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**Raising Teachers' Interactional Awareness of Their Teacher  
Talk with a View To Facilitating Learning Opportunities**

**The Case Study of Second Year Teachers At Dardar Bouzid  
Secondary School- El Eulma**

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE MAGISTER DEGREE  
IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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## DEDICATION

In the name of the Almighty God

To my dearest parents.

To my brothers, sisters, and to all my family members.

To my husband “Youcef” and all his family members,

To my friends and to all those who helped me to achieve this work,

I dedicate this dissertation.

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## ABSTRACT

This work purports to raise teachers' awareness of their talk-in- interaction by examining the interactional patterns of teacher talk operating in the secondary classroom. To do so, we opted for triangulation in collecting our data. We conducted a classroom observation in which two lessons of two participant teachers were video-recorded, transcribed and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively, using Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk Grid and Conversation Analysis Method. The aim was to detect the different patterns of interaction, notably, teacher talk operating there, and their impact on learning opportunity. Besides classroom observation, we administrated two questionnaires to the two participant teachers in order to reveal the extent to which they are aware of their classroom talk. We reinforced the questionnaire data with a stimulated recall methodology, in which we conducted a reflective interview whereby teachers clarify and justify their classroom decision making. Our aim was to examine teachers' awareness of the effect of their talk on learners' contributions. The results obtained show that classroom interaction falls under Initiation Response Follow-up sequence in which there were overuse of display questions, extended teacher turn, very few referential questions, lot of positive feedback with a remarkable absence of comprehension checks, confirmation checks, extended learner turn and direct repair, all of which had impact to obstruct or construct learning opportunities. The questionnaire, along with the stimulated recall interview revealed that the two participant teachers displayed little awareness about the effects of their questions choice on learners' contributions as well as the effect of feedback and wait time in extending or restricting learners' output. At the end, we proposed some pedagogical implications to improve the quality of teacher talk. Suggestions for further research were provided as well.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

**CA:** Conversation Analysis

**COLT:** Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching

**DA:** Discourse Analysis

**FIAC:** Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories

**FL:** Foreign Language

**FLINT:** Foreign Language INTERaction

**IRF/E:** Initiation/ Response/Feedback

**L2:** Second Language

**NS:** Native Speaker

**NNS:** Non Native Speaker

**SETT:** Self Evaluation Of Teacher Talk

**SLA:** Second Language Acquisition

**T1:** Teacher 1

**T2:** Teacher 2

**TL:** Target Language

**TT:** Teacher Talk

**ZPD:** Zone of Proximal Development



## LIST OF FIGURES

**Figure 1:** Indirect Contribution of Output to Second Language Acquisition.....12

**Figure 2:** Output and Second Language Learning.....17

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 1:</b> Flanders’ Interaction Analysis Categories.....	42
<b>Table 2:</b> SETT Grid.....	
<b>Table 3:</b> T1’s Rate of Display Questions .....	54
<b>Table 4:</b> T2’s Rate of Display Questions .....	55
<b>Table 5:</b> T1’ Rate of Referential Questions .....	55
<b>Table 6:</b> T2’ Rate of Referential Questions .....	56
<b>Table 7:</b> T1’s Tally of Scaffolding .....	57
<b>Table 8:</b> T2’s Tally of Scaffolding .....	57
<b>Table 9:</b> T1, T2’s Rate of Direct Repair.....	58
<b>Table 10:</b> T1’s Rate of Seeking Clarification .....	59
<b>Table 11:</b> T2’s Rate of Seeking Clarification .....	59
<b>Table 12:</b> T1, T2’s Confirmation Checks .....	60
<b>Table 13:</b> T1’s Extended Teacher Turn .....	60
<b>Table 14:</b> T2’s Extended Teacher Turn .....	61
<b>Table 15:</b> T1’s Rate of Teacher Echo .....	61
<b>Table 16:</b> T2’s Rate of Teacher Echo .....	62
<b>Table 17:</b> T1, T2’s Rate of Turn Completion .....	63
<b>Table 18:</b> Teachers’ Interruption T1, T2.....	64
<b>Table 19:</b> T1, T2’s Content Feedback .....	64
<b>Table 20:</b> T1’s Rate of Form-Focused Feedback .....	65
<b>Table 21:</b> T2’s Rate of Form-Focused Feedback .....	65
<b>Table 22:</b> Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk Grid Results.....	66



## CONTENTS

Dedication .....	I
Acknowledgements .....	II
Abstract .....	III
List of Abbreviations .....	IV
List of Figures .....	V
List of Tables .....	VI
Contents .....	VII

## INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study .....	1
2. Statement of the Problem .....	2
3. Research Questions .....	4
4. Aim of the Study .....	4
5. Research Methodology .....	5
6. Organization of the Dissertation .....	5

## CHAPTER ONE: Learning in the SL/FL Classroom

Introduction.....	7
1.1. Comprehensible Input.....	7
1.2. Interaction.....	7
1.2.1 Description of Interaction .....	8
1.2.2. Function of Interaction.....	8
1.3. Role of Output.....	9



1.3.1. Output as a Source of Enhancing Learners' Fluency.....	9
1.3.2. Output as a Source of Generating Feedback.....	10
1.3.2. Output as a Source of Internalizing Linguistic Knowledge.....	12
1.4. Sociocultural Theory.....	20
1.4.1. Definition.....	20
1.4.2. Zone of Proximal Development.....	21
1.4.3. Scaffolding.....	22
Conclusion.....	23

