-CLIL (i.e. Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2015; Muñoz, 2007) and CLIL programmes (i.e. Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press; Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Gallardo del Puerto, 2015; García Mayo & Hidalgo Gordo, 2017; Pladevall Ballester & Vraciu, 2017). These strategies include transfer lapses, defined as "the use of one or more terms in Basque or Spanish as part of an utterance produced in English" (Cenoz, 2001, p. 13), which are broken down into borrowings ("The boy is *poniéndose* jacket", Cenoz, 2001, p.13), foreignizings ("*Siguient* morning", Cenoz, 2001, p. 13), and calques or literal translations ("my *table study* is blue and big", Agustín Llach, 2009, p. 118). Additionally, other strategies will be analysed which include code-switching, defined as "whole sentences in Basque or Spanish when the speaker is not appealing to the interlocutor for help" (Cenoz, 2001, p. 12), off task-talk, which refers to "segments of the interaction in which students are engaged in casual talk unrelated to the task" (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009 p. 332) and discourse markers, defined as "lexical items such as *well, so, you know*, etc., which do not have meaning and whose basic function is to facilitate the flow of speech"(Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012, p.140). Other studies, most of them being carried out outside the Spanish context, have focused on the use of self-regulatory strategies to approach problems with fluency. These strategies mainly include self-initiated self-repairs, like "have is has the eeeh # have aspirin?" (Hellerman, 2009, p. 128) and self-repetitions, as "and I've had, I've had not too stressful hours" (Rieger, 2003, p.51). Nevertheless, how and how much proficiency affects the choice of particular previous linguistic experience-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies is still inconsistent in research.

In sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2, a review of studies on the use of prior linguistic knowledge-based strategies in CLIL and non-CLIL settings, as well as empirical findings

concerning self-regulatory strategies is offered. In section 2.2.1, prior linguistic experience based-strategies are broken down into two sub-sections, in order to differentiate between findings in non-CLIL and CLIL settings. With regard to section 2.2.2 on self-regulatory strategies section, a distinction between studies on self-initiated self-repairs and self-repetitions is made. Diagram 1 illustrates the strategies analysed in the following sections of the literature review.

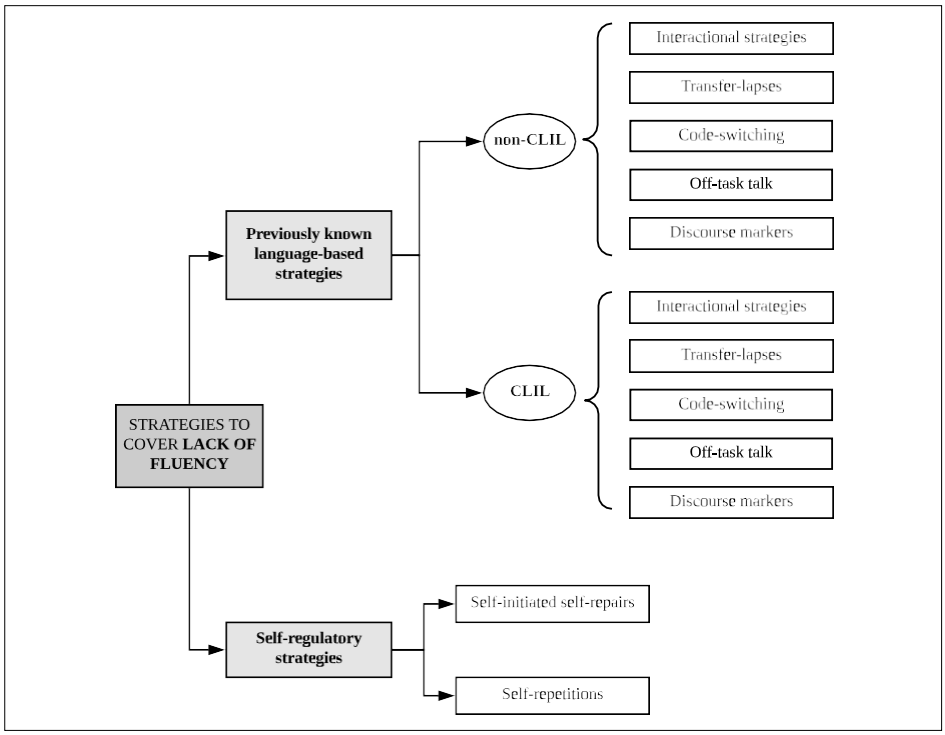


Diagram 1: Strategies to overcome lack of fluency

2.2.1 Research on the use of previously known languages in CLIL and non-CLIL settings

This section is divided into two different parts. First of all, a brief overview of the studies dealing with the use of prior linguistic experience-based strategies in non-CLIL settings is offered. Then, the same is done with studies dealing with the use of these strategies in CLIL contexts. The two sections specifically tackle different studies examining the use of interactional strategies, transfer lapses (borrowings, foreignizings and calques), code-switching, off-task talk and discourse markers that have been conducted with learners in primary, secondary and tertiary education contexts.

2.2.1.1. The use of previously-known language-based strategies in non-CLIL settings

In the Spanish context, in which the present investigation is framed, the use of previously known languages in non-CLIL settings has been mainly analysed in the context of primary and secondary education. Most of the investigations that have focused on the use of previously known languages as a communication strategy to compensate for the lack of fluency in L3 communication have addressed the impact of proficiency and age (Celaya, 2005; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Cenoz, 2001, 2003; Muñoz, 2007, among others) as well as type of tasks (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009). Whereas some of these studies have analyzed these effects in cross-sectional investigations (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Azkarai and García Mayo, 2015; Muñoz, 2007), others have explored the impact of these variables in (pseudo)longitudinal investigations (Celaya, 2005; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Cenoz 2001, 2003; Trenchs-Parera, 2009). In particular, they have addressed the effects of age, proficiency and type of tasks in interactional strategies (appeals for assistance) and negotiation of meaning strategies, transfer lapses (borrowings, foreignizings and calques), off-task talk, code-switching and discourse markers. While the majority of these studies are set in the Spanish context, Antón and DiCamilla (1999) offer a view from a North-American setting.

As for interactional strategies, Cenoz (2003) conducted an investigation in which she analysed this strategy in 20 primary school children whose previously known languages were Spanish and Basque and were learning English as a L3 in the Basque Country. Data was analysed (pseudo)longitudinally, in the 4th and 6th year of primary education. Participants were asked to tell the story "Frog, where are you?" (Mayer, 1969) with visual support provided by a series of wordless pictures. Results indicated an increase of cross-linguistic influence with age and proficiency as older learners produced a wider use of Basque and Spanish in interactional strategies than their younger counterparts. This strategy was mainly produced in Basque, which may be due to the fact that participants were attending school in Basque and due to the interlocutors' knowledge of the language. An analysis of the effects of proficiency and age from primary to secondary education levels was carried out by Cenoz (2001) in a pseudo-longitudinal study. Ninety primary and secondary school learners learning L3 English, with Basque and Spanish as L1s, were examined. At the time of testing, they were in three different grades, Grade 2 (7-8 years old), Grade 6 (11-12 years old) and Grade 9 (14-15 years old). They had been matched in

terms of exposure as all of them had been learning English for four years, but they differed in onset age. Participants were asked to narrate the story "Frog, where are you?" (Mayer, 1969) in English. Findings indicated that older learners used previously known languages to a higher extent than younger students, and that Spanish was the preferred source language. With respect to tertiary education, Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) conducted a study in which they examined task effects (jigsaw, text reconstruction and dictogloss) on the amount and functions of L1 use. Specifically, M*etacognitive talk* was analysed; which refers to segments of the dialogue that involve "planning, organizing, monitoring and checking comprehension", *metatalk*, defined as "segments of the dialogue discussing form", and *off-task talk*, known as "segments of the interaction engaging in casual talk unrelated to the task" (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009, p. 330). Data was collected from 12 pairs of undergraduate Spanish non-CLIL learners of English with a low proficiency level of the TL. Results showed that the L1 is an important tool for these learners, and that its use differed among tasks. Thus, they made a greater use of the L2 in the jigsaw task, as participants were asked to report the content of their respective pictures to the others. With respect to the other two tasks, in which the L2 was only required to read the sentences they were producing or to read text passages, the students used the L1 as a cognitive tool. The most remarkable differences between the different uses of L1 Spanish during task completion were in the production of metacognitive talk, as they used the L1 mainly for "making meaning and developing understanding of the stimulus provided by the task" (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009, p. 339).

With respect to transfer lapses in primary education contexts, Cenoz (2003) found age effects on the use of previously known language-based strategies, since she observed that older learners used their L1 (Spanish and Basque) to a higher extent than younger learners. In addition, she observed that the source language was mainly Spanish. Celaya (2005) examined the effects of proficiency on the production of transfer lapses by 16 students from the 5th grade of primary education to the 1st year of post-secondary education in a longitudinal study. Concretely, participants were analysed over a seven-year period since data was collected from the 5th year of primary education to the 1st year of post-secondary education. Participants were Spanish/Catalan bilinguals who were learning English as a foreign language. The analysis of the written data gathered indicated that while borrowings and foreignizings decreased as learners became more proficient, their

production of calques increased. Celaya and Torras (2001) also analysed proficiency effects in a pseudo-longitudinal study in which they tested 194 participants distributed in three different age groups (11-12 years old, 12-13 years old, and older than 18 years old). They were Catalan and Spanish bilinguals and were asked to complete a written composition in which they had to introduce themselves. Researchers specifically analysed misspellings, borrowings, coinages or foreignizings and calques. Findings demonstrated that misspellings was the most used category in all the three groups. Moreover, they found that while borrowings decreased with age, foreignizings and calques increased. Likewise, Muñoz (2007) examined secondary school learners who were Catalan and Spanish bilinguals learning French as a foreign language. Specifically, a pseudo-longitudinal study was conducted with 29 participants whose age ranged from 16 to 20 years old. The analysis of the oral data gathered revealed that low proficiency learners produced more borrowings than higher proficiency learners, and that overall foreignizings were not frequent in the data. Additionally, they found that Catalan and Spanish were used in similar proportions, but a high variability among participants was also obtained. As for studies on transfer lapses carried out with university students and in a non-CLIL setting, no studies have been conducted along these lines to the present date.

In terms of off-task talk, to the author's knowledge, no studies in primary and secondary education have been found. In the case of university learners, Antón and DiCamilla (1999) conducted a comparative study with adult learners of Spanish who were native speakers of English. They analysed the collaborative talk of five dyads of students who were asked to complete a writing task in the foreign language classroom. Findings indicated that off-task talk was practically inexistent. Likewise, Azkarai and García Mayo (2015) tested L1 use and its functions in different communicative tasks: two speaking and writing tasks. Participants were 44 undergraduate Spanish learners of English. In particular, they analysed metacognitive talk, grammar talk, vocabulary talk, phatics and off-task talk. Results showed that, overall, participants made a minimum use of their L1, which was mainly used for phatics, followed by searches of vocabulary. Off-task talk was mainly used in oral tasks, particularly when they were waiting for the instructors' indications and they spoke about their own issues (Azkarai & García Mayo, 2015, p. 563).

With respect to code-switching strategies, while Cenoz (2001) examined the use of code-switching by primary and secondary school learners, Cenoz (2003) analysed the same

strategy with primary education learners. In both cases, participants were school learners whose previously known languages were Basque and Spanish and were learning English as a foreign language. She observed that older students used their previously known languages to a higher extent than younger students. Muñoz (2007) examined code-switching in the oral production of L3 English secondary school learners. Findings indicated that Catalan-Spanish bilingual participants with low proficiency levels produced more code-switching instances than the higher proficiency learners. In general, a preference for Catalan in this strategy was also found, as participants code-switched into Catalan more frequently. Finally, to the author's knowledge, no studies analysing this strategy have been done in non-CLIL tertiary educational settings.

With regards to discourse markers, no studies in non-CLIL settings have been found in primary and secondary education. With respect to tertiary education, Trenchs-Parera (2009) examined lexical and non-lexical discourse markers to solve the lack of fluency during oral production. Nineteen Catalan and Spanish bilinguals who were learning English as a foreign language were examined. Learners were tested three times, first before receiving instruction, then after receiving formal instruction and finally after a stay abroad in the United Kingdom. Results confirmed that after receiving formal instruction, learners inserted more silent pauses and non-lexical fillers to gain extra time. After the short-term stay abroad, learners tried to avoid those strategies that they regarded as non-native-like, "and replaced them by overloaded amounts of new vocabulary" (Trenchs-Parera, 2009, p.385).

In conclusion, even though this area of research has received increasing attention in non-CLIL settings, still more research is needed with respect to tertiary education contexts. Additionally, some categories deserve more research, such as discourse markers and off-task talk. In the following section, a review of the studies that analyse the same categories (interactional strategies, transfer lapses, code-switching, off-task talk and discourse markers) in CLIL settings is presented.

2.2.1.2. The use of previously-known language-based strategies in CLIL settings

Over the last years, research on communication strategies in the Spanish context has analysed the impact of educational settings such as CLIL. This educational approach

has been claimed to promote a higher proficiency level in the TL thanks to the more intense and natural TL exposure received. In turn, it has been claimed to lead to a lower use of prior linguistic knowledge-based strategies. In particular, most of the studies have analysed the effect of CLIL on the use of these strategies: interactional strategies, transfer lapses, off-task talk, code-switching and discourse markers. Among the studies that have been conducted in CLIL settings, most of them are comparative studies (Agustín Llach, 2009; Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Gallardo del Puerto, 2015; García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Lázaro Ibarrola, 2016; Martínez Adrián, in press; Martínez Adrián & Gutierrez Mangado, 2015ab) while a fewer number of them are (pseudo) longitudinal (Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press; García Mayo & Hidalgo Gordo, 2017; Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012).

As regards interactional strategies in CLIL settings, García Mayo and Lázaro Ibarrola (2015) investigated the use of Spanish by primary school learners during the completion of a picture placement task. A total of 40 Spanish monolingual learners of L2 English were divided into two groups, one being immersed in a CLIL approach and the other in a non-CLIL setting. All participants were matched in terms of age and proficiency. Results indicated that CLIL learners produced more negotiations of meaning since they were more fluent in the TL than their non-CLIL counterparts. They were also found to resort to their L1 to a lower extent than the non-CLIL group, which explained an increased ability to speak English with meaningful purpose. However, an increasing tendency to be affected by age was observed, since older learners used the L1 to a highest extent than the younger group. Martínez Adrián (in press) conducted a comparative study in which CLIL and non-CLIL L1 Spanish primary school learners of L2 English were compared. A total of 44 matched-dyads in terms of age and proficiency were examined. Interactional strategies were broken down into those that were produced in Spanish and the cases in which the TL was used in the whole strategy. Appeals for assistance were specifically analysed and were sub-classified as four possible trends: using only the L1, using the TL to ask for a word uttered in Spanish, using Spanish to ask for an item uttered in the TL, and using the TL in the whole strategy. Additionally, clarification requests and metacomments produced either in Spanish or in the TL were examined. Instances of the different strategies were gathered from utterances produced during a peer interaction task. The analysis of the data revealed that non-CLIL learners produced more instances of L1 use in interactional

strategies, a finding ascribed to their lower proficiency and the existence of a higher number of gaps in their interlanguage. A qualitative inspection of the results also showed that, overall, CLIL learners attained higher levels of English proficiency than their non-CLIL counterparts, and whereas groups differed in terms of preference for either the L1 or the TL in appeals and clarification requests, in both types of learners, the L1 was used in metacomments, that is, to organize and monitor the activity. Pladevall Ballester and Vraciu (2017) investigated the use of the L1s (Catalan and Spanish) of 74 primary school learners of English, the amount of L1 use in CLIL and non-CLIL learners with an equal amount of L3 English exposure over a period of two academic years. After completing an individual narrative task, a proficiency effect was found as L1 use decreased as L3 proficiency increased in both groups. It was seen that with respect to interactional strategies, CLIL learners outperformed non-CLIL learners, as the latter group produced more instances of that strategy than the former group. However, the overall use of the L1s in interactional strategies "decreased irrespective of instruction type, which can be attributed to a general increase in proficiency in both groups" (Pladevall Ballerster & Vraciu, 2017, p.15). Still in a primary education school context, García Mayo and Hidalgo Gordo (2017) conducted a study in which two groups of L1 Spanish learners of L2 English matched in age and level, and from two different foreign language instructional settings (CLIL and non-CLIL) were compared. Data was collected on two separate occasions, firstly when both groups of learners were in the 3rd year of primary education (8-9 years old) and secondly when they were in the 4th year of primary education (9-10 years old). After analysing their performance in an oral communicative task, a decreasing tendency in the use of the L1 in both groups was observed over time. Generally, the L1 was mainly used to address vocabulary followed by metacognitive talk. Learning context yielded statistical significance as non-CLIL learners used the L1 to a higher extent than CLIL learners.

