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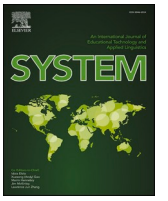

The role of the language of interaction and translanguaging on attention to interactional feedback in virtual exchanges

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ABSTRACT

This study sets out to examine learner-learner oral interaction during a task-based virtual exchange carried out online using video-based SCMC among 32 English and Spanish foreign language learners from two different universities. The video-recordings of three oral tasks in which learners took part in pairs were analyzed to identify, transcribe, and code language related episodes. These were divided into episodes carried out entirely in Spanish, entirely in English or by combining the use of the two languages resulting in episodes which originally started in English or Spanish but exhibited translanguaging. The aim of the study was to identify the language or language-combination mode that was more effective in eliciting interactional feedback and modified output and thus aiding in L2 development. The results indicated that English episodes exhibited slightly more explicit corrective feedback but Spanish episodes contained significantly more modified output. The presence of translanguaging had a statistically significant effect on the amount of interactional feedback and modified output in the episodes which started in Spanish. These findings suggest that English may act as the default language when the focus of attention in an oral task switches to examine a language point in virtual exchanges which has implications for L2 development.

1. Introduction

The accidental attention to form which occurs in learner-to-learner interactions has been widely investigated following Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis and Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis. In these interactions, the use of interactional feedback and its effects on noticing the gap between the learner's knowledge of the target language and their non-targetlike utterances are deemed crucial for L2 development (Doughty, 2001). Over the years, besides teacher-learner interactions, the focus has shifted to examine interactions between learners which also exhibit negotiation of meaning (NoM) (Foster & Ohta, 2005) and focus on form (FoF), thus highlighting the benefits of these interactions for L2 learning (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey et al., 2012, pp. 7–23; Varonis & Gass, 1985). Specifically, researchers have examined the occurrence of attention shifts from the communicative meaning-related aspect of a given task to a linguistic aspect during task-based conversational interaction in so-called language related episodes (LREs). These attention shifts help learners establish a link between their non-targetlike utterances and the feedback they receive, while offering the possibility for learners to modify their utterances and test the rules or hypotheses they formulated about the target language (modified output). The modified output that learners produce has been suggested to have an even greater noticing effect than the input provided by the feedback (Gurzynski-Weiss & Baralt, 2015) and can help promote fluency and the automatization of retrieval in the processing of the L2 (Mackey et al., 2003).

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Research on LREs has been mostly conducted in laboratory settings and (foreign or L2) language classrooms partly relying on computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools to collect data. Early research on CMC compared the occurrence of LREs during task-based conversational interaction between face-to-face (FTF) settings and text-based CMC, establishing that CMC interactions had certain particularities. They provided more processing time, improved comprehension, and caused less pressure to react (González-Lloret, 2014; Ko, 2012; Yamada & Akahori, 2007) yielding more participation which contributed to learners' enhanced noticing and selective attention (Bueno-Alastuey, 2011; Freiermuth & Huang, 2012; Tudini, 2003; Yanguas, 2010). Improvements in aural CMC technologies have made online interactions between learners and online language lessons more pervasive which has led to aural and video-based synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) become part of mainstream language learning and teaching practices. Current aural and video SCMC interactions increasingly resemble FTF settings (Bueno-Alastuey, 2011; Ko, 2012; Lai & Zhao, 2006; Yamada, 2009; Yamada & Akahori, 2007; Yanguas, 2010) and even provide a slight advantage in facilitating L2 learning outcomes, on productive skills in particular (Ziegler, 2016). SCMC settings present opportunities for interactional feedback and for noticing the features of the target language (Wang, 2006), and they have shown to exhibit gains in L2 oral proficiency (Canals, 2020; Satar & Özdener, 2008) and enhanced motivation and willingness to communicate (Canals, 2020; Ko, 2012; Yamada & Akahori, 2007; Ziegler & Phung, 2019). In other studies, however, the use of SCMC and particularly the webcam have been deemed intrusive and face-threatening, reportedly hindering task completion (Van der Zwaard & Bannink, 2014).

Virtual exchanges (O'Dowd, 2018) use CMC and SCMC technologies to establish ties between different educational institutions in order to provide learners with opportunities to extend the practice of the L2 outside the classroom without having to rely on physical learner mobilities (study abroad programs). Virtual exchanges (VEs) between learners take many shapes and forms (see O'Dowd, 2018 or Akiyama & Cunningham, 2018, for overviews and meta-analyses). The present research focuses on tandem-based virtual exchanges, also referred to as tandem telecollaboration or eTandem (O'Rourke, 2007; Tian & Wang, 2010). Tandem virtual exchanges involve interactions where learners spent half the time speaking in their L1 and the other half practicing their L2. The present study will examine LREs during task-based oral interaction carried out online using SCMC between learners from two different universities taking part in a virtual language exchange.