**CHAPTER TWO: Classroom Discourse**

Introduction.....	25
2.1. Classroom Discourse:.....	25
2.1.1. Teacher Talk.....	26
2.2. Features of Classroom Discourse: Patterns of Teacher Talk.....	27
2.2.1. Control of Patterns of Communication.....	27
2.2.2. Elicitation Techniques.....	30
2.2.3. Modifying Speech to Learners.....	33
2.2.4. Feedback.....	35
2.3. Approaches for Analyzing Classroom Discourse:.....	38
2.3.1. Interaction Analysis Approaches.....	38
2.3.2. Discourse Analysis Approaches.....	43
2.3.3. Conversation Analysis Approaches.....	46
2.3.4. A Variable Approach.....	49
Conclusion.....	50

**CHAPTER THREE: Research Methodology and Data Analysis**

Introduction.....	51
3.1. Method.....	51

3.2. Target Population.....	51
3.3. Data Collection Procedures.....	52
3.3.1. Classroom Observation.....	52
3.3.1.1. Video Recording.....	53
3.3.2. Teacher’s Questionnaire.....	54
3.3.2.1. Aim of the Questionnaire.....	54
3.3.2.1. Description of the Questionnaire.....	55
3.3.3. Stimulated Recall Methodology.....	55
3.3.3.1. Stimulated Recall Interview.....	56
3.3.3.1.1. Aim of the Interview.....	56
3.3.3.1.1. Description of the Interview.....	56
3.4. Data Analysis Procedures:.....	57
3.4.1. Classroom Observation Data.....	57
3.4.1.1. Quantitative Analysis.....	57
3.4.1.2. Qualitative Analysis.....	58
3.5. Data Analysis.....	59
3.5.1. Features of Teacher Talk.....	59
3.5.2. Impact of Teacher Talk on Learning Opportunity.....	73
3.5.3. Analysis of Questionnaire.....	89
3.5.4. Analysis of the Stimulated Recall Interview.....	93
Conclusion.....	100

**CHAPTER FOUR: Discussion for the Major Findings, Pedagogical Implication and Suggestions for Further Research.**

Introduction.....	101
4.1. Discussion of the Classroom Observation Data.....	101
4.2. Comparing the Questionnaire Results to the Classroom Observation Results.....	106
4.3. Discussion of the Interview.....	109
4.4. Pedagogical Implications.....	110



Conclusion.....	114
5. Limitation of the Study.....	114
6. Suggestions for Further Research.....	115
<b>General Conclusion.....</b>	<b>116</b>
<b>Bibliography.....</b>	<b>119</b>
<b>Appendices.....</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>Appendix 1:</b> Foreign Language Interaction Analysis.....	<b>128</b>
<b>Appendix 2:</b> Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching .....	<b>129</b>
<b>Appendix 3:</b> Transcription System.....	<b>130</b>
<b>Appendix 4:</b> Self –Evaluation of Teacher Talk Grid.....	<b>131</b>
<b>Appendix 5:</b> Lesson Transcript of Teacher 1.....	<b>132</b>
<b>Appendix 6:</b> Lesson Transcript of Teacher 2.....	<b>139</b>
<b>Appendix 7:</b> Teachers’ Questionnaire.....	<b>143</b>
<b>Appendix 8:</b> Teachers’ Pre-questionnaire.....	<b>149</b>



## INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study .....	1
2. Statement of the Problem .....	2
3. Research Questions .....	4
4. Aim of the Study .....	4
5. Research Methodology .....	5
6. Organization of the Dissertation .....	5

## INTRODUCTION

### 1. Background of the Study

Language teaching is a complex process involving many interrelated factors. Since 1960s, the research on classroom discourse has grown rapidly. Before that, teaching methodology has been explored and an effective teaching method is tried to be found. Since teaching methods do not play a decisive role in language classrooms, the focus has shifted from teaching methods to teachers' talk in classroom process. Just as Ellis (1985, p. 143) points out:

“Classroom process research, as Gaies calls the study of communication in the classroom, has taken different form. The earliest was Interaction Analysis... An alternative approach focused only on the language used by the teacher when addressing second language learners. It sought to tabulate the adjustments which occur in teacher talk.”

Teacher talk (TT) is particularly important to language teaching. According to pedagogical theory, the language that teachers use in classrooms determines to a larger degree whether a class will succeed or not. Many scholars found TT makes up around 70% of classroom language (Cook, 2000; Chaudron, 1988). Teachers pass on knowledge and skills, organize teaching activities and help students practice through TT. In English classrooms, teachers' language is not only the object of the course, but also the medium to achieve the teaching objective. Both the organization of the classroom and the goal of teaching are achieved through TT.

As a matter of fact, there is no learning without teaching. So as a tool of implementing teaching plans and achieving teaching goals, teacher talk plays a vital important role in

language learning. Quite a few researches have discussed the relationship between TT and language learning. As Nunan (1991, p. 189) points out:

“Teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. It is important for the organization and management of the classroom because it is through language that teachers either succeed or fail in implementing their teaching plans. In terms of acquisition, teacher talk is important because it is probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive.”

The amount and type of teacher talk is even regarded as a decisive factor of success or failure in classroom teaching (Walsh, 2001; Walsh, 2002).