Other studies on the use of prior linguistic knowledge in interactional strategies have examined secondary-school learners. Martínez Adrián and Gutiérrez Mangado (2015a) examined 19 Basque/Spanish balanced bilingual secondary school learners of L3 English during an oral narration task, together with lexical richness, accuracy, and complexity measures. Findings revealed a lower use of the L1s by CLIL leaners, as well as a greater use of the TL. Arratibel Irazusta and Martínez Adrián (in press) examined the use of Spanish and Basque in an oral narration task in two different age/proficiency CLIL

groups of L3 English learners by dividing 48 learners into two groups, one group in their 2nd year of secondary education, and the other group in their 4th year. Results indicated the inexistence of significant differences between both groups, as the gap between both groups was not wide enough to yield statistical significance. As for studies carried out with university learners in this respect, no studies have been found in the literature.

In terms of transfer lapses, Agustín Llach (2009) conducted a study with primary education learners in which the effect of proficiency on transfer lapses (borrowings, coinages and calques) in the written production of two different-instruction groups (CLIL and non-CLIL) was examined. A total of 60 children participated in the study. Whereas CLIL learners were bilingual in Spanish and Basque, the non-CLIL participants were Spanish monolinguals, and all of them were learning English as a foreign language. Findings indicated a proficiency effect in favour of the CLIL group, since non-CLIL learners produced a greater number of transfer errors. However, differences were only significant for borrowings. For both groups calques were the most common type of transfer. These results differ from those of Pladevall Ballester and Vraciu (2017), who in their longitudinal study with Catalan and Spanish primary education bilingual learners of English found a decreasing tendency in the use of borrowings and foreignizings in both CLIL and non-CLIL groups as they became proficient in the TL. When controlling time of exposure, they could observe that younger learners, irrespective of type of instruction, resorted to the L1s during L3 production in a similar amount. Gallardo del Puerto (2015) analysed the L2 English oral production of L1 Spanish primary school learners. Specifically, two CLIL groups, one from grade 4 and the other from grade 6, were compared to two non-CLIL groups. Borrowings and foreignizings were by far more frequent in the non-CLIL than in the CLIL groups, and although CLIL participants produced calques to a higher extent, no statistical significance was found in the older students. Other studies have examined transfer lapses in secondary education learners. Celaya and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) conducted a study analysing oral production of several age and proficiency groups of CLIL and non-CLIL students who were Basque-Spanish bilinguals learning L3 English. Results revealed that in the writing task, younger participants made a higher use of borrowings, while older participants produced a higher rate of foreignizings. Additionally, both CLIL groups produced fewer borrowings, whereas a clear pattern did not emerge for foreignizings. Such results do not support the data in

favour of the idea that foreignizings are typical of more proficient learners, and goes in line with more recent studies on learners' self-reported opinions about the use of communication strategies (see Martínez Adrián et al., in press, as cited in Arratibel-Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press). The (pseudo)longitudinal study by Arratibel Irazusta and Martínez Adrián (in press) also attested a greater use of borrowings and foreignizings by the younger group and the use of Spanish as a source language both in borrowings and foreignizings. As for the category interactional strategies, no studies have been found with respect to transfer lapses in tertiary education CLIL settings.

As for code-switching, an opposite trend has been found when reviewing two studies carried out with primary school learners. Whereas Gallardo del Puerto (2015) observed that non-CLIL learners used code-switching strategies to a higher extent than their CLIL counterparts, Pladevall Ballester and Vraciu (2017) found that both CLIL and non-CLIL learners produced a lower amount of code-switching as they became more proficient in the TL. Additionally, the study by Arratibel Irazsuta and Martínez Adrián (in press) did not report statistically significant differences between the two different age CLIL groups examined. No studies regarding this strategy in tertiary education have been found, and the same applies to off-task talk, as to the knowledge of the author, studies analysing this strategy in a CLIL setting are inexistent in any of the educational levels.

Finally, discourse markers have been tackled in both primary and secondary education. After analyzing amount and type of L1 Spanish use in a longitudinal study with L2 English learners, García Mayo and Hidalgo Gordo (2017) found that overall, the function that was used the lowest was discourse markers, representing a 6% of the database. Although CLIL participants used it more than their non-CLIL counterparts, differences were minimal and did not reach statistical significance. Other studies examined this strategy in secondary education settings. Lázaro Ibarrola and García Mayo (2012) explored the oral production of Basque-Spanish bilingual learners of L3 English in a CLIL program. Fifteen participants were longitudinally tested, first when they were in the 2nd year, and then when they were in the 4th year of secondary education. A proficiency effect was detected as a significant decrease of L1 use was found between the first and the second time. However, participants did not use discourse markers "in the TL such as *well, so, or you know"* (Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012, p. 140). In a subsequent study, Lázaro Ibarrola (2016) examined CLIL vs. non-CLIL learners in an oral narration task

performed by 26 Basque and Spanish bilingual learners of L3 English. As in Lázaro Ibarrola and García Mayo (2012), the inexistence of discourse markers in English was attested to. The general finding was that the non-CLIL group use hesitations rather than lexical discourse markers, which indicates a less fluent speech in the non-CLIL group. This strategy has also been found to be the most common manifestation of L1 use among the categories analyzed in the study by Arratibel Irazusta and Martínez Adrián (in press) in both age CLIL groups.

Even though the review of studies on the use of previously known languages as a communication strategy (interactional strategies, transfer lapses, code-switching, off-task talk, and discourse markers) has revealed a growing body of research, most investigations have been carried out with primary and secondary school learners (i.e. Agustín Llach, 2009; Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press; Gallardo del Puerto, 2015; Pladevall Ballester & Vraciu, 2017, among others). However, to the knowledge of the author, studies with university CLIL learners in the Spanish context are inexistent. Additionally, there is a lack of (pseudo)longitudinal studies which could shed more light in the development of strategy use (i.e. Arratibel Irazusta, 2015; Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press; Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012). These are limitations we address in this paper. The following section deals with research studies conducted in the area of self-regulatory strategies, specifically with self-initiated self-repairs and self-repetitions.

2.2.2 Research on self-regulatory strategies

When learners of a foreign language find shortcomings in the language they are learning, "they resort, consciously or unconsciously, to communication strategies" (Bada, 2010, p. 1680). Even though the learners' goal is that of minimizing the use of communication strategies in the direction of attaining or at least approximating to native-like competence, in most of the cases "the use of communication strategies becomes the solution of problems in foreign language communication" (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997, cited by Bada, 2010, p.1681).

Originally, Tarone's (1977), French and Kasper's (1984), and Poulisse's (1987) view of communication strategies did not include self-regulatory mechanisms. However, since the introduction of Tarone's (1980, as cited in Bada, 2010, p. 1681) interactional

view, several studies have incorporated repairs as another device in communication strategies for covering the lack of fluency in a foreign language (i.e. Bada, 2010; Kormos, 2000). In particular, various authors distinguish between two types of self-regulatory strategies, which include self-repetitions (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Tarone & Yule, 1987) and self-repairs (Willems, 1987; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, as cited in Bada, 2010, p. 1681).

Although the subdivision between self-repairs and self-repetitions is still inconclusive (i.e. Rieger, 2003), in this section, a review of studies on self-initiated self-repairs and on self-repetitions will be presented in an attempt to offer a more detailed portrait of our data. Unlike the investigations described in the previous section on prior linguistic-based experience that have been mostly conducted in the Spanish context, this section mainly covers investigations on self-initiated self-repairs and self-repetition strategies carried out in other countries, as very few studies in the Spanish context have been found.

2.2.2.1. Self-initiated self-repair strategies

Whereas most of the studies analysing the effect of self-initiated self-repairs in the production of TL are cross-sectional studies (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Kasper, 1985; Laakso & Sorjoneu, 2009; Liu, 2009; Sato, 2008, 2012; Sato & Takatsuka, 2016) very few are longitudinal or pseudo-longitudinal investigations (Hellerman, 2009; Kormos, 2000; Trenchs-Parera, 2009; Yang, 2002).

Initially, Gail Jefferson (1974, as cited in Rieger, 2003) launched the research on "'self-repair' in spoken discourse, but referred to it as 'error correction'"(p. 47). A few years later, Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977), introduced the term 'repair' for the first time, and made the difference between these two terms. While correction refers to the replacement of an error by a correct linguistic form, repair is not limited to error-correction but can deal with "different kinds of 'trouble' in spontaneous speech" (Rieger, 2003, p. 48). Thus, self-repair refers to every feature that is produced by the speaker, which "implies his/her own detection of a trouble source (a trigger), followed by an interruption or disturb of the flow of the speech and a consequent reaction generally intended to repair it" (Sato & Takatsuka 2016, p. 2). Self-repairs can imply error correction, hesitation pauses, searching for a word, lexical and non-lexical change, false starts, and instantaneous

repetition when they are produced by the same speaker and at the same time as the item repaired (i.e. Fox & Jasperson, 1995; Rieger, 2003; Schegloff et al., 1977). To the present date, a few authors have examined the effect of several variables in the production of self-repairs. While some have analysed grammatical difficulty (Sato & Takatsuka, 2016), others have compared the different effects and use of self-repairs in comparison to other types of repairs (Hellerman, 2009; Shehadeh, 2001), or have examined the effects of proficiency (Kormos, 2000; Liu, 2009; Sato, 2012), type of tasks (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009), timing (Hellerman, 2009), and motivation (Sato 2008).

In the context of secondary education, Sato and Takatsuka (2016) examined the effect of grammatical difficulty on self-initiated self-repairs. In particular, 32 Japanese learners of English were recorded in a conversation with a native speaker of English. Results indicated that learners attempted to self-repair errors that were categorized as more grammatically difficult than those categorized as easier. Since statistical differences were not present, researchers indicate that learners are likely to successfully repair their grammatical errors regardless of difficulty levels. Thus, the importance of "creating situations where students can self-initiate the repair of their own errors and mistakes as results yielded a high success rate of self-initiated self-repairs regardless of trigger difficulty" (Sato & Takatsuka, 2016, p.11) was highlighted. In the context of adult learners of English, Hellerman (2009) tested the production of self-initiated self-repairs of an adult Spanish learner of English in oral interaction with the aim of describing the nature of this strategy, the placement of the repair with respect to the repairable, as well as the derived possible effects of this strategy in the learning process. For the purpose of this research, a Mexican woman living in the USA was tested during her classroom talk-in-interaction over the course of 18 months. The analysis of the results indicated a gaining-time effect with the production of self-initiated self-repairs, since they were mainly used to provide time for the planning of new utterances. Results also confirmed that the learner repaired all kind of elements of the TL, irrespective of type of syntactic or lexical elements, which confirmed that this strategy is universal rather than specific to language learners. These findings are in line with those by Sato and Takatsuka (2016) in which the difficulty of grammatical aspects did not seem to have an impact on self-repair production. Finally, Hellerman (2009) suggested that the incorporation of that pragmatic strategy could be advantageous when learning a language as it helps learners to develop a larger repertoire of

mechanisms for repairing and producing new phrases in the TL. In the same context, Shehadeh (2001) conducted a study in which he compared the effects of self-initiated self-repairs with the effects of other-initiated self-repairs (in other words, repairs initiated by another person). Twenty-seven adult L2 learners of English were examined during an interaction task (picture description, opinion exchange and decision making). The results showed that learners produced more modified output after self-initiated self-repairs than after other-initiated repairs. It was also found that time was an important factor for repairs to take place, as it was observed that learners needed a certain amount of time to produce a repair of their own utterance.

As already stated, proficiency is a factor that seems to affect self-initiated self-repair production. In an attempt to analyse proficiency effects in the production of self-repairs and how proficiency affects the speed of error detection and repair, Kormos (2000) conducted a pseudo-longitudinal study. Participants were 30 Hungarian speakers of English at three levels of proficiency (pre-intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced). Each of them was individually interviewed and asked to role-play a given fragment. The results obtained indicated that the level of proficiency of the participants affected the time they needed to repair lexical, grammatical and phonological interlanguage gaps. The author pointed out that these differences might be due to "the degree of automaticity that leaners have at each stage of L2 development" (Kormos, 2000, p.162). Thus, more proficient learners seem to need less time to self-repair themselves than less proficient learners. In a study with tertiary education intermediate learners of English in China, Liu (2009) examined the effects of self-repairs when modifying their speech. A total amount of 36 Chinese students in their first year of the BA in International Trade completed an oral speaking test in English in which they had to address topics closely related to their daily life. After comparing their findings with those of Chen and Pu (2007, as cited in Liu, 2009, p. 12) results seemed to indicate a decreasing effect with proficiency since intermediate Chinese learners made repairs more frequently than relatively advanced Chinese learners of English.

Type of task is also a factor that seems to have an effect on self-initiated self-repair production, although few studies have been found in this respect. Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) conducted a study in which they explored task effects on amount and type of L1 use during the oral interaction of 12 pairs of undergraduate Spanish learners of

English. Even though their initial study did not contemplate the study of self-regulatory strategies, the results obtained pointed to the fact that, occasionally, participants used their L2 for self-correction. Thus, it seems that they occasionally needed to self-repair their utterances in order to express a message in the TL.

Another factor that seems to affect self-initiated self-repairs is motivation. In a tertiary education context, Sato (2008) examined the use and effectiveness of self-repairs in three communicative activities. Participants were 38 undergraduate Japanese learners of English with a low proficiency level in the TL. Results indicated that participants rarely produced this strategy and reported not noticing their own errors in most cases. These findings were associated with low motivation rates in the language learning as well as with a low English proficiency, which confirms Lyster and Ranta's (1997, as cited in Sato, 2008, p. 232) arguments that state that self-initiated self-repairs "will not appear in learners that do not have an adequate level of English proficiency" and VanPatten's (1990,1996, as cited in Sato, 2008, p. 232) who claimed that "for low-level learners it is enough just to maintain communication". Sato's (2008) findings also contradict those of their subsequent research (Sato, 2012), which confirmed the positive influence that motivation had on self-repair production. Sato (2012) investigated self-initiated self-repair attempts and their effects in Japanese high school learners. Thirty-two participants with low-intermediate English ability participated in the study, in which they were individually tested during free conversation in the form of an interview and had to talk about topics covering daily life. Results indicated that self-initiated self-repairs were more likely to be successful than to be erroneous. Additionally, the author attributed the results to the high motivation learners confessed to have.

To sum up, research on self-repairs has mainly focused on cross-sectional studies (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Liu, 2009; Sato, 2008, 2012; Sato & Takatsuka, 2016; Shehadeh, 2001), whereas longitudinal and (pseudo)longitudinal studies (Hellerman, 2009; Kormos, 2000) are scarce. In addition, as far as the author of the present study is concerned, very few studies have analysed the effect of proficiency in self-initiated self-repair production (Kormos, 2000; Liu, 2009), and little is known about the use of this strategy in the Spanish context with university students (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009), the target population of the current study. These gaps will be

addressed in the present paper. In the following sub-section, a review of research studies conducted in the area of self-repetitions is presented.