2. Literature review

2.1. Negotiated interaction in oral SCMC tasks

Earlier research which focused on comparing the benefits of SCMC (written or oral) vs FTF for negotiated interaction deemed SCMC settings as more beneficial (Yanguas, 2012; Yanguas, 2010; Ziegler, 2016 for a meta-analysis). On the other hand, Van der Zwaard and Bannink (2014, 2019) problematized this view, indicating that the immediacy of videoconferencing was face-threatening and consequently led to fewer instances of NoM, more non-understandings, and to the use of strategies to avoid getting into a negotiation of meaning episode. Other more recent studies, however, found that interactions with native speakers were motivating rather than face-threatening (Canals, 2020).

The use of voice- or video-based SCMC tools as a means to examine the use of interactional feedback and modified output in SCMC contexts has been the focus of some research which has examined its effects on language learners' oral skills (Akiyama & Saito, 2016; Canals, 2020; Satar & Özdener, 2008). Other studies have focussed on the moderating effects of tasks (Kitajima, 2013; Loewen & Isbell, 2017; Yanguas, 2010; Yanguas & Bergin, 2018) and different types of pairings (Bueno-Alastuey, 2010, 2013; Eslami & Kung, 2016) on negotiated interaction by examining LREs.

Satar and Özdener (2008) investigated learners' gains conducting an experimental study where three groups of vocational high school students carried out interactions using either text-based CMC, oral SCMC or neither (control). After measuring and rating learners' productive language skills with an oral interaction task in pairs and measuring their anxiety levels, they found that the speaking proficiency of both experimental groups increased after taking part in eight 45-min interactions in pairs with their partners. The authors also found that the level of anxiety felt by the students decreased only for the text-chat group. Other authors (Akiyama & Saito, 2016) investigated the gains of participating in a semester-long video-based eTandem exchange for learners of Japanese, who they found improved significantly in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Oral comprehension, however, did only improve significantly for those learners who showed an increase in their speech rate. This indicated that in order to see an improvement in oral comprehension, the exchanges need to be sustained over long periods of time. Canals (2020) investigated the benefits of participating in an eTandem virtual exchange by measuring the oral skills of advanced Spanish learners of English prior to and after taking part in the exchange and compared them with those of a control group of students of the same level at the same institution who did not take part in the exchange. Overall, the oral skills of the learners in both groups increased and provided evidence that oral proficiency can be facilitated by video-based SCMC and eTandem exchanges. The additional benefits of participating in these types of exchanges were, according to the learners, an increased motivation to learn the target language and a willingness to collaborate and communicate in the foreign language.

Other studies have investigated the impact of the type of task on negotiated interaction and, consequently, on L2 development. Information gap (goal-convergent) tasks have been deemed better at promoting negotiation during interaction than personal information exchange tasks (Gilabert et al., 2009). However, Kitajima (2013) examined the negotiated interactions between Japanese learners of English and North American learners of Japanese taking part in an eTandem exchange which used audio-based SCMC. While both tasks elicited very different types of repair negotiations, the personal information task provided more interactional space to test out the interactional feedback learners received from their partners whereas the interactional feedback they received in information gap tasks, mostly recasts, tended to go unnoticed more often. Even though Yanguas' (2010) study set out to establish the

differences in NoM between audio and video SCMC compared with FTF and text-based SCMC in interactions between learners of Spanish, he also found that the type of negotiation occurring in those interactions was highly sensitive to the type of task. The tasks he used had a lexical focus and, thus, triggered negotiations mostly around the lexically targeted items. In a more recent study, Yanguas and Bergin (2018) examined the effect of two tasks (jigsaw vs dictogloss) in two different modes (video vs audio SCMC) on the number, focus and outcome of LREs. Earlier studies had established that there was a greater content or meaning focus in the jigsaw task which prevented focusing on form (Yilmaz, 2011), but neither the tasks nor the settings analyzed by Yanguas and Bergin (2018) produced any significant differences in the number of LREs. Nonetheless, more lexical-LREs occurred in the jigsaw task and more unresolved LREs occurred in the audio SCMC mode. This was something that Yanguas (2010) had already observed earlier and attributed to the lack of visual cues in audio SCMC which he suggested could hinder comprehension.