## **2. Statement of the Problem**

Nunan (1989, p.76) states: “if we want to enrich our understanding of language learning and teaching, we need to spend time looking in classrooms”. In the Algerian context, the only place where English language is taught and practiced is the classroom. As a matter of fact, our learners are not provided with opportunities to learn, and practice this language outside the classroom. Therefore, the classroom plays a crucial role in creating a learning atmosphere, whereby English is learned. In this classroom, the teacher lies at the heart in shaping learners’ contributions and pushing them towards producing English, by a more careful language use. Swain (1995, as cited in Walsh, 2006, p. 26) emphasized the role of output in learning a foreign language (FL): “it only when the learner is being required to piece together his own utterances that he is being obliged to work out-and hence learn- his own plans of verbal action, all the while evaluating his output in the light of his meaning intention”.

However, the reality of our classroom is not that gloomy and bright (at least for our participant teachers). A host of classes are suffering from the inadequacy of negotiated interaction as well as learners' involvements.

In fact, a pre-questionnaire conducted with four secondary school teachers revealed that these teachers are suffering from the low level of interaction as well as the low level of participation ,notwithstanding, the efforts they claimed to make in order to push learners to produce English. The teachers stated that this serious problem was due to the educational system in general with the complexity of the Competency Based Approach- an approach which is a learner-centered one that aims at «creating competencies »in the learners. Moreover, they complained the complexity of the textbook, the lack of material and the low level of learners as well as the lack of learners' motivation. Teachers were judging the textbook and learners without considering the possibility of the impact of their teacher talk on classroom interaction. In fact, teachers admitted that they reflect little about their classroom practices, of what worked and what did not work with their learners.

Therefore, the low level of interaction as well as the little reflective teaching obtained from the pre-questionnaire on the one hand, added to the importance of interaction and the crucial role of teacher talk in creating learning opportunities obtained from literature on the other hand, lead us to conduct a research to examine the interactional architecture of the secondary classroom and teachers' awareness' vis-à-vis their classroom talk. Two teachers among four welcomed the idea to collaborate with us so that to find out about their classes .Hence, a research was brought into being.

### **3. Research Questions**

We will attempt to answer the following questions:

- 1- What are the patterns of TT operating in the secondary classroom?
- 2- To what extent TT can hinder or facilitate learning opportunities?
- 3- To what extent teachers are self-aware about their talk and its impact on learners' contributions?

#### **4. Aim of the Study**

The general aim of the study is to raise teachers' awareness of their talk-in-interaction, helping them develop a clearer understanding of the relationship between TT, interaction and learning opportunities. In doing so, we set up three aims for the study: Our first aim is to examine the interactional features of TT. By observing secondary classrooms, we can have an insight about how classroom talk is characterized and carried out. Having an in-depth insight about the different patterns of TT operating in the secondary classroom, our second aim is to investigate the effects of TT on classroom interaction, particularly, on learning opportunities. We aim at examining how classroom interaction is constructed through teachers' talk and learners' involvements. In other words, we seek to detect the patterns that seem to facilitate and construct learners' contributions and the patterns that seem to hinder and obstruct them. Knowing the impact of TT on learning opportunities leads us to examine the extent to which our teachers are aware of their practices embodied in their "decision-making" on learners' involvement.

All of these aims are melted in a broader one that seeks to bring changes into secondary classrooms, by providing pedagogical implications to secondary school teachers with a view that their classroom decision-making would move learning to the top gear.

## **5. Research Methodology**

We opted for a triangulation in order to analyze our data. We conducted a classroom observation with two participant teachers in which we recorded their classrooms using the video. The lessons were transcribed and analyzed in order to reveal the different patterns of TT operating in the class and their impact on learners' involvement. Moreover, we administrated a questionnaire to the two teachers attempting to find out about their awareness of their talk. We reinforced the questionnaire data with a stimulated recall methodology in an attempt to raise teachers' awareness of their TT.

## **6. Organization of the Dissertation**

With a broad brush on a large canvas, we shall paint in the organization of our research. The curtain rises with the first chapter, exploring the theoretical background of the study. It investigates the different theories about successful learning in the second (L2)/ FL classroom, emphasizing the salient role of interaction. Interaction facilitates acquisition, shedding light on the role of comprehensible input and negotiation of meaning regarding learning. Interaction increases opportunities for understanding and practice, investigating the impact of output as well as the contributions of the Sociocultural Theory to learning.

The first chapter aims at demonstrating the relationship between input, interaction and learning opportunities in the FL classroom, in which the teacher plays a crucial role in creating interaction-centered-learning.

In the second chapter, we delve beneath the surface of theories to explore the construction of classroom interaction showing how the different theories tackled in the first chapter are embodied in the classroom practices, through investigating classroom discourse from the teacher's perspective. In other words, we will attempt to identify the features of TT and their

impact on learning opportunities. At the end, we will close the chapter with the different approaches for investigating classroom discourse.

The third chapter deals with the methodology of the research as well as the analysis of the data. It describes how research is designed, the different procedures in collecting and analyzing the data as well as the data analysis in which we will investigate the patterns of TT and their impact on learners' output in the secondary classroom. We will examine as well teachers' awareness about their TT.

The fourth chapter deals with the interpretation of the results obtained from the previous chapter. We will attempt to discuss the findings with a view to answering all the research questions raised in the introduction. We seek as well to suggest pedagogical recommendations concerning enhancing the quality of teacher talk so that learning would move to the top gear. The curtain falls with a general conclusion that highlights the major points discussed throughout the study.