2.2.2.2. Self-repetition strategies

The term self-repetition, which is considered a "device in communication strategies to overcome the lack of fluency" (i.e. Willems, 1987; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, as cited in Bada, 2010, p. 1681), refers to the use of "identical lexical and/or non-lexical items in the repaired and repairing segment" (Jasperson, 1995, as cited in Rieger, 2003, p. 47). Schegloff et al., (1997) listed the different functions self-repetitions may have, among which there is "word search, word replacement, repair of person references, and repair of speaker selection" (as cited in Rieger, 2003, p. 52). Apart from allowing the speaker to replace or correct the speech, self-repetitions enable the speaker to gain time (Fox & Jasperson, 1995, as cited in Rieger, p. 49).

As regards empirical studies on self-repetition, a small set of studies have examined this strategy being practically inexistent in the Spanish context (Trenchs-Parera, 2009). Some studies have addressed the study of self-repetitions while taking the potential effect of the languages involved into account (Bada, 2010; Rieger, 2003) and other investigation have analysed proficiency effects (Trenchs-Parera, 2009).

With respect to the potential impact of the language involved, Rieger (2003) analysed the effects of language-structure from two different languages, English and German. Participants were a group of 8 volunteer professors and graduate students, among which 5 were native speakers of English and 3 native speakers of German. All of them were bilingual and used both languages on a daily basis. For the purpose of this study, they engaged into two casual conversations, one in English and another in German. The examination of the results indicated that English-German bilinguals used repetitions in a different way. L1 English learners used repetitions of a pronoun-verb combination to a higher extent than their German counterparts. In contrast, German L1 participants repeated demonstrative pronouns to a higher extent. Bada (2010) analysed prevalence, type and systematicity of self-repetitions produced by 49 Turkish university learners from an English language-teaching department and 24 from a French language-teaching department. Two films were shown by the researcher and participants were asked to

provide comments. While English learners watched the films in English, French learners watched them in French. Findings indicated that learners repeated elements "irrespectively of syntactic or lexical elements at the word, group or sentence level" (Bada, 2010, p. 1687) which differs from what Rieger (2003) had previously stated. Both Turkish learners of English and of French mainly used self-repetitions to gain time to think about what they wanted to say.

Regarding proficiency effects, Trenchs-Parera (2009) examined the strategies employed by 19 undergraduate Catalan-Spanish bilingual learners of L3 English. She observed that as learners' proficiency increased, they became more aware of their inter-language gaps and used strategies like self-repeating words within the speech. Such a strategy was used as a mean of gaining extra time to think while trying to adjust their speech to that of native speakers. Results in her study revealed that learners overused this strategy after receiving formal instruction, but its presence decreased after learners experienced a stay abroad.

The overview of the few studies analysing self-repetition strategies has shown a scarcity of investigations in this aspect. While some of them are cross-sectional (Bada, 2010; Rieger, 2003), only one has been found to be longitudinal (Trenchs-Parera, 2009). In addition, to the author's knowledge, only the latter study addresses the effect of proficiency in self-repetition effects with Spanish university students.

3 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The literature review has uncovered potential gaps that need to be filled in research. Firstly, very limited research exists with CLIL university learners. Secondly, no studies to the present date have been conducted in the context of tertiary education addressing previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies. Thirdly, (pseudo)longitudinal studies which could shed more light in the development of strategy use are lacking. The present paper will try to address the aforementioned gaps by analysing the strategies used by CLIL learners when communicating in the TL. More specifically, we will look at previously known language-based strategies (transfer lapses, code-switching, off-task talk and discourse markers) and self-regulatory strategies (self-initiated self-

repairs and self-repetitions) used by three proficiency groups of undergraduate students when orally narrating a story in English. In particular, the following research questions are addressed:

RQ 1: Are there any differences between the three students proficiency groups in terms of amount of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies?

RQ 2: Are there any differences between the amount of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies in each group?

RQ 3: Among previously known language-based strategies, which ones are the most predominant in each group?

RQ 4: Among self-regulatory strategies, which ones are the most predominant in each group?

RQ 5: Do learners show a preference for their previously known languages or the TL when making use of off-task talk and discourse markers?

4 THE STUDY

4.1 Participants

The study reported here was part of a larger Education Innovation Project (PIE), which was carried out with students of the BA in English Studies at the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU). As also shown in other studies with similar participants (see Gallardo del Puerto & Gómez Lacabex, 2016; Gallardo del Puerto & Martínez Adrián, 2015), these types of students are considered CLIL learners as they were receiving 50-70% of their instruction in English and had some other subjects in their native languages (Basque and/or Spanish). In addition, they had an 'English language' subject. The project focused on creating and incorporating the use of Information and Communication Technology (TIC) resources to stimulate learners' autonomous learning of English. In particular, the project aimed at improving the use of verb tenses in English.

The members of the PIE elaborated a set of TIC exercises and tutorials, which allowed the learners to practice the use of verb tenses at their own pace. Over the period of one month, they received instructions weekly through the E-gela website as to when and how to complete several exercises. Before having access to the tutorial and exercises, a questionnaire on their linguistic experience was given to them, in which they were asked about the number of languages they spoke and at what age they started learning English, among others (see Appendix I). Additionally, an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Allan, 2004) was administered to test their level of English (see Appendix II). They also completed a specific pre-test on verb tenses. After the implementation of the innovation experience, learners were tested again to analyse the benefits obtained from the treatment received of verb tenses. Both pre-tests and post-tests comprised of two different tasks: an oral and a written task. The data used for the present study corresponds to the oral pre-test of this project. However, as we will see below in section 5, the analysis of this task will be aimed at the use of 'previously known language-based strategies' and 'self-regulatory strategies'. For the present dissertation, a total of 51 Basque-Spanish bilinguals out of a total of 189 participants who took part in the innovation experience were selected. The reduced number of students derives from the control of several variables among the participants: age, proficiency level, age of first exposure, and amount of exposure to English. All of them were Spanish-Basque bilinguals, but they differed with regards to their L1 and L2 and the degree of bilingualism they had. Some learners had Spanish and Basque as their L1s, others had Basque as L1 and Spanish as L2, while there were others who had L1 Spanish and Basque as their L2. In all cases, English was a L3.

Participants were divided into three different groups, based on the course they belonged to and the scores they obtained in the OPT, as displayed in Table 1.

	N	Mean OPT	Minimum	Maximum	SD
Group I: B2	19	73.47	50	87	10.11
Group II: C1-	21	79.52	70	94	7.494
Group III: C1	12	81	70	92	6.325

Table 1: Results from the OPT (Mean, minimum, maximum and standard deviation)

The level of the group was calculated according to the mean scores of the test. As scores were very similar between groups, the findings were scrutinized and students qualitatively divided into three different groups. According to the Common European

Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), Group I was a B2 level, as they scored a mean score of 73.47 out of 74.5, Group II a -C1 level, since they obtained a mean score of 79.52 out of 80, and Group III a C1 level, as they scored a mean of 79.52 out of 80. Participants' characteristics are summarized in Table 2.

	Mean age	Academic Year	Age of first exposure	Hours at school	Total number of hours of exposure	Hours of CLIL	Private lessons	Time abroad
Group I	18	1st	5	3	1536	300	10%	94.7%
Group II	20	2nd	5	3	1896	660	25%	75%
Group III	22	3rd	6	2,7	2376	1140	25%	92%

Table 2: Participants' characteristics

As shown in Table 2, Group I, was composed of 19 participants (16 females and 3 males), and their average age was 18. They were in the first year of their degree in English studies, and reported to have started learning English at the age of five. They started learning English at school for three hours a week, and only 10% indicated having attended private lessons. To get an approximate total number of hours of English the group had received, only the compulsory hours included in each academic year were taken into account. From primary to tertiary education, 1536 hours of English exposure were received, among which 300 hours were devoted in CLIL instruction. The majority of participants confirmed having spent some time abroad (94.7%) either on holiday or to study. Group II was made up of 21 participants (16 females and 5 males) and their average age was 20. At the time of data collection, they were in the second year of their degree. As in Group I, Group II started learning English at age 5, receiving 3 hours per week of English language lessons. Twenty-five per cent of them reported having taken private lessons. Until the moment of testing, they had received 1896 hours of English, 660 hours of them being through CLIL. Seventy-five per cent of them were found to have spent some time abroad. Finally, there were 12 participants in Group III (9 females and 3 males), and their average age was 22. At the time of testing, they were in the third year of their degree. They had been studying English since age six with an average of 2.7 hours per week. A quarter of the learners received external exposure to English. The total number of hours of exposure was 2376 (1140 hours of CLIL lessons) and almost all of them (92%) reported having spent some time abroad.

Even if there were differences among participants with regards to staying abroad, all of them were included in the study as they did not differ in terms of their OPT scores.

4.2 Instruments and procedure

As mentioned in the previous section, the data reported in this paper is part of a bigger project (PIE) where a wider battery of tests was included. The data used for the sake of the present paper include the test of general proficiency (OPT) and a non-collaborative oral narration task (see Appendix III). For the latter, participants were asked to orally narrate one of these well-known fairytales: Snow-White, Cinderella, Pinocchio and Little Red Riding Hood. They were assigned three minutes to perform the task. This task was specifically designed by the members of the PIE, and was recorded in one of the laboratories of the Faculty of Arts in Vitoria-Gasteiz. All the narrations were audiotaped, transcribed and later on codified by the author of this paper following CHILDES format. For the codification, all instances of previously known language-based strategies (Basque and Spanish) and self-regulatory strategies were identified. Section 4.2.1 depicts the different categories included for the analysis of previously known language-based strategies, and section 4.2.2 for self-regulatory strategies.

4.2.1 Previously known language-based strategies

Transfer Lapses

Transfer lapses refer to the "unintentional use of the first language (Basque or Spanish) to express one or more terms" (Cenoz, 2003, p. 5), but not whole sentences, as a part of an English utterance. This category is comprised of borrowings, foreignizings and calques (Poulisse, 1990).

- Borrowings: They refer to direct insertions of L1 words in L2 utterances without adapting the word phonologically or morphologically (Poulisse, 1990), as observed in (1), an example taken from our database:

(1) when she was going to her grandmother's house she found a *lobo*
when she was going to her grandmother's house she found a wolf
'When she was going to her grandmother's house she found a wolf'

- Foreignizings: They are L1 words "inserted in L2 utterances with phonological and/or morphological adaptations" (Poulisse, 1990, p. 111). Example (2) from Arratibel-Irazusta and Martínez Adrián (in press, p. 12) illustrates this sub-category:

(2) the boy is very *preocupate*
the boy is very worried
'The boy is very worried'

- Calques: They are also known as "literal translations" (Agustín Llach, 2005, p. 113). They are meaning or semantic extensions that occur when an L1 word or expression is directly incorporated in the TL utterance assuming that the meaning will be directly equivalent. The following example (3) extracted from our database illustrates the use of calques:

(3) Cinderella *proved* that shoe and it fit perfectly
Cinderella tried on that shoe and it fit perfectly
'Cinderella tried on that shoe and it fit perfectly'

Code-Switching

The term code-switching is understood as the production of "whole sentences in another language different from the TL" (Cenoz, 2001, p. 12) which in the present study are Basque and Spanish, as shown in (4), from Arratibel-Irazusta & Martínez Adrián (in press, p.13):

(4) espera que no me sale
wait that no to me come out
'Wait because it does not come out (the word)'

Off-task talk

This category, also known as private speech (i.e. Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Anton & Dicamilla, 1999), refers to those expressions that work to self-regulate the oral discourse in which students engage in a talk unrelated to the task, as exemplified in (5) from our database:

(5) and that way when the # *que pasa no va esto*
and that way when the # what is wrong it does not work
'and that way when the girl, what is wrong it does not work'

Lexical discourse markers

The term *lexical discourse markers* refers to those "lexical items that have no meaning but whose main function is facilitating the flow of speech" (Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012, p. 140). Some frequently used discourse markers words are: "*well, so, you know,* etc." (Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012, p.140). Other authors such as Trenchs-Parera (2006) refer to them as 'lexical pause fillers'. Examples of lexical discourse markers in English and Spanish from our database are shown in (6) and (7) respectively:

(6) *so* he asked a hunter to kill her and take her heart back to her
so he asked a hunter to kill her and take her heart back to her
'*so* he asked a hunter to kill her and take her heart back to her'

(7) the wolf *bueno* appeared in the track
the wolf well appeared in the track
'the wolf appeared in the track'

Non-lexical discourse markers

The term *non-lexical discourse markers* is known as "disruptions in the flow of the speech" (Trenchs-Parera, 2009, p. 373) which do not consist of a lexical item but, generally, of pauses (stops in the flow of the speech) and hesitations (meaningless words placed in the middle of an utterance) (Lázaro Ibarrola, 2016, p. 135). Two examples from our database are presented below, (8) an example of pause and (9) of hesitations:

(8) # Little Red Riding Hood is a story about a little girl
Little Red Riding Hood is a story about a little girl
'Little Red Riding Hood is a story about a little girl'

(9) a little girl went *eeeh* through the woods
a little girl went *eeeh* through the woods
'a little girl went through the woods'

The present study also includes the analysis of self-regulatory strategies that may be used to compensate for the lack of fluency: self-initiated self-repairs and self-repetitions.

Self-Initiated Self-Repair

This term refers to the reformulation of an erroneous utterance or word that is detected by the speaker as incorrect and is consequently repaired. It "shows a speaker's orientation to the production of coherent strings of talk in the way that chunks of language (very often grammatical constituents) are repaired" (Hellerman, 2009, p. 116). They imply the speaker's "detection of a trouble source (a trigger), followed by an interruption or disturbance in the flow of the speech and a consequent reaction generally intended to repair it" (Rieger, 2003, p. 48). Usually, they occur when an utterance is preceded by a hesitation, a pause, a cut-off or a non-lexical marker, followed by the search of a word and/or false starts, and then the production of a repaired utterance (Hellerman, 2009; Rieger, 2003). Examples (10) and (11) from our database illustrate these points:

(10) she *eat eh # eh ate* the grandmother
she *eat eh # eh eat* the grandmother
'She ate the grandmother'

(11) *he* suspect that something # *she suspected that something* was going wrong
she suspect that something was going wrong
'She suspected that something was going wrong'

Self-Repetitions

Self-repetition refers to the use of identical lexical and/or non-lexical items in the sentence that have been already mentioned in the repaired utterance. They are "devices for delaying the production of the next lexical item" (Fox et al., 1996, cited in Rieger, 2003, p. 51). Thus, the main function of repetitions is to give the speaker enough time to think

about the correct items that should be uttered next (Rieger, 2003). In the present study, self-repetitions will be further broken down into previously known languages (Spanish and Basque) as observed in example (12), and those produced in the TL, as in (13):

(12) Little Girl Riding Hood found *a lobo a lobo*. Little Girl Riding Hood found *a lobo a lobo*. 'Little Girl Riding Hood found a wolf'

(13) she was a little girl *who used to who used to* take the food
she was a little girl *who used to who used to* take food
'She was a little girl who used to take food'

4.3 Data analysis

With respect to statistical analyses, both descriptive and inferential analyses were conducted to investigate the existence of statistically significant differences between the three groups of proficiency regarding amount and type of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies. Descriptive statistical analysis, mean scores, standard deviations and percentages were calculated for each of the categories under research. With regards to inferential statistical analyses, to test whether the data was normally distributed, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests (K-S) were first calculated (with corrections of Lillefors). As data did not meet the criteria for normal distribution, non-parametric tests were run: The Kruskal-Wallis test for between-group analyses, and for comparing the groups two-by-two the Mann-Whitney U-Test was used. For intragroup comparisons in each category, Friedman and Wilcoxson's Signed Rank Tests were computed.

5 RESULTS

So as to answer research question 1, an inter-group analysis will be shown. Subsequently, an intra-group analysis will be reported in order to give an answer to research questions 2 to 5.