Regarding the different possibilities of interlocutor pairings, different studies assessing interactions between different types of learner dyads have rendered somewhat inconclusive results. Some researchers advocate for interactions between non-native speakers (NNS) (Bueno-Alastuey, 2010; Mackey et al., 2003) which displayed more comprehensible input and modified output opportunities and reduced anxiety (Satar & Özdener, 2008). However, there is a notable difference between NNS-dyads who share the same L1 and those with different L1s. Bueno-Alastuey (2010, 2013) investigated audio SCMC interactions of learners in different dyad compositions (NNS with same and different-L1s and NNS-NS) and found more pronunciation LREs among NNS with different-L1 dyads concluding that being familiar with a given L2 accent (such as NNS interacting with same L1 speakers) may facilitate comprehension and decrease the need for NoM in pronunciation LREs. Eslami and Kung (2016) explored the occurrence of incidental focus-on-form and its effects on L2 learning outcomes on two dyad types (NNS-NS and NNS-NNS) interacting using text-based SCMC and did not find significant differences between the two types of dyads neither in the amount of LREs produced nor in subsequent learning outcomes.

Combining learners with same- or different-L1s, modality (FTF vs audio SCMC) and tasks (information gap, convergent or open-ended) as variables, Loewen and Isbell (2017) investigated the role of pronunciation in interactions between learners of English. Of all the variables examined only the consensus task yielded different, albeit not significant frequencies of pronunciation LREs.

The presence of modified output in negotiated interactions has been adopted by some scholars as a measure of whether learners noticed the feedback provided by their interlocutors despite this being a contented issue in the literature (Smith, 2010). In a study with English-L1 learners of Spanish interacting in both FTF and text-based SCMC modes, Gurzynski-Weiss and Baralt (2015) investigated the noticing of the feedback and concluded that it was noticed similarly in both modes and that partial modified output, as opposed to none or full, was the greatest predictor of accurate noticing.

2.2. The role of languages: languages involved in VEs and translanguaging practices

Translanguaging understood as the idea that learners', as plurilingual speakers, communicate and make meaning using their entire linguistic repertoires (Canagarajah, 2011; García & Wei, 2014; Lasagabaster & García, 2014) has been widely researched in foreign and L2 classrooms (García & Klein, 2016; García & Lin, 2017; Kramsch & Huffmaster, 2015; Tian, 2021; Zheng, 2019). Even though the current article will adopt the term translanguaging, part of the reviewed literature will examine research which studied this same phenomenon using the term code-switching. This term was used to refer to the alternate use of two languages in a single utterance (Auer, 2013) but does not take into consideration the current understanding of linguistic repertoires of plurilingual speakers as integrated and independent of state-endorsed discrete or named languages (Otheguy et al., 2015).

Translanguaging practices during oral or written interactions using SCMC have also received some attention. These practices have been approached in foreign language learning settings (online and hybrid) by several authors to examine oral interactions (Adinolfi & Astruc, 2017; Sert & Balaman, 2018; Walker, 2018; Zheng et al., 2017) and by other research which focused on the analysis of code-switching in text-based interactions (Androutsopoulos, 2013; Jieanu, 2013; Kötter, 2003; Rao et al., 2016; Tudini, 2016). Given the oral and video-based nature of the data examined in the present article, mainly research that addresses the role of different languages in oral or video SCMC language learning interactions will be reviewed in detail with one exception. Although Tudini (2016) focuses on code-switching in text-based interactions in a telecollaborative language learning context, this article will be thoroughly reviewed due to the relevance of its findings for the present study. The objective of this review is to assess how translanguaging practices are used as an interactional resource in learner-learner interactions.

Adinolfi and Astruc (2017) examined teacher-learner and learner-learner translanguaging practices in an online Spanish lesson delivered using a videoconferencing tool and observed that although the teacher used translanguaging frequently to provide instructions and prompt non-verbal responses, students did not engage in these practices. On the other hand, Zheng et al. (2017) observed abundant examples of translanguaging in their analysis of young Chinese learners of English while interacting online in a 3D virtual learning environment, especially while completing an oral collaborative consensus/convergent task. In their examination of negotiation of tasks and its connection to learning opportunities among Turkish learners of English interacting online using a videoconferencing tool, Sert and Balaman (2018) also noticed a few episodes where learners used translanguaging in order to clarify some aspects of their speech to their interlocutors. However, these translanguaging practices were discouraged by the participants in the interaction as they were seen as transgressions of the task's rules and therefore the exclusive use of the target language prevailed. In contrast with this, Walker (2018)'s German/English VE participants used translanguaging unapologetically in the online interactions to not only negotiate for meaning and solve language problems, but also to negotiate during tasks and procedures, doing exploratory talk, and showing mutual support.

Finally, and even though it was not the focus of her research, Kitajima (2013) noticed very frequent translanguaging instances in her eTandem data which she attributed to the fact that learners in these types of exchanges know each other's languages, something which might not be the case in other interactions with other speakers in the target language.