## CHAPTER ONE: LEARNING IN THE SL/FL CLASSROOM

Introduction.....	7
1.1. Comprehensible Input.....	7
1.2. Interaction.....	7
1.2.1 Description of Interaction .....	8
1.2.2. Function of Interaction.....	8
1.3. Role of Output.....	9
1.3.1. Output as a Source of Enhancing Learners’ Fluency.....	9
1.3.2. Output as a Source of Generating Feedback.....	10
1.3.2. Output as a Source of Internalizing Linguistic Knowledge.....	12
1.4. Sociocultural Theory.....	20
1.4.1. Definition.....	20
1.4.2. Zone of Proximal Development.....	21
1.4.3. Scaffolding.....	22
Conclusion.....	23

## CHAPTER ONE: LEARNING IN THE SL/FL CLASSROOM

### Introduction

This chapter seeks to shed light on the theoretical background of the study. In this chapter we will examine crucial theories about learning as the input theory, output theory and negotiation of meaning, in which the focus will be on the importance of interaction in the learning process. We will shed light also on the sociocultural theory of learning.

### 1.1.Comprehensible Input

Comprehensible input is a term used by Krashen (1985, as cited in Byram, 2000) which refers to the fact that not all the target language to which second language learners are exposed is understandable. Only some of the language they hear makes sense to them.

According to Krashen's input hypothesis, L2 acquisition takes place when a learner understands input that contains grammatical forms that are at 'i+1' ( i.e. are a little more advanced than the current stage of the learner's interlanguage). Krashen(1985, as cited in Ellis,1985) suggests that the right level of input is attained automatically when interlocutors succeed in making themselves understood in communication. This success is achieved first by using the situational context and extralinguistic clues to make messages clear and second through the kinds of input modifications found in foreigner talk ( i.e. the variety of talk used by native speakers to address non-native speakers). Thus, the input hypothesis claims that learners will acquire an L2 when they have access to comprehensible input and when their affective filter is low, for example, when they are motivated to learn and are not anxious. Krashen(1985, as cited in Ellis), however, argued that interaction can be a good source of comprehensible input, but it is neither necessary nor privileged.

## **1.2. Interaction**

In this section we provide descriptive background on interaction starting with describing interaction.

### **1.2.1. Description of Interaction**

Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975, as cited in Gass, 2005) were among the first L2 researchers to consider the role of conversation in the development of L2. Their work was followed by pioneering work of Long (1980, as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2000) who refined the notion of conversational structure, showing (at least quantitative) differences between NS/NNS conversations and NS/NS conversations. He proposed that there was more than just simple NS modification to consider; in addition, one needed to look at the interactional structure itself. When compared with interactional structures of NS/NS conversations, NS/NNS conversations showed a greater amount of interactional modification.

### **1.2.2. Function of Interaction: Interaction Hypothesis**

The line of research that focuses on the interactional structure of conversation was developed in the following years by many researchers ( Gass and Varonis, 1985, 1989; Long, 1981, as cited in Savill-Troike, 2006). The emphasis is on the role which negotiated interaction between native and non-native speakers and between two NNSs plays in the development of a second language. That early body of research as well as more recent work has taken as basic the notion that conversation is not only a medium of practice, but also the means by which learning takes place. In other words, conversational interaction in L2 forms the basis for the development of language rather than being only a forum for practice of specific language features. This has been most recently expressed by Long (1996, as cited in Gass, 2005, p. 183) as the Interaction Hypothesis: “Negotiation of meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent

interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways.”

What is intended is that through focused negotiation work, the learner's attentional resources may be oriented to (i) a particular discrepancy between what she or he “knows” about the L2 and what is reality vis-a-vis the target language, or (ii) an area of the L2 about which the learner has little or no information. Learning may take place “during” the interaction, or negotiation may be an initial step in learning; it may serve as a priming device, thereby representing the setting of the stage for learning, rather than being a forum for actual learning. (Gass, 1997, as cited in Byram, 2000).

### **1.3. Role of Output**

The output plays an important role in learning the language. It has lot of functions to begin with, it is a source of enhancing learners' fluency.

#### **1.3.1. Output as a Source of Enhancing Learners' Fluency**

The first function of producing the target language is a rather straightforward, non-controversial one. Output, in the sense of practicing, enhances L2 learners' fluency. It automatizes knowledge of comprehended L2 rules and structures.

Several second language acquisition (SLA) researchers discussed the importance of automaticity and enhancing fluency in language learning. Anderson (1993) argues that skills are initially learned as a body of declarative knowledge (‘knowing that’) which is transformed into procedural knowledge (‘knowing how’) through practice, and then automatized through further practice. Similarly, they argue that systematic practice of specific rules plays a significant role in L2 learning. In particular, they argue that in order to automatize comprehension skills, a learner needs practice in comprehension; and to acquire automaticity in production, he/she needs practice in production. In this sense, output plays a significant

role in increasing learners' fluency in the L2.

Richards, Platt and Webber (1985, pp. 107-108) provide a summary for the importance of output in achieving fluency in communication in that it enables learners:

(a) to produce written and/or spoken language with ease,

(b) to speak with a good command of intonation, vocabulary, and grammar,

(c) to communicate ideas effectively, and

(d) to produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown of communication.