5.1 Inter-group analysis: Previously known language-based strategies

In this section, results regarding the overall number of previously known language-based words produced over the total amount of words produced in each group will be presented in the first place. Then, results regarding each previous linguistic experience-based strategy codified will be reported and compared between groups. As there were not instances of code-switching in any of the groups, results concerning this category will not be reported in this section. Furthermore, comments will be made on the results in light of previously known language-based strategies used in Spanish, as no instances of Basque were found.

Table 3 features the results regarding the mean number of previously known languages and the ratio of the use of previously known languages over total number of words for each group tested.

	Mean	**SD**	**Percentage**
Group I	0.42	0.61	0.15% *(8/5432)*
Group II	0.43	0.68	0.15% *(9/6084)*
Group III	0.17	0.39	0.06% *(2/3402)*

Table 3: Total previously known language use in the three proficiency groups

The numerator reflects the number of previously known language-based instances and the denominator the total number of words produced for each group. As can be observed, instances of previously known languages are scarce overall. A decreasing tendency in the use of them occurs between Group I and Group III. Group I produce more known language-based words than Group III participants, while Group I and Group II perform in similar proportions. However, the analysis of the Mann-Whitney U Test, as Table 4 illustrates, revealed the inexistence of statistically significant differences between the groups (GI vs. GII: Z= -0.113, p-value= 0.910; GI vs. GIII: Z= -1.230, p-value= 0.219; GII vs. GIII: Z= -1.106, p-value= 0.269).

G.I vs. G.II		**G.I vs. G.III**		**G.II vs. G.III**	
Z	P	Z	P	Z	P
-0.113	0.910	-1.230	0.219	-1.106	0.269

Table 4: Mann-Whitney U Test for total use of previously known language-based strategies

5.1.1. Transfer lapses

Table 5 shows the results obtained in the three groups for transfer lapses. Borrowings were hardly produced in Group II and Group III, while no instances were found in Group I. Foreignizings were non-existent in the three groups. In contrast, calques were only obtained in Group I. The intergroup analysis reported in Table 6 yielded a statistically significant difference when Group I and Group II were compared in terms of calques (Z= -2.188, p-value= 0.029), while no differences were found between Group I and Group III (Z= -1.675, p-value= 0.094). No differences were found in the case of borrowings (Group I vs. Group II: Z=0.951, p-value=0.342; Group I vs. group III: Z=1.258, p-value= 0.208; Group II vs. Group III: Z= 0.407, p-value=0.684).

	Borrowings			**Foreignizings**			**Calques**		
	Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage
Group I	0.00	0.00	0% (0/*5432)*	0.00	0.00	0% (0/*5432)*	0.21	0.42	0.074% (4/*5432)*
Group II	0.05	0.22	0.016% (1/*6084)*	0.00	0.00	0% (0/*6084)*	0.00	0.00	0% (0/*6084)*
Group III	0.08	0.29	0.029% (1/3402)	0.00	0.00	0% (0/3402)	0.00	0.00	0% (0/3402)

Table 5: Previously known language use in transfer lapses: borrowings, foreignizings and calques, in the three proficiency groups

	G.I vs. G.II		**G.I vs. G.III**		**G.II vs. G.III**	
	Z	P	Z	P	Z	P
Borrowings	-0.95	0.34	-1.26	0.21	-0.41	0.68
Calques	-2.19	0.03	-1.68	0.09	0	1

Table 6: Mann-Whitney U Test for transfer lapses

5.1.2. Off-task talk

Table 7 shows the results obtained in the three groups for off-task talk. As off-task talk was not used in Basque, results are discussed in view of Spanish. As shown in Table 7, this strategy in Spanish was almost non-existent as it was only used once by Group II. As reported in Table 8, no statistically significant differences were observed in this condition

either between Group II and Group I (Z=-0.951, p-value=0.342), or between Group II and Group III (Z= 0.756, p-value=0.450).

	Mean	SD	Percentage
Group I	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/5432)*
Group II	0.04	0.15	0.02% *(1/6084)*
Group III	0.00	0.00	0 % *(0/3402)*

Table 7: Previously known language use in off-task talk in the three proficiency groups

Group I vs. Group II		Group II vs. Group III	
Z	P	Z	P
-0.951	0.342	-0.756	0.450

Table 8: Mann-Whitney U Test for off-task talk

5.1.3 Lexical discourse markers

Table 9 shows the results obtained in the three groups for lexical discourse markers. Group II and Group I produced a slightly higher number of discourse markers. However, as Table 10 shows, the difference did not reach statistical significance (Group I vs. Group II: Z= -0.354, p-value= 0.724; Group I vs. Group III: Z= -0.923, p-value= 0.356; Group II vs. Group III: Z= .1.143, p-value= 0.253).

	Mean	SD	Percentage
Group I	0.21	0.31	0.07% (4/*5432)*
Group II	0.33	0.49	0.12% (7/*6084)*
Group III	0.08	0.21	0.03% (1/3402)

Table 9: Previously known language use in lexical discourse markers in the three proficiency groups

Group I vs. II		Group I vs. III		Group II vs. III	
Z	P	Z	P	Z	P
-0.354	0.724	-0.923	0.356	-1.143	0.253

Table 10: Mann-Whitney U Test for lexical discourse markers

In summary, the use of previously known language-based strategies was scarce in all groups, and differences between the groups were minimal. It seems that proficiency did not determine changes in the production of these strategies between the three groups, as significant differences only appeared in the use of calques in favour of Group I. With respect to the other strategies within transfer lapses, foreignizings were not employed by

any of the groups, and borrowings were only produced by Groups II and III. Code-switching was non-existent in the production of the three groups, and off-task talk was only produced by Group II. Finally, all groups made use of lexical discourse markers, with a slightly higher production in Groups I and II. Section 5.2 offers the inter-group analysis for self-regulatory strategies.

5.2 Inter-group analysis: Self-regulatory strategies

In this section, results regarding self-regulatory strategies in the three groups of proficiency are shown. First, results of the overall percentage of self-regulatory strategies are reported. Then, results regarding each self-regulatory strategy are shown and subsequently compared between groups.

Table 11 features the results regarding the mean number and percentage of self-regulatory strategies words for each group tested. The numerator reflects the number of self-regulatory words and the denominator the total number of words produced.

	Mean	SD	Percentage
Group I	11.21	3.07	3.92% *(213/5432)*
Group II	12.38	3.40	4.27% *(260/6084)*
Group III	11.75	3.72	4.14 % *(141/3402)*

Table 11: Use of self-regulatory strategies in the three proficiency groups

A slight increase of self-regulatory strategies occurs from Group I to Group II (4.27%) level. Thus, older and more proficient participants seem to make a higher use of self-regulatory strategies than younger and less proficient learners. However, this increasing tendency is not linear, as Group III used that strategy to a slightly lower extent than Group II. However, these differences, as shown in Table 12, were not statistically significant (Group I vs. Group II: Z= -0.203, p-value= 0.839; Group I vs. group III: Z= -0.122, p-value= 0.903; Group II vs. group III: Z= -0.037, p-value= 0.970).

Group I vs. II		Group I vs. III		Group II vs. III	
Z	P	Z	P	Z	P
-0.203	0.839	-0.122	0.903	-0.037	0.970

Table 12: Mann-Whitney U Test for self-regulatory strategies

5.2.1. Self-Initiated self repair

Table 13 shows the results obtained in the three groups of participants for their use of self-initiated self-repairs. As no instances of Basque and Spanish were found, results presented refer to those strategies produced in English. Ratios of self-initiated self-repair are calculated over total number of words used.

As Table 13 shows, Group I is the group that produces self-initiated self-repairs to a higher extent, followed by Group I and Group III, but no statistically significant differences were found (Group I vs. Group II: Z= -0.424, p-value= 0.672; Group I vs. Group III: Z= -1.001, p-value= 0.317; Group II vs. Group III: Z= -1.285, p-value= 0.199) as can be observed in Table 14.

	Mean	SD	Percentage
Group I	2.92	2.45	2.04% *(111/5432)*
Group II	3.07	2.38	2.12% *(129/6084)*
Group III	2.64	2.45	1.85% *(62/3402)*

Table: 13: Use of self-initiated self-repair in the three proficiency groups

	Group I vs. II		**Group I vs. III**		**Group II vs. III**	
	Z	P	Z	P	Z	P
Self-initiated self-repair	-0.424	0.672	-1.001	0.317	-1.285	0.199

Table 14: Mann-Whitney U Test for self-initiated self-repair

5.2.2. Self-repetition

Table 15 shows the results obtained in the three groups of participants for their use of self-repetition with respect to the total amount of words. As no instances were obtained in Basque and just one was produced in Spanish, results will only be focused on the self-repetitions in English. As Table 15 shows, there seems to be an increasing tendency in the use of self-repetitions between the groups. The group that showed a higher rate is Group III, followed by Group II and Group I.

		Mean	**SD**	**Percentage**
Group I	English	5.37	3.86	100% *(102/102)*
Group II	English	6.19	4.53	99.23% *(130/131)*
Group III	English	6.58	5.48	100% *(79/79)*

Table 15: Use of self-repetitions in the three proficiency groups

As observed in Table 16, the analysis did not yield statistically significant differences between the groups (Group I vs. Group II: Z= -0.625, p-value= 0.532; Group I vs. Group III: Z= -0.554, p-value= 0.579; Group II vs. Group III: Z= 0.000, p-value=1).

	Group I vs. II		**Group I vs. III**		**Group II vs. III**	
	Z	P	Z	P	Z	P
English	-0.625	0.532	-0.554	0.579	0.000	1

Table 16: Mann-Whitney U Test for self-repetitions

To sum up the results regarding the use of self-regulatory strategies in the three groups of proficiency, it seems that as learners become more proficient in the TL, they tend to use this strategy to a higher extent. However, this was not supported by statistical significance, as no differences were obtained either in the use of self-initiated self-repairs or in self-repetitions. Section 5.3 is devoted to the intra-group analysis of the data.

5.3 Intra-group analysis

In this section, results concerning research questions 2 to 5 will be presented. First, a comparison of the use of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies in each group will be offered. Then, an examination of prior linguistic experience-based strategies in each group will be provided, and the same will be applied to self-regulatory strategies. Finally, a comparison of previously known language-based strategies to TL-based strategies will be shown.

5.3.1 Comparison of previously known language-based strategies to self-regulatory strategies

Tables 17 to 22 present the data for the comparison of previously known language-based to self-regulatory strategies in each group. Mean number of instances and the ratio of each type of strategy over the total number of words are included, as well as the results of inferential statistics.

As can be observed in Table 17, Group I produced mores instances of self-regulatory strategies than of previously known language-based strategies.

Group I					
Previously known language-based strategies			**Self-regulatory strategies**		
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%
0.42	0.61	0.15% *(8/5432)*	11.21	3.07	3.92% *(213/5432)*

Table 17: Use of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies in Group I

The analysis of the Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test, as Table 18 illustrates, revealed the existence of statistically significant differences in favour of a higher use of self-regulatory strategies (Z= -6.281, p-value=0.001).

Group I: use of the Previously known language-based strategies vs. self-regulatory strategies	
Z	**P**
- 6.281	0.001

Table 18: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for the comparison between previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies used in Group I

With respect to Group II (Table 19), the use of self-regulatory strategies was higher than the use of prior linguistic experience-based strategies. As Table 18 shows, the higher production of self-regulatory strategies in Group II was also statistically significant (Z= -3.827, p-value=0.001).

Group II					
Previously known language-based strategies			**Self-regulatory strategies**		
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%
0.43	0.68	0.15% *(9/6084)*	12.38	3.40	4.27% *(260/6084)*

Table 19: Use of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies in Group II

Group II: use of the Previously known language-based strategies vs. self-regulatory strategies	
Z	**P**
-4.018	0.001

Table 20: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for the comparison between previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies used in Group II

Finally, in the case of Group III, (see Tables 21 and 22), a higher proportion of self-regulatory strategies was also observed, the difference being statistically significant (Z= -3.827, p-value=0.002).

Group III					
Previously known language-based strategies			**Self-regulatory strategies**		
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%
0.17	0.39	0.06% *(2/3402)*	11.8	3.72	4.14 % *(141/3402)*

Table 21: Use of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies in Group III

Group III: use of the Previously known language-based strategies vs. self-regulatory strategies	
Z	**P**
-3.066	0.002

Table 22: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for the comparison between previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies used in Group III

To summarize this section, self-regulatory strategies were far more frequent in the three proficiency groups examined. In the next section, results concerning the most prevalent prior linguistic experience-based strategies are offered.

5.3.2. Most used previously known language-based strategies

Tables 23-30 illustrate the results for the comparison of the different previously known language-based categories used by each group. A Friedman test was computed to investigate the existence of statistical significant differences between the four strategies for each group. When statistical significance was found, Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Tests were run for post-hoc analyses.

As featured in Table 23, data indicates that lexical discourse markers followed by transfer lapses were the most used strategies in Group I, and they were used in the same proportions. Code switching and off-task talk were non-existent. As illustrated in Table 24, the Friedman test reported the existence of significant differences in the use of the different previously known language-based strategies in Group I (X^2= 8.727, p-value= 0.033). The Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test showed that transfer lapses and lexical discourse markers

were the most used strategies, with statistically significant differences with respect to code-switching (Z=-2.000, p-value=0.046) and off-task talk (Z=-2.000, p-value= 0.046), as observed in Table 25.

Group I												
Transfer Lapses			**Code-Switching**			**Off-task talk**			**Discourse markers lexical**			
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	
0.07	0.26	0.07% (4/5432)	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/5432)*	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/5432)*	0.21	0.31	0.074% (4/*5432)*	

Table 23: Use of previously-known language-based strategies in Group I

Group I: transfer-lapses vs. code-switching vs. off-task talk vs. lexical discourse markers	
X^2	**P**
8.727	0.033

Table 24: Friedman Test for previously known language-based strategies in Group I

	Transfer-lapses		Code-switching		Off-task talk		Lexical discourse markers	
	Z	P	Z	P	Z	P	Z	P
Transfer-lapses			-2.000	0.046	-2.000	0.046	0.000	1
Code-switching	-2.000	0.046					-2.000	0.046
Off-task talk	-2.000	0.046					-2.000	0.046
Lexical discourse markers	0.000	1	-2.000	0.046	-2.000	0.046		

Table 25: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for previously known language-based strategies in Group I

The analysis for Group II is presented in Table 26. Lexical discourse markers were more frequently used among the rest of previously known language-based strategies, followed by transfer lapses and off –task talk, which contrasts with Group I in which the latter strategy was non-existent. The Friedman test reported in Table 27 confirmed that differences between strategies in Group II were statistically significant (X^2= 8.429, p-value= 0.038). Post-hoc analyses showed that lexical discourse markers were the most used strategy with statistically significant differences with respect to code-switching (Z=-

2.070, p-value=0.038), and marginally significant differences with transfer lapses (TLs: Z= -1.730, p-value= 0.084) and off-task talk (OTT: Z=-1.730, p-value=0.084).

Group II												
Transfer Lapses			**Code-Switching**			**Off-task talk**			**Discourse markers lexical**			
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	
0.02	0.13	0.07% (1/6084)	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/6084)*	0.05	0.15	0.02% *(1/6084)*	0.33	0.49	0.12% (7/*6084)*	

Table 26: Use of previously known language-based strategies in Group II

Group II: transfer-lapses vs. code-switching vs. off-task talk vs. lexical discourse markers	
X^2	**P**
8.429	0.038

Table 27: Friedman test for previously known language-based strategies in Group II

	Transfer-lapses		Code-switching		Off-task talk		Lexical discourse markers	
	Z	P	Z	P	z	P	Z	P
Transfer-lapses			-1.000	0.317	0.000	1	-1.730	0.084
Code-switching	-1.000	0.317			-1.000	0.317	-2.070	0.038
Off-task talk	0.000	1	-1.000	0.317			-1.730	0.084
Lexical discourse markers	-1.730	0.084	-2.070	0.038	-1.730	0.084		

Table 28: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for previously known language-based strategies in Group II

Finally, Table 29 summarizes the results from Group III. In this respect, transfer lapses and lexical discourse markers were the most used strategies, as in Group I. Code-switching and off-task talk strategies were not used. Although transfer lapses and lexical discourse markers were the most used previously known language-based strategies, the Friedman test revealed that such differences did not reach statistical significance (X^2= 2, p-value= 0.572), as reported in Table 30.