By analyzing text-based interactions between an Italian native speaker and an English-L1 intermediate learner of Italian, Tudini (2016) set out to investigate whether code-switching aids in the feedback process and promotes learning. The author identified three types of switching, i) intra-post switching of one or two words within a post, ii) inter-post or use of an alternate language within a post, which had started in the other language, which could continue in the next post, and finally iii) backchanneling and evaluative code-switching, alternating the use of the two languages in a single post. The cases where code-switching was used to achieve understanding and learning and to mitigate the effect of the corrective feedback instances both learners initiated were particularly relevant. Code-switching instances within feedback sequences had the function of reciprocating corrective feedback as learners alternated roles of being both experts (in their L1) and novices (L2) thus creating a much more balanced relationship than in unilateral corrective feedback settings, and, thereby, reducing power asymmetries and mitigating the face-threatening nature of interactions with an expert speaker.

3. The current study

Earlier studies of VEs taking the eTandem telecollaboration format have examined learner-learner interactions using the Varonis and Gass' (1985) model for NoM but have disregarded possible differences in the amount and quality of FoF and NoM in interactional oral data between the languages involved. In fact, data-sets portraying data and interactions in eTandem VEs involving two or more languages are largely presented as monolithic when interactions in one or the other language may in fact render different types of interactional feedback and dialogical FoF, especially when there is a possibility of switching back and forth from one language to the other. To the best of my knowledge, no studies to date have probed whether the interactions occurring between learners alternating the use of their more proficient language and the target language display any differences in the rate and characteristics of incidental FoF and negotiation of meaning in LREs.

Additionally, very few studies examining LREs and negotiation of meaning (Sert & Balaman, 2018; Kötter, 2003; Tudini, 2016; Walker, 2018) have accounted for the presence of code-switching or translanguaging instances which are common practices in multilingual interactions in CMC (Androutsopoulos, 2013; Caparas & Gustilo, 2017). Inquiring about this aspect is particularly relevant in the context of an eTandem VE where both languages (target and L1) are used by learners at different points opening the door for translanguaging to occur as other studies have observed (Kötter, 2003; Rao et al., 2016; Sert & Balaman, 2018; Tudini, 2016; Walker, 2018; Zheng et al., 2017).

One indicator of learners' FoF is the quantity and quality of LREs (Kim & McDonough, 2008). The main aim of the present study is to find out whether there is a language or language-combination mode which is more effective in aiding in L2 development in video-based SCMC. The overall research question the study is trying to answer is whether there is a significant difference between the amount of NfM and FoF -instantiated in LREs-, interactional feedback and noticing -determined by the presence of modified output- that learners exhibit when they interact in English, Spanish or combining the two languages. Specifically, the current study is driven by the following research questions.

Research question 1. What differences can be observed in LREs carried out in different languages in terms of the number of LREs, the amount of interactional feedback and the attention to feedback (noticing) produced in SCMC oral tasks?

In order to answer this question, the paper will examine which type of interaction (in Spanish, in English, or involving translanguaging) exhibits more LREs, which episodes (in Spanish, in English, or involving translanguaging) exhibit more feedback instances, and which lead to more noticing or instances of modified output.

Research question 2. To what extent is the presence of translanguaging related to the amount of interactional feedback and the attention to feedback (noticing) in SCMC oral tasks?

4. Method

4.1. Participants and context of the study

The participants in this study were 32 learners, 22 females and 10 males, enrolled in language programs at two higher education institutions in two different countries, and their ages ranged from 18 to 30. There were 16 learners of Spanish who had signed up for a high-intermediate Spanish course at a Canadian university and 16 learners of English as a foreign language who had signed up for an Advanced English course at a Spanish university. The self-reported level of their foreign language proficiency corresponded mostly to the level of the course they had signed up for; B2 (according to the CERF) or high-intermediate in the case of the learners at the Canadian university and C1 or Advanced in the case of the learners at the Spanish institution. The participants at the Spanish institution were Spanish L1 speakers or Spanish-Catalan bilingual speakers, and the learners at the Canadian institution were English L1 speakers or speakers of English and other languages (Tagalog, Japanese, Arabic, and Chinese) who had moved to Canada at an early age (at least 5 years before college).

The participants took part in an eTandem virtual exchange organized by the Spanish instructor of the Canadian university and the English course coordinator (and author-researcher of the present article) at the Spanish institution. Part of the virtual exchange, which lasted two and a half months, involved carrying out three online two-way open-ended collaborative tasks which involved oral interactions over SCMC (Skype) and filling out a questionnaire with the background information laid out in the previous paragraph. These interactions, which involved speaking half of the time in Spanish and half in English, were video-recorded by the participants and sent to the instructors and researcher for grading and research purposes after the students had been informed about the purpose of the study and gave their consent. The tasks were assessed following the same grading criteria by the language instructors at each

institution given that the tasks were mandatory on both sides.