### **1.3.2. Output as a Source of Generating Feedback**

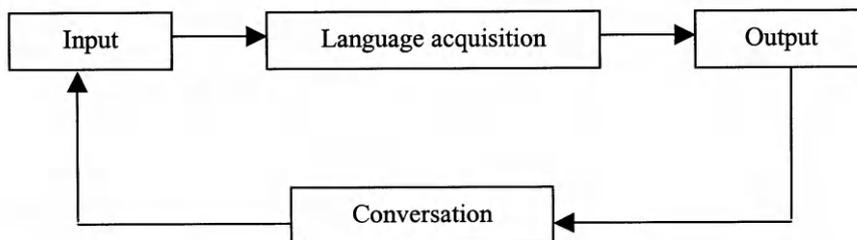
It is well-established that learner output provides opportunities for correcting learner errors and generating more comprehensible input via feedback. At the same time, learner output that contains incomprehensible or incorrect/inaccurate structures or rules generates negative evidence or corrective feedback, such as explicit corrections and recasts, that enables the learner to replace the incorrect hypotheses and assumptions about the TL structures and rules with the correct ones. White (1992), for instance, argues that negative evidence to the learner's output that contains non-target like utterances or structures triggers the resetting of parameters to their L2 values. Similarly, Krashen (1882, as cited in Gass, 2005, p. 178) argues that output provides a domain for error correction. He states that:

“When a second language user speaks or writes, he or she may make an error. When this error is corrected, this ...helps the learner change his or her conscious mental representation of the rule or alter the environment of rule application”.

In such cases, learner hypotheses and assumptions about the TL are revised (rejected or

adjusted/modified) in the light of the new input provided in response to the learner’s output. From this perspective, the contribution of output to L2 learning is an indirect one. For example, Long (1990, as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2000) argues that verbal exchange of information gives NNS the opportunity to produce language. Language production provides feedback on learners’ comprehension which results in negotiated modification of conversation and this, in turn, leads to the provision of comprehensible input.

Krashen (1982, as cited in Patten & Lee, 1990, p. 60) too argues that learner output provides a further source of comprehensible input indirectly by inviting more input from speech partners: “The more you talk, the more people will talk to you. Actual speaking on the part of the language acquirer will thus affect the quantity of the input people direct at you.” Krashen proposed the following model (Fig. 1) which shows how output contributes to L2 learning. The model illustrates the indirect contribution output can make to language learning.



**Fig1: Indirect Contribution of Output to L2**

Krashen ( 1982, as cited in Byram, 2000, p. 61) explains this contribution of learner output as follows: “Comprehensible input is responsible for progress in language acquisition. Output is possible as a result of acquired competence. When performers speak, they encourage input.

Altogether, learner output is seen here as a sign of learning that has taken place or a sign of acquired/learned competence, serving as a source of feedback for further comprehensible input which learners will use in their subsequent production of the L2.

Indeed, until the early 1990s, this has been the standard view of most theoretical positions which have maintained, in one way or another, that SLA is the result of exposure to comprehensible input. Most of these researchers have looked at L2 learners' comprehension ability and performance ability and concluded that learning and communication strategies, exchange of information strategies, interaction, input, simplified input, output and feedback facilitate SLA by providing comprehensible input. Krashen(1985, as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2000, p. 200) even claimed that comprehensible input is the only “causative factor” for SLA.

### **1.3.3. Output as a Source of Internalizing Linguistic knowledge**

Several SLA scholars have pointed out that most existing views and positions have favored the role of comprehension (input) while de-emphasizing at the same time the importance of production, or learner output (e.g., Pica,1981; Swain, 1985, as cited in Andrews, 2007). These researchers drew attention to the value of the L2 learner's production in the SLA process and development. In a seminal paper, Swain (1995) in particular, argued that comprehensible input is not sufficient for successful SLA, but that opportunities for NNSs to produce comprehensible output are also necessary. She based her conclusions on findings from studies she conducted in immersion contexts in Canada. Swain found that although immersion students were provided with a rich source of comprehensible input over a period of 8 years, their interlanguage performance was still off-target; that is, they were clearly identifiable as non-native speakers or writers. In particular, Swain found that the expressive performance of these students was far weaker than that of same-aged (NSs) of French. For example, they evidenced less knowledge and control of complex grammar, less precision in their overall use of vocabulary and morphosyntax, and lower accuracy in pronunciation.

Swain (1995, p. 249) argued that the interlanguage performance of these students was still off-target because they lacked opportunities for output in two ways: “First, the students are simply not given - especially in later grades - adequate opportunities to use the target language in the classroom context. Second, they are not being ‘pushed’ in their output.” Swain goes on to say that “There appears to be little social or cognitive pressure to produce language that reflects more appropriately or precisely their intended meaning: there is no push to be more comprehensible than they already are” (p. 249). In other words, what immersion students needed was not just comprehensible input, but also opportunities for comprehensible output in order to be both fluent and accurate in the L2. Thus, Swain claimed that understanding TL utterances is not enough and that learners must also be given the opportunity to produce them. Swain (1995, p. 252), therefore, doubted that interactions and comprehensible input on their own are sufficient for SLA:

“Conversational exchanges...are not themselves the source of acquisition derived from comprehensible input. Rather they are the source of acquisition derived from comprehensible output: output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired” .