Group III											
Transfer Lapses			**Code-Switching**			**Off-task talk**			**Discourse markers lexical**		
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%
0.03	0.17	0.03% (1/3402)	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/3402)*	0.00	0.00	0 % *(0/3402)*	0.05	0.20	0.03% (1/3402)

Table 29: Use of previously known language-based strategies in Group III

Group III: transfer-lapses vs. code-switching vs. off-task talk vs. lexical discourse markers	
X^2	P
2	0.572

Table 30: Friedman test for previously known language-based strategies in Group III

In summary, among previously known language-based strategies, lexical discourse markers were used to a higher extent than the rest of the strategies in the three groups. A similar analysis is presented in the following section with regards to the use of self-regulatory strategies in each group.

5.3.3 Most used self-regulatory strategies

The following section presents the results of self-regulatory strategies most used in each group. As in the previous analyses with prior linguistic experience-based strategies, a Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test was conducted to investigate the existence of statistically significant between the two strategies for each group. While self-repetitions are classified and analysed in terms of the three languages used by the participants, self-initiated self-repairs only refer to English as it was the only language used by the participants when using this strategy.

Table 31 features the results for Group I, which shows that self-initiated self-repairs were more common than self-repetition. The difference did not reach significance (Z=-0.404, p-value= 0.686).

Group I					
Self-Initiated Self Repair			**Self-repetition**		
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%
2.92	2.45	2.04% *(111/5432)*	1.79	3.36	1.88% *(102/5432)*

Table 31: Use of self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies in Group I

Group I: Self-initiated self-repair vs. Self-repetition	
Z	**P**
-0.404	0.686

Table 32: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for the comparison between self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies in Group I

A more qualitative analysis was done with respect to the language used to self-repetitions in each group. Table 33 features the use of the different self-repetition subcategories in Group I. Results show that self-repetitions were just produced in English.

Group I: Self-repetition								
Spanish			**Basque**			**English**		
Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage
0.00	0.00	0% 0/102	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/102)*	5.37	3.86	100% *(102/102)*

Table 33: Self-repetitions in Spanish, Basque and English in Group I

Table 34 offers the comparison of self-regulatory strategies in Group II. As reported in the table, and unlike Group I, self-repetitions and self-initiated self-repairs were used in similar proportions. In order to see whether these differences were statistically significant, a Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test was conducted, which confirmed the inexistence of statistically significant differences (Z=-0.019, p-value= 0.985), as can be observed in Table 35.

Group II					
Self-Initiated Self Repair			**Self-repetition**		
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%
3.07	2.38	2.12% *(129/6084)*	2.08	3.9	2.15% *(131/6084)*

Table 34: Use of self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies in Group II

Group II: Self-initiated self-repair vs. Self-repetition	
Z	**P**
-0.019	0.985

Table 35: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for the comparison between self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies in Group II

A further qualitative analysis of self-repetition was carried out in Group II. In Table 36 further subdivisions for self-repetition in terms of the language used are shown. English was by far the most frequently used language for this category. Spanish was hardly used, and Basque was non-existent.

Group II: Self-repetitions								
Spanish			**Basque**			**English**		
Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage
0.05	0.22	0.87% *(1/131))*	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/131)*	6.19	4.53	99.23% *(130/131)*

Table 36: Self-repetitions in Spanish, Basque and English produced by Group II

Table 37 displays the comparison of self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies for Group III. As can be observed, self-repetitions were more frequently used than self-initiated self-repairs. However, these differences did not reach significance, as reported by the Wicoxon's Signed Rank Test (Z=-0.276, p-value=0.783) (see Table 38).

Group III					
Self-Initiated Self Repair			**Self-repetition**		
Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%
2.64	2.45	1.85% *(62/3402)*	2.19	4.4	2.32% *(79/3402)*

Table 37: Use of self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies in Group II

Group III: Self-initiated self-repair vs. Self-repetition	
Z	**P**
-0.276	0.783

Table 38: Wilcoxon's Signed Rank Test for the comparison between self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies in Group III

As for the subcategorization of self-repetition in terms of the language use, as can be observed in Table 39, participants only used English when repeating themselves.

Group III: Self-repetitions								
Spanish			**Basque**			**English**		
Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage
0.00	0.00	0% *(0/79)*	0.00	0.00	0% *(0/79)*	6.58	5.48	100% *(79/79)*

Table 39: Self-repetitions in Spanish, Basque and English produced by Group III

To sum up the results concerning the comparison between the two subcategories of self-regulatory strategies in each proficiency group, no statistical significant differences were found between self-initiated self-repair and self-repetitions. In the three groups, English was by far the most used language, as Basque was inexistent in the three groups, and Spanish was only used in Group II once. In the next section, a comparison of previously known language-based strategies to TL-based strategies is offered. In particular, the use of off-task talk and discourse markers in the respective languages will be discussed.

5.3.4 Comparison of previously known language-based strategies to TL-based strategies: the case of off-task talk and discourse markers

Table 40 shows the results for Group I. As can be observed, the overall use of English was higher than that of Spanish. They used the off-task talk strategy only in English, which indicates that they preferred the TL to their prior linguistic knowledge in the use of this strategy. On the other hand, they used more lexical discourse markers in English than in Spanish.

		Mean	SD	%
Group I: SPANISH	Off-task talk	0.00	0	0% (0/*5432)*
	Lexical discourse markers	0.21	0.42	0.07% (4/*5432)*
	Total previously known languages	0.42	0.42	*0.07% (4/5432)*
Group I: ENGLISH	Off-task talk	0.58	1.50	*0.20% (11/5432)*
	Lexical discourse markers	4.16	2.34	*1.45% (79/5432)*
	Total TL	4.74	2.96	*5.58% (303/5432)*

Table 40: Use of lexical discourse markers and off-task talk in Group I

Table 41 presents the results for Group II. As in Group I, in general, English was more common than Spanish. This also applied to all the subcategories analysed. Regarding off-task talk strategies, learners in this group tended to use it more in English than in Spanish. As for lexical discourse markers, English was also preferred over Spanish.

		Mean	SD	%
Group II: SPANISH	Off-task talk	0.02	0.15	0.02% (1/*6084)*
	Lexical discourse markers	0.17	0.49	0.12% (7/*6084)*
	Total previously known languages	0.38	0.67	*0.15% (9/6084)*
Group II: ENGLISH	Off-task talk	0.24	0.54	*0.08% (5/6084)*
	Lexical discourse markers	3.71	2.87	*1.28% (78/6084)*
	Total TL	4.19	3.39	*5.62% (342/6084)*

Table 41: Use of lexical discourse markers and off-task talk in Group II

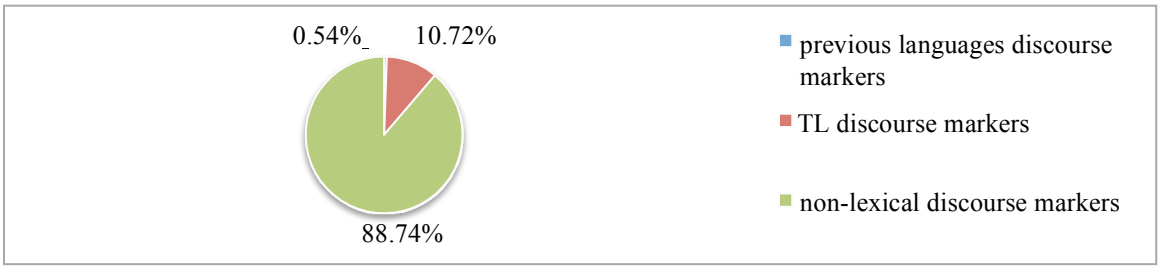
Finally, Table 42 features the results for Group III. As occurred in the two previous groups, participants in this group made a wider use of the TL than of previously known languages. Likewise, off-task talk and lexical discourse markers were more commonly served by the TL.

		Mean	SD	%
Group III: SPANISH	Off-task talk	0.00	0.00	0% (0/3402)
	Lexical discourse markers	0.05	0.20	0.03% (1/3402)
	Total previously known languages	0.08	0.29	0.03% (1/3402)
Group III: ENGLISH	Off-task talk	0.58	1.17	0.21% (7/3402)
	Lexical discourse markers	4.83	2.48	1.70% (58/3402)
	Total TL	5.41	2.84	6.06% (206/3402)

Table 42: Use of lexical discourse markers and off-task talk in Group III

The use of non-lexical discourse markers (pauses and hesitations) deserves special attention in this section. In particular, a comparison between the use of lexical discourse markers in the previously known languages, the use of lexical discourse markers in the TL and the use of non-lexical discourse markers is offered below.

Graph I illustrates this comparison in Group I. Non-lexical discourse markers (88.74%) were used in a higher proportion than lexical discourse markers overall. Discourse markers in the TL were used 10.72% of the time, whereas discourse markers in Basque and Spanish were minimally used (0.54%).



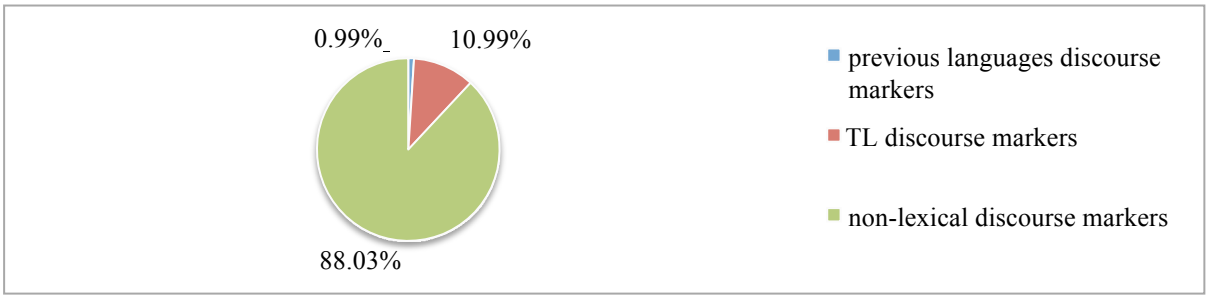
Graph I: Use of discourse markers in the previously known languages, use of discourse markers in the TL, and use of non-lexical discourse markers in Group I

Table 43 presents an in-depth comparison of the use of non-lexical discourse markers in this group. Among the non-lexical discourse marker strategies, pauses (7.86%) were more frequently used than hesitations (4.18%).

	Hesitations			Pauses		
	Mean	**SD**	**Percentage**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Percentage**
Group I	11.95	8.90	4.18% *(227/5432)*	22.47	10.54	7.86% *(427/5432)*

Table 43: Use of non-lexical discourse markers: hesitations and pauses in Group I

Graph II shows the proportional use of non-lexical discourse markers, and lexical discourse markers both in the TL and in the previously known languages employed by participants in Group II. As in Group I, non-lexical discourse markers (88.03%) were the most frequently used strategy. Lexical discourse markers in the TL were used 10.99% of the time, and lexical discourse markers in their previously known languages were the least used (0.99% of the time).



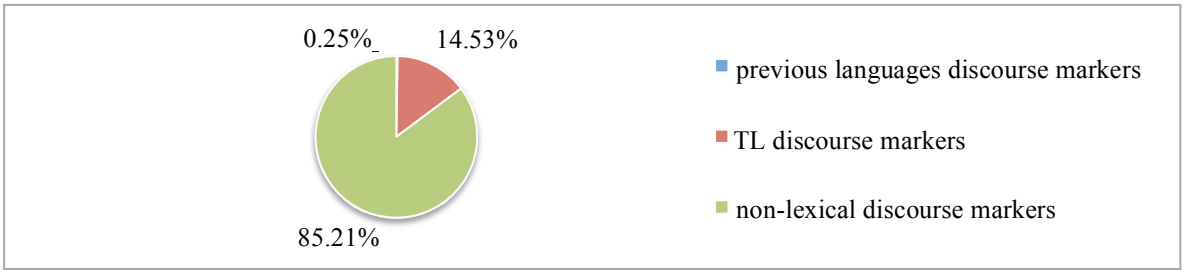
Graph II: Use of discourse markers in the previously known languages, use of discourse markers in the TL, and use of non-lexical discourse markers in Group II

Table 44 offers the descriptive analyses for the use of non-lexical discourse markers subcategories in this group. Among the non-lexical discourse markers, pauses (6.26%) were more used than hesitations (4.01%), as also occurred in Group I.

	Hesitations			Pauses		
	Mean	**SD**	**Percentage**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Percentage**
Group II	11.62	4.23	4.01% *(244/6084)*	18.14	8.80	6.26% *(381/6084)*

Table 44: Use of non-lexical discourse markers: hesitations and pauses in Group II

Finally, Graph III illustrates the results for Group III. Non-lexical discourse markers (85.21%) were the most used, as occurred in the other groups. Lexical discourse markers in the TL were used 14.53% of the time, whereas this strategy in Basque and Spanish was used to a lesser extent (0.25%)



Graph III: Use of discourse markers in the previously known languages, use of discourse markers in the TL, and use of non-lexical discourse markers in Group III

Table 45 displays the contrast between the use of pauses and hesitations by Group III. As in the other groups, pauses (5.88%) were used to a higher extent than hesitations (4.12%).

	Hesitations			Pauses		
	Mean	**SD**	**Percentage**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Percentage**
Group III	11.67	8.99	4.12% (140/3402)	16.67	8.82	5.88% (200/3402)

Table 45: Use of non-lexical discourse markers: hesitations and pauses in Group III

To sum up the intergroup and intragroup analysis of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies, data has shown that proficiency did not have a big impact as no major differences were observed between groups, except for the category 'calques'. Overall, the use of self-regulatory strategies surpassed the use of prior

linguistic experience-based strategies in all groups, reaching statistical significance. As regards the use of the subcategories of previously known language-based strategies, lexical discourse markers were far more used than the rest of the strategies, reaching statistical significance except for the more proficient group. With respect to self-regulatory strategies used, the three proficiency groups used self-initiated self-repair and self-repetitions equally. When examining the use of previously known languages and the TL in the categories off-task talk and discourse markers, English was by far the preferred language in the three groups of proficiency. But despite the more frequent use of the TL in the category discourse markers, non-lexical discourse markers were even more common.

6 DISCUSSION

In this section, we will answer the different research questions for the present study. With respect to our first research question *(Are there any differences between the three proficiency groups in terms of amount of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies?*), the analysis revealed the inexistence of statistically significant differences between the groups except for the use of calques in favour of Group I. Participants in the three proficiency groups made a very limited use of previously known languages, which could be ascribed to the high levels of proficiency attained. This is supported by previous studies conducted in primary and secondary school contexts (Arratibel-Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press; García Mayo & Hidalgo Gordo, 2017; Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012), which have concluded that as learners become more proficient in the TL, they use their prior linguistic knowledge to a lesser extent when performing an oral narration task. Consequently, we cannot confirm that at the highest levels of scholar education, when students have attained high levels of proficiency, differences between the groups in terms of minimization in the use of previously known languages arise. A similar conclusion was drawn by Arratibel-Irazusta and Martínez Adrián (in press), who did not find large differences between the groups in the use of communication strategies (interactional strategies, borrowings, code-switching and discourse markers) as the gap in proficiency between them was not big enough. We may think that if the differences in the OPT test had been wider between the groups, statistically

significant differences in the use of prior linguistic experience-based strategies when narrating an oral story would have been obtained.