Two pairs of students who initially took part in the tasks of the virtual exchange had to be left out of the corpus for the present article because they only carried out some of the tasks or the tasks in which they took part did not always succeed in eliciting LREs in both languages, thus making the comparison unfeasible.

4.2. Tasks and procedures

The three oral tasks that the learners carried out were similar in length, lasting an average of 39 min and were information exchange (tasks 1, 2 and 3), comparison and analysis (tasks 2 and 3) and decision making (task 3) tasks. The learners interacted in pairs using a videoconferencing tool (Skype) which allowed them to record the video-calls. They had been instructed to spend half of the task speaking in Spanish and the other half speaking in English to make sure both learners had equal opportunities to practice their target language and to kindly help each other out with their respective target languages providing each other with feedback and offering help with pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary when their interlocutors requested it.

At the beginning of the virtual exchange, they took part in a two-way information exchange and comparison and analysis divergent task (task 1) where learners had to share with one another their college-experiences. The second task was also a divergent task which involved both information exchange and comparison and analysis. The learners were asked to share and compare life-hacks, talk about important objects they could not do without and explain curious culture-specific objects from their culture(s). In this task, learners were asked to provide feedback to their partners on three or four language points. The third task increased in complexity and it contained some information exchange, comparison and analysis and also decision making. It required learners to choose a city regeneration project which turned an underused area into a useful community space to present to their partners. During the call and after exchanging information about existing projects, they had to come up with an idea for a new regeneration project to improve a specific community or area of a city of their choice. This task was a convergent task because they needed to reach an agreement. The learners were also instructed to provide feedback to their partners on a few language points. Links to the specific instructions shared with the students are provided in Appendix A.

4.3. Data coding and treatment

The videoconference recordings yielded about 21 h of learner-to-learner interactions. After transcribing the interactions, 742 LREs were identified and conform the corpus of the present article. LREs were coded into four categories: 1) LREs conducted entirely in Spanish, 2) LREs conducted entirely in English, 3) Spanish LREs which contained translanguaging sequences into English, and 4) English LREs which contained translanguaging sequences into Spanish.

The translanguaging instances included intra- and inter-sentential switches (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Koban, 2013; Poplack, 2008) or inter- and intra-post switches (Tudini, 2016) which sometimes lasted until the end of the LRE or carried onto the next LRE. In the excerpt below examples of both types of switches can be found. The LREs which contained translanguaging involving languages other than Spanish or English were excluded from the corpus to be able to compare LREs involving the two target languages that the learners were learning during the telecollaboration.

Excerpt 1.

CAN2: Es listo, después. Es interesante.

[Translation: It's ready, afterwards. It's interesting].

SP2: Sí, *you put.* ← **Intra-sentential switch** *It's kind of a sharp edge, in the little hole and you:::* Girar? Cómo se dice? ← **Intra-sentential switch**.

[Translation: Turn? How do you say that?]

CAN2: *Turn.*

SP2: *You turn and it's open.*

Excerpt 2.

CAN3: No cuesta mucho. *It's not expensive.* ← **Inter-sentential switch**.

[Translation: It's not expensive].

SP3: Sí, sí. Es más económico.

[Translation: Yes. It's cheaper].

The LREs were further coded for the presence of explicit corrective feedback and modified output. Explicit corrective feedback was provided by the exchange partners either after the L2 speakers requested their assistance in a preventive manner (Loewen, 2005) or right after a non-target-like utterance was brought up by the expert-L1 learner and became the focus of conversation. These second type of LREs are also known as reactive LREs (Ellis et al., 2001). Examples of explicit corrective feedback for both types of LREs are provided in the following excerpts.

Excerpt 3.

CAN12: Los fines de semaña? O la fin de semaña? ← **Preemptive LRE**.

[Translation: The weekends? Or the weekend?]

SP12: Los fines de semana. ← **Explicit corrective feedback**.

[Translation: The weekends.]

CAN12: Ok, en los fines de semañas, voy a acostarme: a las, a las once.← **Modified output**.

[Translation: During the weekend, I go to bed at 11].

CAN12: Su francés es el francés *acadian*. Este francés es un mixto? ← **Preemptive LRE** Eh: un mixto de inglés y francés? ← **Preemptive LRE**.

[Translation: Their French is acadian French. This French is a mix? A mix of English and French?]

SP12: Ah, vale. Una mezcla.

[Translation: Ah, ok. A mix].

CAN12: Una mezcla?

[Translation: A mix?]

SP12: Sí.

[Translation: Yes].

CAN12: Es una mezcla del francés y el inglés.