Swain (1995) proposed a hypothesis relating to the L2 learner’s production comparable to Krashen’s comprehensible input hypothesis, arguing that the role of learner production of comprehensible output is independent in many ways of the role of comprehensible input. She termed this the “comprehensible output hypothesis” for SLA (p. 249). The basic premise of the comprehensible output hypothesis postulates that producing the L2, especially when learners experience difficulties in communicating their intended messages successfully, ‘pushes’ learners to make their output more precise, coherent and appropriate, and that this process is argued to contribute to SLA. By the same token, Swain (1995) posited that output “may be the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed

in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning” (p. 249). Swain acknowledged the role of comprehensible input in SLA, but argued that comprehensible output is also necessary because it aids SLA in many ways: “Its role is, at minimum, to provide opportunities for contextualized, meaningful use, to test out hypotheses about the target language, and to move the learner from a purely semantic analysis of the language to a syntactic analysis of it (p. 252).

As will be demonstrated below, research and theory on the role of output have become more prevalent and significant in the last 10 years or so. Swain (1995, 12), refining the comprehensible output hypothesis, proposed three different functions of output in SLA: it promotes noticing, it serves as a metalinguistic function for language learners, and it serves the second language learning process through hypothesis testing. These functions, their research findings, and the way in which they are argued to be implicated in L2 learning will be illustrated below.

### **1.3.3.1 Noticing/Consciousness-Raising Function of Output**

Swain (1995) argues that while attempting to produce the L2, learners may notice a gap (a hole) in their output between what they want to say and what they can say. Production stimulates noticing because it raises learners’ awareness of gaps in their interlanguage system. This noticing prompts learners to recognize some of their linguistic limitations, pushing them to reprocess and modify their output toward comprehensibility. Swain (1995) argues that when learners reprocess and modify their current performance to make it more enhanced, they are engaged in mental processes that are part of the process of language learning.

Several studies examined the noticing function of output in L2 learning. These studies have consistently demonstrated that the activity of producing the L2 is a mechanism that enables learners to notice a gap in their existing IL performance. This noticing ‘pushes’ them

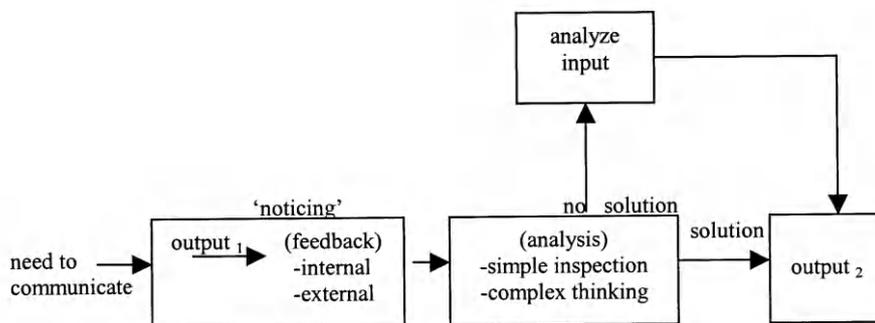
to consciously reprocess their performance in order to produce modified output. This process, it was argued, triggers mental processes that may be implicated in language learning.

For instance, Swain and Lapkin (1995) conducted an introspection study in which they tried to shed more focused light on the processes and mechanisms that L2 learners follow to reprocess and modify their IL utterances. The researchers sought “to try to arrive at the mental processes.... reflected in the changes students made to their output” (p. 381). They examined the ability of 18 grade 8 immersion students learning French to consciously reprocess their IL output without any sort of external feedback when faced with a performance problem. The task given to the students was to write a report on some environmental problem. The students were instructed to think aloud while writing, and especially when they were faced with a problem.

Swain and Lapkin (1995) found that there were 190 occasions in which students encountered a linguistic problem in their output. In each case the students forced themselves to modify their output toward greater message comprehensibility. That is, communicative needs forced students to move from semantic to syntactic analysis of the TL. Swain and Lapkin (1995, p. 384) argued that “on each occasion, the students engaged in mental processing that may have generated linguistic knowledge that is new for the learner, or consolidated existing knowledge.” In other words, it was argued that in the process of modifying their interlanguage utterances in the direction of greater comprehensibility, L2 learners were engaged in some restructuring of system which affected their access to the knowledge base, and that this restructuring process was part of second language learning.

Thus, Swain and Lapkin’s (1995) study has shown that when learners produce the L2, they notice a gap in their existing IL knowledge, brought to their attention by external feedback or internal feedback. This noticing pushes these learners to consciously reprocess

their performance to produce modified output. Swain and Lapkin (1995) proposed the following model (Fig. 2) that represents an illustration of second language learning from an output perspective.



**Fig. 2. Output and Second Language Learning (from Swain and Lapkin(1995, p. 388)).**

Swain and Lapkin (1995) argued that "what goes on between the first output and the second .... is part of the process of second language learning" (p. 386). They further argued that the noticing of a gap activates mental processes that lead to the production of modified, or reprocessed output, concluding that "...‘pushing’ learners beyond their current performance level can lead to enhanced performance, a step which may represent the internalization of new linguistic knowledge, or the consolidation of existing knowledge" (p. 374).

### 1.3.3.2. Metalinguistic/Reflective Function of Output

The metalinguistic or the conscious reflection function of output in L2 learning constitutes learners’ reflection on their own TL use. Such reflection enables learners to make explicit the hypotheses that underlie their language use. Research has shown that producing language and reflecting on it to convey meaning coherently and appropriately has a positive effect on L2 learning. For instance, Swain (1995) demonstrated that verbalization helps learners to solve linguistic problems through reflection on them, or metalinguistic talk.

Specifically, she found that production enabled learners to notice problems in their IL system, prompting them to reflect consciously on the language they are producing and negotiate collaboratively about TL forms and structures until a satisfactory resolution was reached.