It is also worth mentioning that the lack of statistically significant differences in the use of previously known languages between the groups could be explained by the fact that all participants, irrespective of the proficiency level they acquired in the test, had ample knowledge of the TL. As they were university students and, in particular, were students belonging to the BA in English studies taught through CLIL, we assume they have a thorough knowledge of the TL that prevents them from using their prior linguistic knowledge, which coincides with the few instances of Basque and Spanish in the data. Previous research has also confirmed that CLIL learners in primary and secondary contexts produce a lower amount of L1 use than non-CLIL learners (Gallardo del Puerto, 2015; García Mayo & Hidalgo Gordo, 2017; García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Martínez Adrián, 2015; Martínez Adrián & Gutiérrez Mangado, 2015ab; Pladevall Ballester & Vraciu, 2017). This claim that we raise can be also related to the time of exposure to the TL learners had received until the time they were tested, as all participants reported having studied English since age 5, which provides them with at least 15 years of TL learning exposure. Likewise, our results may be conditioned by the type of degree learners were taking. Since they were learners of English studies, almost all the concepts they learned were about the English language and were taught in English. We contemplate that if they had taken another degree, in which the TL would not be so present in all the subjects, differences between the groups in terms of English proficiency would have emerged.

However, our findings do not coincide with those by Gallardo del Puerto and Gómez Lacabex (2016). In this investigation of the phonetic vs. morphological influence of L2 English with three groups of lower-advanced, advanced and upper-advanced learners, a decrease in error-rate with proficiency and significant differences between the groups appeared. Although the participants in the study of Gallardo del Puerto and Gómez Lacabex (2016) belong to the same innovation project as the participants in the present study, we hypothesize that the differences in results between the two studies in terms of proficiency could be due to the language field each study analysed. Thus, whereas we assessed strategies to cope with the lack of fluency in our study, they analysed phonological and morphological mispronunciation of clusters in root forms and inflected forms. The findings obtained in Gallardo del Puerto and Gómez Lacabex (2016) and the

present study could be explained by the fact that, at high levels of proficiency, differences between groups regarding the use of CLI as a communication strategy are almost non-existent, whereas the production of phonetic and morphological errors is still present and greater differences might be observed. It could be that the process for reducing phonetic and morphological errors in the TL is slower or more demanding than the process of minimizing the use of previously known languages.

The examination of the results from the present study also reported a statistically significant difference in the case of calques in favour of Group I. This helps to shed more light on the development of strategy use. This strategy has been found to be more typical of more advanced learners and to be minimized after the categories 'borrowings' and 'foreignizings' (see Gallardo del Puerto, 2015). Even if the three proficiency learner groups made a limited use of the three categories, calques were found to be the category use with greater use in the least proficient group. It seems as if learners were following the developmental route suggested in other investigations (Agustín Llach, 2009; Gallardo del Puerto, 2015). Borrowings and foreignizings are nearly non-existent, as learners have already attained a high level of competence in the TL, while calques are still in the process of being overcome.

Regarding the differences between the three students proficiency groups in terms of amount of self-regulatory strategies, the analysis of the results again revealed the inexistence of statistically significant differences. As in previously known language-based strategies, we ascribe such a lack of statistical significance to the minimal differences in proficiency between the groups, which hinders the possibility of reaching significance. However, and although not supported by statistical significance, trends between the groups were observed, as in our results proficiency seems to predict a higher use of self-regulatory strategies. Thus, findings reported a slight but not significant increase in the use of self-regulatory strategies from the least to the more proficient group. These results indicate that an increasing evolution in the use of self-regulatory strategies could occur as learners become more proficient in the language. We speculate that if differences in proficiency between participants had been wider, significant differences in the use of self-regulatory strategies would have emerged. Considering the increasing tendency observed in our data, we presume that more proficient learners would have produced higher amounts of self-regulatory strategies probably reaching statistical significance.

Finally, it is important to highlight that no instances of Basque appeared in their narrations, a finding in line with other investigations carried out with Basque-Spanish bilinguals (i.e. Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press). Several studies contextualized in the Basque –Spanish context have ascribed this finding to typological similarities existing between English and Spanish (Cenoz, 2001; Lázaro Ibarrola & García Mayo, 2012; Martínez Adrián & Gutiérrez Mangado, 2015b, among others). Thus, the abundant use of Spanish could be due to the fact that it is a language that may contain more similarities with English than Basque. In other words, Spanish and English, unlike Basque, are typologically closer since both of them are Indo-European languages. Aside from the linguistic distance, learners' perceptions may condition the election of the source language as they may perceive Spanish terms as more transferable than Basque (Cenoz, 2001; Kellerman, 1978, 1986; Odlin, 1989; Ringbom, 1986).

With respect to the second research question *(Are there any differences between the amount of previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies in each group?)* statistically significant differences were found between both types of strategies in favour of self-regulatory strategies. Such results indicate that the higher the knowledge they have of the TL, the more able they are to solve the lack of fluency by means of other strategies different from prior linguistic knowledge. These findings are in line with Trenchs-Parera (2009) who attested a positive effect of proficiency on the amount of self-regulatory strategies used. She claimed that as learners became more proficient in the language, they were more aware of their interlanguage gaps, and resorted to self-regulatory strategies in an attempt to cover their lack of fluency instead of prior linguistic experience-based strategies. This seems to be the case of our participants, who in order to avoid using their previously known languages when lacking the appropriate words in the TL, they self-repeated or self-repaired their utterances in an attempt to gain time to think. Such a fact gives us a clue about the evolution in the language usage when having to solve gaps in the interlanguage. It seems that as learners gain proficiency in the language, they are provided with more TL knowledge and strategies and therefore are able to deal with dysfluency in the TL rather than in their previously known languages. However, these findings contrast with the ones reported by Liu (2009) who showed a decrease in repair sequences as proficiency in the TL raised. This author analysed undergraduate relatively advanced learners of English and compared his data to that of Chen and Pu (2007) who

tested intermediate learners. From this comparison he observed a decrease in the use of repair sequences with proficiency. We estimate that these differences in the findings obtained in our study and those by Liu (2009) and Chen and Pu (2007, as cited in Liu, 2009) could be explained by differences in language and culture between participants in these studies. Such differences in amount of self-regulatory strategies could be determined by learners' L1s. Thus, we have observed that whereas Spanish/Catalan bilinguals increase their use of self-regulatory strategies with proficiency gains, those whose L1 is Chinese decrease the use of this strategy as they become more proficient in the TL. These differences could also be attributed to the learners' culture, as it could be the case that Chinese learners, tend to use a lower amount of self-regulatory strategies when learning a language.

These findings could also be related to motivation and/or attitudes towards the TL. As learners become more proficient in the TL and feel more confident about using it in different contexts and for different purposes, by employing the necessary strategies to keep a conversation in English, they try to do their best when orally narrating a story. They may feel that using their previously known languages at university, and additionally in an English test, would be detrimental for their scores. Moreover, we should not forget that they were attending a linguistics-oriented degree, which may have incidentally pressured them into making more of an effort to use English. Participants may probably make an effort to regulate their speech in a way they do not have to use their prior linguistic knowledge and, thus, demonstrate their abilities in English. If they had been taking a different degree, another trend may have been observed.

Nevertheless, we consider that context and type of task may have contributed to the findings obtained in this research. It might be inferred that context could have an influence in the use of these strategies, as our participants were asked to narrate a short story in English in a formal setting. They were specifically tested in a laboratory with a professor and in front of a voice-recorder. We suppose that participants would have probably felt more relaxed in a natural context and, maybe, would have resorted to their previously known languages to a higher extent, or would have not focused so much on self-regulatory strategies in English. Additionally, a lack of interaction may have an influence on our results. Thus, if learners had been tested through oral interaction and had been immersed in unplanned discourse, previous linguistic experience-based strategies would have emerged

as cognitive tools and regulatory functions to organize the communicative discourse, as observed in other studies carried out in non-CLIL (Alegría De La Colina & García Mayo, 2009) and CLIL contexts (Pladevall & Vraciu 2017; Martínez Adrián, in press). Previous studies have shown that "pupils hardly ever address their peers in the TL, but they make higher efforts to use it when they have to talk to their teachers or present a compulsory activity orally" (Gené Gil et al. 2012; Pastrana Izquierdo 2010, as cited in Martínez Adrián, in press p. 22). It might also worth mentioning that this type of task might promote a higher use of self-regulatory strategies, as it offers learners the flexibility to talk about a particular picture using the words and expressions that they know in the TL, and therefore avoid the use of previously known languages. We cannot forget that learners were provided with four pictures from four well-known fairy tales. We believe that if they had been shown a more complex visual input related to a more difficult topic, differences in amount of prior linguistic experience-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies would have appeared.

As for the third research question *(Among previously known language based-strategies, which ones are the most predominant in each group?),* results indicated that the most predominant categories were lexical discourse markers and transfer lapses. In particular, the lowest and the highest proficiency groups preferred to use lexical discourse markers and transfer lapses in the same proportions, and Group II used lexical discourse markers in a statistically significant higher proportion than the rest of categories.

Previous research has shed light on the fact that lexical discourse markers are the most commonly served by previously known languages (see Martínez Adrián, forthcoming, with primary school learners, and Arratibel Irazsuta and Martínez Adrián, in press, with secondary school learners). Thus, lexical discourse markers seem to be one of those categories within prior linguistic experience-based strategies most used by learners of a TL. If we look at the evolution of the amount of use of this strategy from secondary school education settings to tertiary levels, we can speculate that this might be the previously known language-based strategy that needs more time to be minimized, and perhaps requiring a higher proficiency level of the participants. This may be related to the fact that lexical discourse markers are words related to gain time, as they lack meaning but are included in the speech to initiate a sentence or to fill a silent gap in the utterance when lacking the proper word or expression in the TL (Trenchs-Parera, 2009). We could also

establish a connection between these types of prior linguistic experience-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies, as all these strategies (lexical discourse markers and self-regulatory strategies) coincide in the fact that they do not have a "real" meaning or purpose in the sentence, but are used to provide the learner with enough time to think. It seems as if learners in the present study were mainly interested in the use of gaining-time strategies. A similar conclusion was drawn by Bada, (2010), who after analysing the use of self-repetition strategies, compared this category to "lexicalized pause fillers", and affirmed that self-repetitions do not differ from "ah, er, erm" or any kind of a vocalized pause. Similarly, Trenchs-Parera (2009) analysed proficiency effects in dysfluency in terms of lexical and non-lexical discourse markers, as well as self-repetitions, and found how all these strategies enabled the speakers to plan ahead of time for a new utterance.

By contrast, code-switching and off-task talk were the least used strategies in all the groups, as none of the groups made use of them with the exception of off-task talk in Group II, in which it was used only once. These results are consistent with what is reported in previous research. With respect to code-switching, findings in both CLIL and non-CLIL settings show that primary school learners (Pladevall Ballester & Vraciu, 2017 in CLIL settings; Cenoz 2001, 2003 in non-CLIL settings) and secondary school learners (Arratibel Irazusta & Martínez Adrián, in press, in CLIL settings; and Muñoz, 2007, in non-CLIL settings) reduce the use of this strategy as they become more proficient in the TL. This may explain why the use of this strategy with university learners from the present study is inexistent. With regard to off-task talk, García Mayo and Hidalgo Gordo (2017) found that this strategy was the least used in primary school learners in CLIL settings. In tertiary education contexts, Antón and DiCamilla (1999) and Azkarai and García Mayo (2015) also attested similar findings.

Regarding the fourth research question *(Among self-regulatory strategies, which ones are the most predominant in each group?)* the analysis performed did not yield any statistical significant differences between self-initiated self-repair and self-repetition strategies in the three groups tested. We consider that there is a set of factors that might explain the lack of differences in the production of these two self-regulatory strategies.

A possible explanation of our findings could be that these two strategies may be intertwined to some extent, as on some occasions they could be produced simultaneously.

This was observed in our study, but when it occurred they were classified as two separated strategies, since the production of one did not always predict the production of the other. However, several studies have considered both self-repetitions and self-repairs as a unique strategy (i.e. Fox & Jasperson, 1995, as cited in Rieger, 2003, p. 50), since they observed that in many cases learners self-repeated a word or an utterance before they self-corrected it. We assume that if we had quantified the amount of self-repeated elements that derived in self-repaired items, or the opposite trend, this would have resulted in a better picture of how these two strategies intertwine and determine each other. Moreover, we would have been able to see whether learners need to self-repeat before being able to self-repair an erroneous item or, by contrast, if these are two separate elements that help learners to self-regulate their speech.

We might also hypothesize that the lack of differences between the groups may be due to their similarities in proficiency levels. We assume that if learners from the three groups had yielded further differences in TL proficiency, wider contrasts between the use of the two self-regulatory strategies analysed would have emerged. This could be also related to TL awareness. We speculate that as learners gain proficiency they would become more aware of their difficulties, and therefore consciously use one strategy over the other.

Two other factors that may explain the lack of differences between the two strategies, are type of task and motivation or attitude. Studies on self-repetition strategies have shown that motivation plays an important role in the production of this strategy. Thus, highly motivated learners (Sato, 2012) seem to self-repair themselves to a higher extent than low-motivated students (Sato, 2008). We could extrapolate these findings to our data, as perhaps if one of our groups had been found to be more motivated than the others, differences would have arisen. In the same way, type of task could have an impact on the type of self-regulatory strategies selected. Previous investigations have shown that the type of input used in tasks may have an effect on TL production, as it was observed that those tasks with visual input foster a higher use of TL than other type of tasks based on aural or written input (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009). In this sense, it could be the case that another type of task, different from the oral narration task with more visual input, would enhance the use of one self-regulatory strategy over the other.

Even though we have numbered a set of factors that may potentially explain the lack of differences in the use of self-regulatory strategies, we cannot ignore the fact that these strategies are also used by native speakers of a language (Clark & Wasow, 1998; Lickley, 1994; Maclay & Osgood, 1959; Perrin et al., 2003, as cited in Rieger, 2003, p. 52) and thus may never be eliminated. Perhaps native speakers of the TL also use these two self-regulatory strategies in similar proportions, which could also explain why differences in our findings did not arise.

Finally, with reference to the fifth research question *(Do learners show a preference for their previously known languages or the TL when making use of off-task talk and discourse markers?),* there was a clear preference for the TL over previously known languages in these two strategies, and discourse markers were more productive in the TL than off-task talk. We could attribute the high amount of use of the TL over prior linguistic knowledge to the fact that participants may already be in the monolingual mode of English (Grosjean, 1998). Thus, participants in our research had reached a threshold in the TL, which allowed them to cope with gaps in the interlanguage without having to use their previously known languages. These findings are contrary to those by Arratibel Irazusta and Martínez Adrián (in press), Lázaro Ibarrola and García Mayo (2012), Martínez Adrián (in press) and Pladevall and Vraciu (2017), who found that a lower use of the L1 did not lead to an increase in the TL use. In Arratibel Irazusta and Martínez Adrián (in press) and Lázaro Ibarrola and García Mayo (2012), participants did not use discourse markers in the TL but in their L1. This fact may explain a possible evolution in the use of discourse markers, as it seems that while learners are in secondary education, they still resort to them in their previously known languages. As university students, at least in a CLIL setting, they gain more proficiency and more exposure to the TL, making wider use of the TL and incorporating more discourse markers in English. The same situation applied to self-repetition strategies, which were mostly used in the TL.