[Translation: It's a mix between French and English].

Excerpt 4.

CAN2: Habló de cómo abrir una nuez sin, eh: todo romper.

[Translation: He talked about how to crack a walnut open without completely breaking it].

SP2: Sin romperla toda. ← **Reactive LRE + Explicit corrective feedback**.

[Translation: Without breaking it completely].

CAN2: Sí, sin romperla toda. ← **Modified output**.

[Translation: Yes, without breaking it completely].

Among the LREs examined there were instances of other types of feedback such as elicitations, recasts, and clarification requests. However, these types of feedback were very scarce and not always present in data coming from both languages. Therefore, they were excluded from the corpus due to the difficulties it would entail to establish comparisons between LREs in Spanish and in English in these cases.

The presence of modified output in an LRE indicates that the learner had 1) noticed the mismatch between his utterance and the feedback provided and 2) tried to understand it by formulating a rule or rehearsing the correction (partially or fully, according to Gurzynski-Weiss & Baralt, 2015) as seen in excerpts 3 and 4.

After coding the 742 LREs which conformed the corpus for this article, the average data per dyad was calculated for the four language categories and aggregated in one file to be able to perform comparisons between the four categories and the 16 dyads. These categories became the four variables among which the comparisons were made, namely, average presence of Spanish LREs, average presence of English LREs, average presence of Spanish LREs translanguaging sequences into English, and average presence of English LREs with translanguaging sequences into Spanish. The 742 LREs identified in the three online interactive tasks were treated as a homogeneous data-set including data coming from the three tasks to calculate the average or mean-LREs per dyad according to the four variables. The possible existing differences between tasks could affect the number of LREs and feedback per task, but the use of Spanish, English or translanguaging were similarly present in all tasks as indicated by a Wilcoxon signed-rank test which failed to show significant differences when comparing the three tasks for the use of Spanish, English or translanguaging. First, task one was compared with tasks two and three and then tasks two and three were compared with one another for the use of Spanish, English or translanguaging and no differences were found.

To determine the inter-rater reliability, a random subsample of 25% of the data (185 LREs) was coded by a second coder and a simple percentage agreement was calculated for each variable. The inter-rater agreement was over 90% for all variables and the LREs on which the coders failed to agree were examined again until a consensus was reached.

Given that the assumptions to perform parametric tests (paired t-test) were not met, Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were run in order to establish comparisons between means. Wilcoxon signed-rank tests can be used when two measurements of the same dependent variable (mean LREs) are taken under different conditions (Woolson, 2007, pp. 1–3), in this case mean Spanish LREs vs mean English LREs per dyad.

5. Findings and discussion

The examined tasks lasted 37 min on average, the shortest task lasting 16 min and the longest task 67 min. Learners were instructed to spend similar amounts of time speaking in each language. However, after transcribing the tasks and adding up the minutes where each language was used predominantly, the overall English-speaking time was about 61% and the overall time speaking in Spanish 39%, which could be due to the pervasiveness of translanguaging sequences into English in LREs which had originally started out in Spanish, which were far more frequent (85%) than translanguaging sequences into Spanish in LREs which started in English (13%).

5.1. RQ 1. Spanish versus English LREs: quantity, amount of interactional feedback and attention to feedback

In order to respond to the first research question, the LREs in Spanish and in English where no other language was used were examined. On average, the English LREs lasted longer than Spanish LREs (24 s vs 18 s) but were less frequent. The fact that the English LREs lasted longer on average could account for the LREs being less frequent. However, the total amount of time of all Spanish LREs examined combined was slightly higher than all English LREs (73.21 min vs 72.46 min) without taking into account the translanguaging sequences.

LREs conducted entirely in Spanish were 242, 32% of the total LREs examined (N = 742), whereas LREs in English amount to 185 (24%). Regarding the amount of feedback provided, LREs in English exhibited slightly more explicit corrective feedback ($M = 0.39$, *SD*

= 0.48) than Spanish LREs ($M = 0.34$, $SD = 0.47$), as shown in Table 1. On the other hand, Spanish LREs contained more modified output ($M = 0.69$, $SD = 0.60$) than English ones ($M = 0.57$ $SD = 0.55$). A Wilcoxon-related samples signed-rank test indicated that the differences in these two scores (feedback and modified output) were statistically significant only in the case of modified output ($Z = -2.844$, $p = .009$). This indicates that overall LREs in Spanish displayed/prompted the use of modified output in significantly higher proportions than LREs in English.

Regarding the differences in the amount of explicit corrective feedback exhibited in the LREs in the two languages, it can be noticed that the data were particularly spread out as indicated by the standard deviations being higher than the mean rather than clustered around the mean. In this case, the fact that the data were too spread out might have affected the statistical analyses.