Swain (1995) cited evidence from previous studies which used language-related episodes as an analytic tool to argue that the solutions reached during the dialogues were actually retained in the students' IL. In particular, Swain discussed the study conducted by LaPierre (1994). LaPierre collected data from 48 students from 2 grade 8 classes of an early French immersion program. The 48 students were divided into two groups: a metalinguistic (M) group and consisted of 26 students, and a comparison (C) group and consisted of 22 students. A dictogloss passage (*dictogloss* is a procedure that encourages learners to reflect on their own output) was read aloud twice to the students. In the first reading, students only listened to the passage. In the second reading, they were encouraged to take notes of familiar words and phrases in order to help them reconstruct the passage. Following this, students worked in pairs for about 25 minutes to reconstruct the passage as closely to the original as possible. Data were collected in session 3, sessions 1 and 2 being the modeling and practicing sessions, respectively.

The difference in condition between the two groups was in what the teacher and the researcher said to each other as they reconstructed the text during the modeling session. The metalinguistic talk, or metatalk in Swain's (1995, p. 68) words, that was modeled for the M group included the provision of rules and metalinguistic terminology. The goal was to give the students a way of seeing how to deploy explicit linguistic knowledge to solve a linguistic problem caused by a 'hole' in their IL. The metatalk that was modeled for the C group, on the other hand, did not make use of rules or metalinguistic terminology. The goal here was just to draw students' attention to grammatical form without invoking explicit rules. In this sense,

the students were not provided with a demonstration of how to solve an encountered linguistic problem.

To determine if the solutions reached during the dialogue were retained in the students' interlanguage, a dyad-specific posttest one week later was administered. The results revealed that there was a strong tendency for students to 'stick with' the knowledge they had constructed collaboratively the previous week. Students' responses on the posttest showed a 70 to 80 per cent correspondence with the solutions – right or wrong – that they arrived at in their dialogues. Swain (1995) interpreted these results as a strong indicator that the students' dialogues mediated the construction of linguistic knowledge. Swain argued that these results show that there is a relationship between metalinguistic talk and L2 learning such that metalinguistic talk supports L2 learning and that it is evidence of learning at work. She stated that "These results suggest rather forcefully that these LREs, during which students reflect consciously on the language they are producing, may be a source of language learning" (Swain, 2005, as cited in Savill-Troike, 2006, p. 79). She concluded that "as learners reflect on their own target language use, their output serves a metalinguistic function, enabling them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge". (p. 80)

### **1.3.3.3. Hypothesis Testing Function of Output**

It is well established from interlanguage research that learner output (spoken or written) reveals hypotheses held by the learner about how the TL works (e.g., Ellis 2009 ). To test a hypothesis, the learner needs *to do* something, and one way of doing this is to say or write something in the TL. Producing output is one way of testing out hypotheses about comprehensibility or linguistic well-formedness. Similarly, learners may use their output as a way of trying out new language forms and structures just to see what works and what does not. For example, Swain (1995, p. 126), citing evidence from interlanguage research, stated

that:

“A considerable body of research and theorizing over the last two decades has suggested that output, particularly erroneous output, can often be an indication that a learner has formulated a hypothesis about how the [target] language works, and is testing it out.”

There is preliminary evidence to suggest that there is a relationship between learner output, hypothesis testing and internalizing linguistic knowledge. For example, Shehadeh (2003) investigated how often learners test out hypotheses about the TL, the extent to which learner hypothesis testing attempts result in well-formed or ill-formed output, and the extent to which learner hypotheses that result in non-target like output go unchallenged by interlocutors. The researcher collected data from 16 participants, 8 NSs and 8 NNSs of English, forming 8 NS-NNS dyads using a picture-description task. The data were analyzed and examined specifically for hypothesis testing episodes by NNSs.

The results showed that NNSs tested out one hypothesis about the L2 every two minutes on average. Furthermore, there was some evidence to suggest that learners tend to ‘stick with’ the outcome of their hypothesis testing attempts in their interlanguage, be it well-formed or ill-formed output, as demonstrated by their use of those same structures and rules subsequently in the discourse.(Shehadeh, 2003).

. These results were interpreted in that failing to provide negative evidence to learner output that exhibits native target like utterances may constitute a signal for the confirmation of these utterances from the perspective of the internal processing systems of the learner, which, in turn, constitutes a step toward internalizing linguistic knowledge. if future research confirmed that some linguistic knowledge is actually internalized in this way, it would be possible to argue then that learner output and the hypotheses that learners test out about the

TL forms and rules must be considered not just a sign of acquired knowledge, as claimed by Krashen ( 1984, as cited in Brown, 2007) , but also a sign of *learning at work*.

Overall, the current view of learner output is then that output is not just an indirect source of feedback for more comprehensible input or a means by which to practice one's language for greater fluency, but also that it plays a potentially important role in L2 learning. The importance of output in learning is that it is a means for learners' active deployment of their cognitive resources. That is, output presents learners with unique opportunities to process language more deeply in ways that may not be decisively necessary for comprehension. This is because producing TL serves as “the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning” (Swain, 1995, p. 249). Drawing learner attention to the means of expression, in turn, is a consciousness-raising activity for the learner which is argued to play an important role in internalizing linguistic knowledge and L2 learning as a whole.