Nevertheless, it is worth noting that non-lexical discourse markers were even more frequent than those produced in the TL. This fact provides additional information about the strategies that university and advanced learners use when dealing with oral narrations and interlanguage gaps. Thus, when comparing lexical and non-lexical discourse markers, results show that overall, all groups used non-lexical discourse markers the most, representing more than half of the sample, pauses being used more than hesitations. The

next most used are lexical discourse markers in the TL, and finally and in a very small proportion, lexical discourse markers in their previously known languages. Our findings can be compared to those by Lázaro Ibarrola (2016), which argued that while secondary school CLIL learners produced non-lexical discourse markers together with lexical discourse markers in their prior linguistic experience (Basque-Spanish), they did not produce any lexical discourse markers in the TL. Although both non-lexical and lexical discourse markers in our study also coexist in their oral narrations, the use of lexical discourse markers in the TL outnumbers the use of them in Spanish and Basque. These differences could be explained by the higher proficiency level already attained by university students in the present study.

However, it is important to remind that pauses and hesitations are natural strategies used by native speakers of a language. Thus, they may never be eliminated from the speech, as they coexist with the TL in natural talk. The same applies to hesitations, as they are strategies also used by native speakers that provide time to think and guarantee a natural flow of speech. To some extent, this is in line with the study by Trenchs-Parera (2009) with tertiary education learners, in which it was found that participants, after undertaking foreign language instruction and staying abroad, still produced pauses and self-repetitions in their oral speech. That is, it was observed how they incorporated the use of pauses and self-repetitions after gaining exposure and proficiency in the foreign language. However, a fact that contradicts our findings was also, since her participants, after a short stay abroad instruction, tried to replace these strategies by an exaggerated display of vocabulary. Trenchs-Parera (2009) explains that the reason why learners tried to avoid silent pauses, self-repetitions, and non-lexical fillers is because during the stay abroad, they had been in contact with native speakers of the TL and attributed the use of these strategies to signs of insecurity. However, it is a real fact that using these strategies is a natural trait of native speakers of a language. As Trenchs-Parera (2009) states, the main task of a language learner is to be able to use these strategies in a native-like manner, which implies using them in appropriate contexts and in suitable amounts.

In sum, and contrary to the findings in primary and secondary education, we have observed that a higher use of the TL implies a lower usage of previously known languages. Thus, it seems that at some point in their TL proficiency, their prior linguistic experience

does not continue to have a compensatory purpose as it occurred with less proficient learners (i.e. Martínez Adrián, 2015; Pladevall Ballester & Vraciu, 2017).

7 CONCLUSIONS

This study has analysed two different communication strategies, namely previously known language-based strategies and self-regulatory strategies, and their presence in an oral narration task when facing fluency problems in the TL. Specifically, three different proficiency groups of CLIL university learners bilinguals in Spanish and Basque were compared. This analysis makes a contribution to the field of CLIL in tertiary education. In particular, it has attempted to add empirical data to the (pseudo)development of strategy use in CLIL learners.

On the one hand, it has been found that proficiency does not have a major impact on the production of previously known language based-strategies and self-regulatory strategies as no differences were observed between the three proficiency groups, except for the category 'calques'. If the gap in proficiency had been wider, more differences would have emerged.

On the other hand, and irrespective of proficiency levels between the groups, self-regulatory strategies were used in a statistically significant higher proportion than prior linguistic experience. At this point of the development, when learners had attained a high level of proficiency, they resort to a lower amount of previously known language-based strategies and to more self-regulatory strategies. Thus, proficiency seems to predict lower rates of prior linguistic experience use and higher amounts of self-regulatory strategies. Overall, discourse markers were more commonly served by previously known languages among university participants, but TL use was more present in the three groups in both discourse markers and off-task talk, even though non-lexical discourse markers were far more frequent than lexical pieces. In particular, pauses were more frequently used than hesitations.

The general conclusion we draw from the present investigation is that, at very advanced levels of the TL, when learners have a great knowledge of the language and are

expected to orally narrate in English, they make use of a particular set of strategies that aim at preventing breaks in the speech flow. Such strategies, as have been reported in our study, have a time-giving foundation, as they mainly work as chunks of the speech that enable learners with some extra time to think of the appropriate TL item. We see that, overall, strategies used by our participants are a result of an attempt to cover the lack of fluency and conscious problems when having to speak in the TL (Hellerman & Vergun, 2007; Romero Trillo, 2002, as cited in Lázaro Ibarrola, 2016).

Even though some interesting trends have been noted in this investigation, some limitations of the study that could be addressed in further studies should be noted. Firstly, our findings may be related to CLIL effects, but we cannot draw direct links of this methodology as we lack a control group of non-CLIL participants. Thus, it is not possible to determine if it is the CLIL approach *per se* that helped learners to attain such high levels in the TL and thus minimize the influence of previously known languages. Further research in this respect could compare the performance between CLIL and non-CLIL university students in terms of amount of prior linguistic experience-based strategies to see whether this methodology has an impact at the tertiary level. Moreover, we make a call for further research in tertiary contexts where differences in terms of TL proficiency are wider between the participants in order to complement, support or reject our findings. In this line, a greater number of participants would be desirable since by increasing the amount of production, further differences between the groups could probably emerge. Additionally, longitudinal studies would be needed. Also, we believe that the type of degree the participants were taking may have had an impact on the findings. Thus, learners in this degree received wide amounts of English exposure in which this language had a great prestige and participants were expected to have a good command of it. Further research could compare this group of participants to another group of undergraduate students attending a different degree through CLIL in which the presence of English is not so important.

In addition, we are aware that our findings are constrained by the type of task and the conditions in which participants were tested. In our study, participants were tested for three minutes of oral production in front of a machine and a professor. Additionally, they were only tested by means of an oral narration task and with a particular given topic. We consider that our results would have been different if they had been tested through

different types of tasks and in a more natural setting. Thus, we are aware that different findings would have been obtained if they had been asked to interact with a peer, as it has been shown that they feel more relaxed and experience less pressure when they talk to a peer rather than to teachers. Finally, if a more complex topic had been proposed, participants would have found more language difficulties, which would have provided us with more information about the strategies they use when facing gaps and probably wider differences between the proficiency groups would have emerged.

Additionally, a more qualitative analysis would be desirable in both strategies. In the case of self-regulatory strategies, it would be of special interest to qualitatively analyse the amount and type of words used. In this sense, it would be interesting to see what type of words learners tend to self-repair and self-repeat, in order to determine what type of words are more difficult for learners as well as possible evolutions with proficiency gains. Furthermore, it would be interesting to examine and compare possible differences in the use of self-regulatory strategies between cultures and languages. Thus, whereas in our investigation and the one conducted by Trenchs-Parera (2009) with Spanish and Basque (ours)/Catalan (Trenchs-Parera) learners, an increase with proficiency gains in terms of the amount of use of self-regulatory strategies was observed, an opposite trend was derived in Liu (2009) and Chen and Pu (2007) with Chinese learners of English, who reported to decrease their use of repair sequences with proficiency.

Other communication strategies deserve more investigation. Our analysis could be improved by including an examination of the use of conceptual strategies, subdivided into holistic and analytic strategies, which could add further information to TL production. Specifically, we could analyse holistic strategies, which refer to "the use of a superordinate, coordinate or subordinate terms, such as the use of '*vegetables*' for peas (Poulisse 1990, p. 59), and analytic strategies, that "refer to circumlocution, description and paraphrase such as *this you use for a baby so, uh, that it can't uh make, uh, his clothes em uh dirty*" (Poulisse, 1990, p.59).

Finally, we conclude that individual differences like gender and motivation could have an impact on the results, as we did not have a control for them. We are aware that further research should address motivation and anxiety levels as well as the study of self-

reported opinions about the use of their previously known languages, the TL and the use of self-regulatory strategies as measures to cope with lack of fluency.

Some pedagogical implications should also be mentioned and discussed. We assume that attaining native-like levels of the TL is one of the main goals of any language learner. In this respect, learners need to become immersed in interaction so as to put into practice all their knowledge and obtain meaningful input. Being exposed to real native speakers or very advanced speakers of the TL might give them enough input to extract the type of strategies speakers use to gain time and to keep the natural flow of speech. At advanced levels in the TL at which our participants are, they need to learn how to self-regulate those gaining-time strategies that they use so as to get closer to native-likeness. This does not mean that they may not use such strategies again, but they would be able to moderate their use and incorporate them in their speech when it is convenient. We assume that this might be a long process, and that probably would need to be complemented with experiences staying abroad such as the one depicted in Trenchs-Parera (2009).

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Appendix I: Background Questionnaire

Galdeketa /Cuestionario

1. Izen eta abizenak: / Nombre y apellidos: _____

2. Posta elektroniko helbidea: / Correo electrónico: _____

3. Sexua: / Sexo: G / H ☐ E / M ☐ 4. Adina: / Edad: _____

5. Jaiotze data: / Fecha de nacimiento:_____

6. Jaiotze tokia / Lugar de nacimiento: 7. Herritartasuna: / Nacionalidad:

8. Amaren lanbidea: / Profesión de la madre: _____

9. Amaren ikasketak: / Estudios de la madre: _____

   Lehen mailakoak / Educación primaria ☐DBH/ESO ☐Batxilergoa/Bachiller ☐
   Lanbide Heziketa / Formación Profesional ☐ Unibertsitatea / Universidad☐

10. Aitaren lanbidea: / Profesión del padre: _____

11. Aitaren ikasketak: / Estudios del padre:

    Lehen mailakoak / Educación primaria ☐DBH/ESO ☐Batxilergoa/Bachiller ☐Lanbide Heziketa / Formación Profesional ☐ Unibertsitatea / Universidad☐

12. Amaren hizkuntza nagusia: / Lengua dominante de la madre: _____

13. Aitaren hizkuntza nagusia: / Lengua dominante del padre: _____

14. Zein da zure ama hizkuntza? Zein hizkuntzetan hasi zinen hizketan? / ¿Cuál es tu lengua materna?, ¿Cuál fue la primera lengua en la que empezaste a comunicarte cuando eras niño?
    _____

15. Etxeko hizkuntza(k): / Lengua(s) que hablas en casa:_____
    Amarekin: / Con la madre: _____
    Aitarekin: / Con el padre:_____
    Anai-arrebekin: / Con los/as hermanos/as: _____
    Beste familitartekoekin: / Con otros miembros de la familia: _____

16. Zure bizitzako lehen bost urteetan hitz egin zen(it)uen hizkuntza(k) / Lengua(s) que hablaste durante los primeros cinco años de tu vida:
    _____

17. Gaur egun erabiltzen d(it)uzun hizkuntza(k): Lengua(s) que utilizas actualmente:

    Etxean: / en casa: _____
    Eskolan: / en el centro educativo al que asistes: _____
    Lagunekin: / con los/as amigos/as: _____
    Amesten duzunean: / cuando sueñas: _____

18. Beste hizkuntza batzuetan (zehaztu zein hurrenkeran ikasi dituzun): / Otras lenguas que (especifica el orden en el que las has aprendido):
    Irakurri / lees: _____
    Hitz egin / hablas: _____
    Idatzi / escribes: _____

19. Zein hizkuntz(et)an sentitzen zara erosoen gaur egun? / ¿En qué lengua(s) te sientes más cómodo en la actualidad?
    _____

20. Zenbat urterekin hasi zinen ingelera ikasten? / ¿Con cuántos años empezaste a aprender inglés? _____

21. Eskolan, ze irakasgai ikasi zen(it)uen ingelesez? Noiz hasi zinen? / ¿Qué asignaturas estudiaste en inglés en la escuela? ¿Cuándo empezaste?

Ingelesa irakasgai moduan / Inglés como asignatura: Bai / Sí ☐ Ez / No ☐
Zenbat urterekin hasi zinen? /¿Con cuántos años empezaste? _____
Zenbat orduz astean? / ¿Cuántas horas por semana? _____

Beste irakasgai bat(zuk) ingelesez / Otra(s) asignatura(s) en inglés: Bai / Sí ☐Ez / No☐
Zein(tzuk)¿Cuál(es)? _____
Zenbat urterekin hasi zinen? / ¿Con cuántos años empezaste? _____
Zenbat orduz astean? / ¿Cuántas horas por semana? _____

22. Unibertsitatean ez den beste nonbaiten ikasten al duzu ingelera? / ¿Estudias inglés en algún otro sitio que no sea la universidad?

Bai / Sí ☐ Ez / No ☐

Baiezkoa erantzun baduzu erantzun hurrengo galdera / Si has respondido 'Sí' a la anterior pregunta,

23. Unibertsitateaz gain, non ikasten duzu ingelera? / Además de en la universidad, ¿dónde aprendes inglés?

_____

24. Zenbat urte daramazkizu/eman zenituen ingelera eskola/unibertsitatetik kanpo ikasten? / ¿Cuantos años has aprendido/llevas aprendiendo inglés fuera de la escuela/universidad?

_____
Zenbat orduz astean? / ¿Cuántas horas a la semana? _____

25. Zein esparrutan erabiltzen duzu ingelera? Zehaztu: / ¿En qué ámbitos utilizas el inglés? Especifica:
Irakurtzeko: / Lectura: _____ orduz astean / horas por semana.
Telebista ikusteko: / Televisión: _____ orduz astean / horas por semana.
Zinema: / Cine: _____ orduz astean / horas por semana.
On-line jokoetan: / Juegos on-line: _____ orduz astean / horas por semana.
Sare sozialetan: / Redes sociales: _____ orduz astean / horas por semana.
Beste batzuk, zehaztu: / Otros, especifica: _____ orduz astean / horas por semana.

26. Ingeleraz hitz egiten den herrialderen batean egon al zara? / ¿Has estado alguna vez en un país de habla inglesa? Bai / Sí ☐ Ez / No ☐
27. Aurreko galderari baietz erantzun badiozu zehaztu: / Si tu respuesta es afirmativa, especifica:
Noiz: / Cuándo: _____
Non: / Dónde: _____
Iraupena: / Duración: _____
Zure egonaldian elkartruke-programaren batean parte hartu al zenuen? / ¿Participaste en algún programa de intercambio durante tu estancia? _____
Ingelerako kurtsoren batean izan al zinen? / ¿Asististe a algún curso de inglés durante tu estancia? _____

28. Inoiz ingelerako udalekuren batean parte hartu al duzu? / ¿Has participado alguna vez en alguna colonia donde se hable inglés? Bai / Sí ☐ Ez / No ☐

29. Baietz erantzun baduzu, zehaztu: / Si tu respuesta es afirmativa, especifica:
Noiz: / Cuándo: _____
Non: / Dónde: _____
Iraupena: / Duración: _____

30. Inoiz erabili al duzu TICak ingelera ikasteko? / ¿Has utilizado alguna vez las TICs para el aprendizaje del inglés? Bai / Sí ☐ Ez / No ☐

31. Baietz erantzun baduzu, zehaztu: / Si tu respuesta es afirmativa, especifica:
Noiz: / Cuándo: _____
Non: / Dónde: _____
Iraupena: / Duración: _____

ESKERRIK ASKO! / ¡GRACIAS!

Appendix II: Oxford Placement Test

Oxford Placement Test 1

Listening Test

Name .....

Total Listening ..... / 100

Total Grammar ..... / 100

Grand total ..... / **200**

Look at the example below. Listen to the tape. You will hear the example *once* only. Decide which word you hear, 'soap', or 'soup'.

a Will you get me some soap | soup ✓ at the supermarket?

The word was 'soup', so 'soup' is ticked. Now look at these examples, and listen to the tape again. This time, you tick the words you hear. For example, if you hear 'shorts', tick 'shorts'.

b The team need new shirts | shorts .

c They've recently developed a new kind of vine | wine around here.

The words on the tape were 'shorts' and 'vine', so the correct answers look like this:

b The team need new shirts | shorts ✓ .

c They've recently developed a new kind of vine ✓ | wine around here.

Now the test will begin. Listen to the tape and tick (✓) the words you hear.