Contrary to the findings by earlier research which have indicated that American native speakers tended to avoid correction of foreign language uses (Sotillo, 2005) or avoid correcting syntactic errors to avoid interrupting the interaction (Bueno-Alastuey, 2013), the English L1 speakers in the present study displayed higher proportions of explicit corrections than their Spanish counterparts. The findings in the present study also contradict Sotillo (2005) who found that native speakers tended to provide little explicit feedback although in her case learners were speficially asked to provide comprehensible input to their counterparts. These earlier findings, however, were not found in interactions between learners who participated in VEs. In these cases, the data collection was done as standalone tasks connecting two groups of students who did not necessarily interact in other settings or took part in other tasks together. Earlier research on VEs has determined that they constitute safe environments for language learners who develop trusting relationships with their partners over a period of time (Canals, 2020). This might contribute to reduce their anxiety or diminish the cultural tendency to avoid correcting the other students. Additionally, in the case of the present study, learners were instructed to provide feedback and aid their partners when they thought they were struggling to find the right expressions. The current study could not determine whether the background of some of the students might have made them more prone to provide feedback to their partners than other students because not all of them provided information about the degree they were studying.

5.2. RQ2. Presence of translanguaging & amount of interactional feedback and noticing

To find out whether the presence of translanguaging into the LREs could relate to the amount of interactional feedback and whether that feedback was noticed (RQ2), the Spanish LREs produced by all dyads was compared with the Spanish LREs which contained any translanguaging sequences into English produced by the same dyads. This way, episodes which contained translanguaging instances into any of the two languages in these interactions could be characterized.

Let us first examine the differences between Spanish LREs and Spanish LREs with translanguaging sequences into English. As can be seen in Table 2, Spanish LREs which contained translanguaging sequences into English were more common than LREs in which Spanish was exclusively used. The difference between the two types of LREs was statistically significant for both the presence of explicit corrective feedback ($Z = -2.780$, $p < .005$) and the amount of modified output generated ($Z = -2.844$, $p < .004$), which were more common in Spanish LREs.

This indicates that, overall, LREs which took place in Spanish exhibited corrective feedback and modified output in significantly higher proportions than LREs which started out in Spanish but exhibited translanguaging. In this case, this backs up earlier findings by Vinagre and Muñoz (2011) which indicated that Spanish speakers preferred to provide explicit corrective feedback.

When LREs in English and LREs in English which contain translanguaging (Table 3) were compared, the LREs where English was exclusively used were also much more common than the LREs which contained translanguaging. However, the difference between the amount of explicit corrective feedback or modified output that each type of LRE exhibited was not statistically significant.

The presence of modified output seems to be more common in interactions where learners choose to use Spanish for the entire LRE. In contrast, in LREs conducted in English modified output is slightly more common when learners translanguage. This last difference was not confirmed by the statistical tests and therefore is not as relevant as the one displayed by the Spanish data. Earlier studies examining text-based SCMC have pointed to the fact that text-based SCMC was making the feedback provided more salient and, thus, easier to notice (Gurzynski-Weiss & Baralt, 2015; Lai & Zhao, 2006; Yilmaz & Yuksel, 2011) and it could be hypothesized that translanguaging would have the same effect. Some translanguaging functions could be said to reinforce the message conveyed, the feedback in this case, by either providing a translated version of the same feedback or by amplifying the feedback using a meta-linguistic explanation, or by using clarification requests or other means of prompting and fostering modified output. However, only part of the data reported in this paper (English LREs with translanguaging sequences into Spanish) backs up this hypothesis. In fact, the results displayed earlier indicate that in interactions conducted entirely in Spanish, thus without having any silent feature to reinforce the feedback such as translanguaging, the feedback is more noticed than in LREs which contain translanguaging.

Table 1
Characteristics of Spanish versus English LREs.

LREs	Spanish LREs			English LREs		
	242	32%		185	24%	
	N	Mean	sd	N	Mean	sd
Explicit corrective feedback	83	.34	.47	72	**.39**	.48
Modified output	168	**.69**[a]	.60	106	.57	.55

[a] Statistically significant difference.

Table 2
Characteristics of Spanish versus Spanish-to-English LREs.

LREs	Spanish LREs			Spanish-to-English LREs		
	242	32%		271	37%	
	N	Mean	sd	N	Mean	sd
Explicit corrective feedback	83	**.34**[a]	.47	65	.24	.42
Modified output	168	**.69**[a]	.60	174	.64	.66

[a] Statistically significant difference.

Table 3
Characteristics of English versus English-to-Spanish LREs.

LREs	English LREs			English-to-Spanish		
	185	24%		44	5%	
	N	Mean	sd	N	Mean	sd
Explicit corrective feedback	106	.57	.55	25	.57	.67
Modified output	77	.53	.50	20	**.57**	.50

On the one hand, the fact that there were more LREs which started in Spanish than LREs which started in English and that, on the other hand, there seemed to be a higher number of translanguaging sequences into English in LREs which started in Spanish than translanguaging sequences into Spanish in LREs which started in English could indicate a pattern. One hypothesis could be that this is due to the slightly lower Spanish proficiency of the English learners (B2, higher intermediate) compared with the English proficiency of the Spanish learners (C1, advanced). Therefore, their competence in their respective foreign languages was slightly different. However, according to Loewen and Sato (2018), level differences are merely contextual differences which are not particularly relevant in the case where the proficiency level of the learners, such as in the present case, allows fluent communication between learners in either language. Another aspect which could account for the above-mentioned observed differences between the two languages is the fact that English, and not Spanish, might be acting as the default language when there is a breakdown in communication or the focus of attention switches to examine a language point, which is something Tudini (2016) already observed in her investigation of repair sequences between an English-L1 learner of Italian and an Italian-L1 learner of English in text-based interaction.

Another possible explanation for the higher amount of modified amount in LREs conducted exclusively in Spanish might be due to the perceived proficiency level that Spanish speakers had of their interlocutors. It could be that Spanish speakers generally did not translanguage into English when providing feedback because they perceived their partner could understand the feedback in Spanish. This could also explain the fact that modified output ensued. However, when Spanish speakers used translanguaging sequences involving English to provide feedback or metalinguistic explanations they might have perceived that their partner would not understand the feedback so they decided to resort to English. That perception could explain why learners were not able to provide modified output in Spanish even after English metalinguistics explanations.

6. Conclusion and implications

The results of the present study indicate that the language of the LREs did in fact play a role in the amount of negotiation generated, interactional feedback and attention to feedback. In the current data-set, English provided a more fertile ground for interactional feedback but interactions in Spanish provided more opportunities for learners to notice non-targetlike utterances, bringing more opportunities to repair their utterances and produce modified output than LREs carried out entirely in English.

The amount of modified output was significantly greater in interactions conducted entirely in Spanish compared to interactions conducted entirely in English and with interactions which started in Spanish but included translanguaging. Therefore, more attention should be paid in following investigations to unveil the characteristics of the modified output according to the categories Gurzynski-Weiss and Baralt (2015) suggested to try to identify which ones exerted a more facilitative role in the resolution of LREs.

Contrary to what was expected, the presence of translanguaging did not have a saliency effect which increased the effectiveness of interactional feedback. Although earlier studies in the CMC medium with speakers sharing the same L1 have found that learners often use their L1 to solve communication problems (Cheon, 2003), the translanguaging observed in the present study did not play a special role in solving the communication problem and it failed to significantly increase the chances of noticing the feedback or producing modified output.

Future research would need to further examine the type of translanguaging that takes place in these types of settings (video-based SCMC) and the functions it serves in learner-learner interactions as part of eTandem virtual exchanges to determine whether it helps scaffolding the negotiation of meaning process in these interactions.

The results of the present study have pedagogical implications that could inform practitioners about the type of interactions that can occur in similar interactional contexts. When designing tasks to promote negotiation of meaning in video-based SCMC eTandem projects, it is necessary to take into account the role that the languages involved in these virtual exchanges play in moderating the

interactions between learners' needs.

However, the present study has several limitations. First, the study analyzed learner-learner interactions in a quantitative manner and provided some possible explanations for the learner's behaviour. These explanations could have been contrasted with qualitative data on the students' perceptions regarding their provision of feedback and use of the languages examined here. Similarly, perceptions about the proficiency level of the foreign language of their interlocutors could have affected their behaviour. The use of a stimulated recall technique could have shed light on what the learners thought when they provided or received the feedback during their interactions. Second, due to the anonymity of the entry questionnaire, some biographical information about the learners could not be gathered, which prevented to determine the extent to which the participants' background influenced their linguistic behaviour.

Finally, this study constitutes an additional piece of empirical research that sheds more light on the types of negotiation that can naturally occur between learners in video-based SCMC settings, which have recently become widespread foreign language teaching practices (online language learning) as a consequence of the covid-19 pandemic and in which more empirical work needs to be carried out.

Appendix A. Links to the Task Instructions

Task 1

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1FvvKvM4VtMqyPIIpr4znStmgJo83QsTm/view to instructions for task 1.

Task 2

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1pa2HZZo1yb5JskjRqdWniKPI1fE2kSSP/view to instructions for task 2.

Task 3

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1OIqKU-hm79owSGnKP1Mfu1HSUEVCguEX/view to instructions for task 3.

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