1	I gather you've been having trouble with your **earring** | **hearing** .	1 _____
2	A number of students are expected to join the advanced **composition** | **conversation** class.	2 _____
3	This beard of mine is awfully itchy. I'll be glad when it **goes** | **grows** .	3 _____
4	I doubt if he's very comfortable in his **present** | **prison** bed.	4 _____
5	Have you played **Dennis** | **tennis** very much recently?	5 _____
6	Martina lives in a great big **freezing** | **Friesian** barn.	6 _____
7	Do you have any idea how long ago it was **found** | **founded** ?	7 _____
8	Your letter must have crossed with **my own** | **mine** .	8 _____
9	One thing I really **loved** | **loathed** in the late nineties was the style of the clothes.	9 _____
10	My sister says **he's** | **she's** a very nice person.	10 _____
11	That Dutch friend of mine you met yesterday is a very good **chess** | **jazz** player.	11 _____
12	That's the Euro equivalent of **30p** | **40p** .	12 _____
13	Do we need to change the **cloths** | **clocks** tonight?	13 _____
14	Today's a **holiday** | **horrid day** , isn't it?	14 _____
15	Well, I wonder what **joys** | **choice** they have in store for us this time.	15 _____
16	Only 30% of those sampled **can** | **can't** tell the difference between margarine and butter.	16 _____
17	I can't really say if I like jazz or not; **sometimes** | **some kinds** I do.	17 _____
18	She's been quite **tearful** | **cheerful** the last couple of weeks.	18 _____
19	Williams now seems unlikely to **regain** | **retain** her title.	19 _____
20	I think it's **Dave** | **Steve** on the phone.	20 _____
21	**Why** | **Where** are you going to live in London?	21 _____
22	It is recommended that dyslexic students follow a remedial **reading** | **writing** option.	22 _____
23	Do you have any idea where my **class** | **glass** is?	23 _____
24	It was only later we found out he wasn't **injured** | **insured** .	24 _____
25	I **can see** | **consent** to it if it has to be done.	25 _____
26	I see the **peaches** | **pictures** are starting to go yellow.	26 _____
27	If it hadn't been for him they **couldn't** | **wouldn't** have done it.	27 _____
28	Have you got any more of this **blended** | **splendid** butter?	28 _____
29	I don't think the management side took any **notes** | **notice** .	29 _____
30	At the end of this test the papers will be **corrected** | **collected** by the invigilators.	30 _____
31	If you have any problems, please contact the British **Council** | **Consul** immediately.	31 _____
32	During his holidays he spends most of his time at the Lotus test track **watching** | **washing** cars.	32 _____
33	Liverpool were **really** | **rarely** dangerous in the first half.	33 _____
34	Mind you don't tread on the **glass** | **grass** .	34 _____
35	You've got a **lash** | **rash** just under your eye.	35 _____

subtotal /35

36 Do you think you could [take | talk] us through the next bit of the film? 36 _____

37 How many [tests | texts] are we going to need to get all the data we want? 37 _____

38 There's a fishery somewhere round here where they [hatch | catch] trout by the thousand. 38 _____

39 Are you going to [Penny's | Benny's] tonight? 39 _____

40 Do you think we could have [two minibuses | too many buses] for the summer courses? 40 _____

41 Do you think Rick's place is still [buyable | viable] ? 41 _____

42 We've gone through [today's | two days'] money in less than an hour. 42 _____

43 [I reckon | Eric and] I need a good holiday. 43 _____

44 This horse will have to be [shod | shot] immediately. 44 _____

45 Can you get me some [sealing tape | ceiling paint] when you're in town? 45 _____

46 Even if he leaves the country he won't be safe from [persecution | prosecution] . 46 _____

47 Since the accident the only thing he can do is [menial | manual] work. 47 _____

48 She's very much the ['committee' | 'committed'] type. 48 _____

49 You can get quite a [view | few] from up here. 49 _____

50 What can we do with this [lot | slot] to make the timetable work? 50 _____

51 Keane was [cheered | chaired] off at the end of the match. 51 _____

52 The future of the party now seems to depend on [delegate | delicate] decisions to be worked out at local level. 52 _____

53 Have you done much [riding | writing] recently? 53 _____

54 We've all been [heartened | hardened] by recent events. 54 _____

55 What we have here is essentially a [fiscal | physical] problem. 55 _____

56 Make sure you keep the ropes [tied | tight] . 56 _____

57 I think they [set | sat] the exam last week. 57 _____

58 You'll need a [mass of | massive] cheese to make a fondue for that many people. 58 _____

59 I can't really advise you without knowing the type of [context | contacts] you're presupposing. 59 _____

60 The visit went ahead in [defence | defiance] of the government's views. 60 _____

61 I thought his behaviour was [unexceptional | unexceptionable] . 61 _____

62 Look at the [clouds | crowds] over there. 62 _____

63 Her ambition is to become a [belly | ballet] dancer. 63 _____

64 Did you get a chance to [try | dry] it out? 64 _____

65 If you look very carefully you can see there used to be a [cabinet | cabin up] there. 65 _____

66 Recent EU regulations have been disastrous for British fish [stocks | docks] . 66 _____

67 Pollution is a real threat to the North American [basin | bison] . 67 _____

68 Have you had an invitation to the [lunch | launch] ? 68 _____

69 Do you know if she's [Finnish | finished] ? 69 _____

70 Yorkshire and Wales are both famous for their pony [trials | trails] . 70 _____

subtotal /35

71 We just didn't think he'd be armed | harmed .
72 I'm not feeling so ill | well today.
73 They are old | all things they've grown out of, so you can take them for the jumble sale.
74 My brother-in-law left Euston | Houston early this morning, so he should get here tonight.
75 The profitability of North Sea oil rigs is very dependent on the quality of the crude | crew they find.
76 You can buy logs by the barrow- | barrel- load at the local timber works.
77 I hear you've got a new rival | arrival .
78 Who was responsible for sending the infantry | inventory ?
79 We'll be letting them have a newer system | new assistant if they want one.
80 He works for a company called JMB | J & B .
81 Have you read the latest book on Watergate by HA | AJ Haldeman?
82 Some motels now have hair-dryers | air-dryers in the cloakrooms.
83 Recent legislation makes it imperative that we men | women work together to help each other.
84 The Social Services try to ensure that children who need them get free | three meals every day.
85 It's Richard's birthday | bath day on Sunday, so he'll have to do it on Monday.
86 I gather their child is autistic | artistic .
87 She was terribly scared | scarred as a result of the accident.
88 This year Britain's top oarsman rowed | horseman rode to his third world title.
89 He's an eternal | internal student.
90 At Kilverstone Wildlife Park they've got an Andean | Indian buffalo.
91 In England all rod | road users must have a licence.
92 I'd like you to be responsible for the personal | personnel side of the deal.
93 He and | Ian Woosnam could well turn the tables next week.
94 Who's going to propose the loyal | royal toast?
95 England would never have scored if it hadn't been for that free | freak kick by Beckham.
96 Such measures have never previously been taken in the absence of a president | precedent .
97 When I saw the train | terrain I realized I would never catch him.
98 We haven't had any more news today | to date .
99 It's hard not to lose face | faith in a situation like that.
100 I've just heard that these tests have been pirated | piloted in Japan.

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98 _____
99 _____
100 _____

subtotal /30

Oxford Placement Test 1

Grammar Test **PART 1**

Name .....

Total Listening ..... / 100

Total Grammar ..... / 100

Grand total ..... **/ 200**

Look at these examples. The correct answer is ticked.

a In warm climates people | like | likes | are liking | sitting outside in the sun.

b If it is very hot, they sit | at | in | under | the shade.

Now the test will begin. Tick the correct answers.

1 Water | is to boil | is boiling | boils | at a temperature of 100°C. 1 ____

2 In some countries | there is | is | it is | very hot all the time. 2 ____

3 In cold countries people wear thick clothes | for keeping | to keep | for to keep | warm. 3 ____

4 In England people are always talking about | a weather | the weather | weather | . 4 ____

5 In some places | it rains | there rains | it raining | almost every day. 5 ____

6 In deserts there isn't | the | some | any | grass. 6 ____

7 Places near the Equator have | a warm | the warm | warm | weather even in the cold season. 7 ____

8 In England | coldest | the coldest | colder | time of year is usually from December to February. 8 ____

9 | The most | Most of | Most | people don't know what it's really like in other countries. 9 ____

10 Very | less | little | few | people can travel abroad. 10 ____

11 Mohammed Ali | has won | won | is winning | his first world title fight in 1960. 11 ____

12 After he | had won | have won | was winning | an Olympic gold medal he became a professional boxer. 12 ____

13 His religious beliefs | have made him | made him to | made him | change his name when he became champion. 13 ____

14 If he | has | would have | had | lost his first fight with Sonny Liston, no one would have been surprised. 14 ____

15 He has travelled a lot | both | and | or | as a boxer and as a world-famous personality. 15 ____

subtotal /15

16 He is very well known [all in | all over | in all] the world. 16 ____

17 Many people [is believing | are believing | believe] he was the greatest boxer of all time. 17 ____

18 To be the best [from | in | of] the world is not easy. 18 ____

19 Like any top sportsman Ali [had to | must | should] train very hard. 19 ____

20 Such is his fame that people [would | will | did] always remember him as a champion. 20 ____

The history of [aeroplane | the aeroplane | an aeroplane] is 21 ____
[quite a | a quite | quite] short one. For many centuries men 22 ____
[are trying | try | had tried] to fly, but with 23 ____
[little | few | a little] success. In the 19th century a few people 24 ____
succeeded [to fly | in flying | into flying] in balloons. But it wasn't until 25 ____
the beginning of [this | next | last] century that anybody 26 ____
[were | is | was] able to fly in a machine 27 ____
[who | which | what] was heavier than air, in other words, in 28 ____
[who | which | what] we now call a 'plane'. The first people to achieve 29 ____
'powered flight' were the Wright brothers. [His | Their | Theirs] 30 ____
was the machine which was the forerunner of the jumbo jets
that are [such | such a | so] common sight today. 31 ____
They [could | should | couldn't] hardly have imagined that in 1969, 32 ____
[not much | not many | no much] more than half a century later, 33 ____
a man [will be | had been | would be] walking on the moon. 34 ____
Already [a man | man | the man] is taking the first steps towards the stars. 35 ____
Space satellites have now existed [since | during | for] around 36 ____
half a century and we are dependent [from | of | on] them for all 37 ____
kinds of [informations | information | an information]. Not only 38 ____
[are they | they are | there are] being used for scientific research in 39 ____
space, but also to see what kind of weather [is coming | comes | coming]. 40 ____
By 2008 there [would | must | will] have been satellites in space for fifty 41 ____
years and the 'space superpowers' will be [having | making | letting] 42 ____
massive space stations built. When these [will be | are | will have been] 43 ____
completed it will be the first time [when | where | that] astronauts will be 44 ____
able to work in space in large numbers. [Apart | For | Except] all that, 45 ____
in many ways the most remarkable flight [of | above | at] all was 46 ____
[it | that | that one] of the flying bicycle, which the world saw on television, 47 ____
[flying | to fly | fly] across the Channel from England to France, with nothing 48 ____
[apart | but | than] a man to power it. As the bicycle-flyer said, 49 ____
'It's the first time [I realize | I've realized | I am realizing] what hard work it is to be a bird!' 50 ____

subtotal /35

Grammar Test **PART 2**

51 Many teachers [say to | say | tell] their students should learn a foreign language. 51 ____

52 Learning a second language is not the same [as | like | than] learning a first language. 52 ____

53 It takes [long time | long | a long time] to learn any language. 53 ____

54 It is said that Chinese is perhaps the world's [harder | hardest | more hard] language to master. 54 ____

55 English is quite difficult because of all the exceptions [who | which | what] have to be learnt. 55 ____

56 You can learn the basic structures of a language quite quickly, but only if you 55 ____

[are wanting | will to | are willing to] make an effort. 56 ____

57 A lot of people aren't used [to the study | to study | to studying] grammar in their own language. 57 ____

58 Many adult students of English wish they [would start | would have started | had started] 58 ____

their language studies earlier.

59 In some countries students have to spend a lot of time working [on | by | in] their own. 59 ____

60 There aren't [no | any | some] easy ways of learning a foreign language in your own country. 60 ____

61 Some people try to improve their English by [hearing | listening | listening to] the BBC World Service. 61 ____

62 [Live | Life | Living] with a foreign family can be a good way to learn a language. 62 ____

63 It's no use [to try | trying | in trying] to learn a language just by studying a dictionary. 63 ____

64 Many students of English [would rather not | would rather prefer not | would rather not to] take tests. 64 ____

65 Some people think it's time we all [learn | should learn | learnt] a single international language. 65 ____

Charles Walker is a teacher at a comprehensive school in Norwich. He [has joined | joined | joins] 66 ____

the staff of the school in 1998 and [has been working | worked | works] there ever since. 67 ____

Before [move | to move | moving] to Norwich, he taught in Italy and in Wales, 68 ____

and before that he [has been | was | was being] a student at Cambridge 69 ____

University. So far he [isn't | wasn't | hasn't been] in Norwich for as long 70 ____

as he was in Wales, but he likes the city a lot and [should | would | could] 71 ____

like to stay there for at least another two years, or, [how | which | as] he 72 ____

puts it, until his two children [have | will have | will be] grown up a bit. 73 ____

He met his wife, Kate, in 1992 while he [was to live | was living | had been living] 74 ____

abroad for a while, and they got married in 1996.

Their two children, Mark and Susan, [are | were | have been] both born in Norwich. 75 ____

subtotal /25

The Walkers' boy, [who | which | he] is five, has just started 76 ____
at school, but [his | their | her] sister 77 ____
[shall stay | stays | will be staying] at home for another couple of years, 78 ____
because she is nearly two years [younger | more young | the younger] 79 ____
than him. Charles and Kate Walker [are used | use | used] to live in the 80 ____
country, but now that they have children, they [have moved | move | moved] 81 ____
into the city. Charles wanted a house [next | near | close] the 82 ____
school [in order | for | to] get to work easily. Unfortunately 83 ____
[the | a | that] one the two of them really wanted was too expensive, 84 ____
so they [must | should | had to] buy one a bit further away. By the time the 85 ____
children [go | will go | will have gone] to secondary school, 86 ____
[that | which | what] Charles and Kate hope will be in Norwich, the 87 ____
Walkers [will have been | have been | will be] living there for at least fifteen years. 88 ____
They can't be sure if they [stay | do stay | will stay], but if they 89 ____
[don't | didn't | won't], their friends won't be too surprised. 90 ____

Look at the following examples of question tags in English. The correct form of the tag is ticked.

a He's getting the 9.15 train, [isn't he ✓ | hasn't he | wasn't he] ?
b She works in a library, [isn't she | doesn't she ✓ | doesn't he] ?
c Tom didn't tell you, [hasn't he | didn't he | did he ✓] ?
d Someone's forgotten to switch off the gas, [didn't one | didn't they | haven't they ✓] ?

Now tick the correct question tag in the following 10 items:

91 John's coming to see you, [hasn't he | wasn't he | isn't he] ? 91 ____
92 It's been a long time since you've seen him, [hasn't it | isn't it | haven't you] ? 92 ____
93 He's due to arrive tomorrow, [won't he | isn't he | will he] ? 93 ____
94 He won't be getting in till about 10.30, [isn't he | is he | will he] ? 94 ____
95 You met him while you were on holiday, [didn't you | weren't you | haven't you] ? 95 ____
96 I think I'm expected to pick him up, [aren't I | don't I | are you] ? 96 ____
97 No doubt you'd rather he stayed in England now, [didn't you | wouldn't you | shouldn't you] ? 97 ____
98 Nobody else has been told he's coming, [is he | has he | have they] ? 98 ____
99 We'd better not stay up too late tonight, [didn't we | have we | had we] ? 99 ____
100 I suppose it's time we called it a day, [didn't we | isn't it | don't] ? 100 ____

subtotal /25

Appendix III: Oral Narration Task

SELECT **ONE** OF THE FOLLOWING POPULAR FAIRY TALES AND NARRATE IT IN THE **PAST TENSE** FOR 3 MINUTES:

LITTLE RED RIDING

CINDERELLA

SNOW WHITE

PINOCCHIO