## **1.4. Social Interaction : Sociocultural Theory**

### **1.4.1. Definition**

Sociocultural theory is an emerging theory that looks at the important contributions that society makes to the individual development. It describes learning as social process in which social interaction and culture play a fundamental role in the development of cognition.

Sociocultural theory grows from the work of the psychologist Lev Vygotsky. According to Vygotsky (1986, as cited in Walsh, 2006; Lantlof,2007; Gibbons,2007; Skehan,2007) individual development could not be understood without reference to the social and cultural context within which such development is embedded. Vygotsky believed that everything is learned on two levels. First, through interaction with others, and then integrated into the

individuals' mental structure. In other words, learning occurs in the first instance through interaction with others, who are more experienced and in a position to guide and support the actions of the novice. During this part of the process, language is used as symbolic tool to clarify and make sense of new knowledge (interpsychological). Then, new ideas are internalized. Learners use language to comment on what they have learned (intrapsychological). There two aspects to the sociocultural theory: the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and Scaffolding. To begin with, we will examine the ZPD .

### **1.4.2. Zone of Proximal Development**

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is a central construct within the sociocultural theory, formulated by Lev Vygotsky in 1978. Vygotsky (1978, cited in Tomic & Kingma, 2006, p. 20) defined ZPD as: “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers”.

On the light of Vygotsky's quotation, ZPD represents the difference between what the individual can learn independently and what he/she can do when provided with guidance or in collaboration with more competent peers. Lantolf (2000, p.17), on the other hand, offers his own definition of ZPD as “The collaborative construction of opportunities [...] for individuals to develop their mental abilities”. A number of key terms emerge from the work of Vygotsky and Lantolf, including ‘collaboration’, ‘construction’, ‘opportunities’, ‘development’. Other writers use a similar terminology: Van Lier (2004, p.252), for example, refers to opportunities for learning as ‘affordances’, while Swain and Lapkin (1998, as cited in Walsh, 2006, p. 36) talk about ‘occasions for learning’. Ohta (2001, as cited in Walsh, 2006, p. 34) talks about learners “... level of potential development as determined through language produced

collaboratively with a teacher or peer”. As a construct in the present context, the value of the ZPD lies in its potential for enabling consideration of the ‘give and take’ in the teaching/ learning process. The ‘collaborative construction’ of opportunities for learning is examined through the ways in which teachers and learners collectively construct meaning in L2 classroom interaction.

### **1.4.3.Scaffolding**

In SLA research, scaffolding has been connected to Vigotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development. As it has been mentioned before, ZPD represents the area of potential development, where the learner can achieve that potential only with assistance. This assistance is called Scaffolding, a metaphor for the particular kinds of support that enable learners to successfully carry out a task , that alone they would be unable to complete. Gibbons (2007, pp.112-113) defines Scaffolding as “verbal guidance which an expert provides to help a learner perform any specific task, or the verbal collaboration of peers to perform a task individually”. For Saville-Troike (2006, p. 10), Scaffolding describes “the processes of support that are needed to allow a learner to reach the next stage in his/ her learning. This process is like a series of steps that help the learner reach the required level.”

As a matter of fact, the nature of Scaffolding involves not simply “ help to do” but help to know how to do”. In the classroom Scaffolding is “ the temporary but essential assistance that helps teachers apprentice learner into new skills, concepts, or levels of understanding ( Gibbons, 2007, p. 703). That is to say, the teacher provides support and guidance while he engages with learners in a collaborative problem-solving and gradually withdraws as the learners become increasingly independent, solving problems for themselves and acquiring new knowledge. Therefore, the amount of Scaffolding provided to the learners lies with the teacher responsibility. To say otherwise, in the classroom context, teachers make decisions in

the interactional dynamics of moment by moment interactive decisions in their classroom context. Such decisions as to provide or withdraw scaffolds, Walsh (2006, p. 36) argues, require teacher's awareness in taking right decisions in order to promote learning opportunities, "Deciding to intervene or withdraw in the moment by moment construction of classroom interaction requires great sensibility and awareness on the part of the teacher". Ellis (1998, as cited in Cummins & Davison, 2007, p. 97) suggests that teachers offer their learners a sense of controlling the discourse so that they can detect their learners problems and accordingly, offer the appropriate Scaffolding to help the learner acquire new skills. To quote Ellis:

" It provides the teacher with information regarding what learners are capable of saying on their own. This helps the teacher to identify what speech forms may lie within the learner's zone of proximal development and provides a basis for determining the kind of scaffolding needed to assist the learner to use and subsequently internalize more complex language".

According to Donato (1997, as cited in Walsh, 2006), the process of Scaffolding has six main features: recruiting interest in the task; simplifying the task; maintaining pursuit of the goal; marking differences between what has been produced and the ideal solution; controlling frustrations during problem-solving and demonstrating an idealized version of the act to be performed.

## **Conclusion**

In this chapter we presented a critical review of the place of interactionist theories of second language acquisition. In the final part of the chapter, a second strand to the theoretical framework for language learning was presented in the shape of socio-cultural theories of education and learning. The main message is that interaction is fundamental to language

acquisition in which the teacher plays a crucial role. In the second chapter, we will examine the different patterns of classroom interaction and the different approaches for analyzing classroom interaction.



## CHAPTER TWO: CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Introduction.....	25
2.1. Classroom Discourse:.....	25
2.1.1. Teacher Talk.....	26
2.2. Features of Classroom Discourse: Patterns of Teacher Talk.....	27
2.2.1. Control of Patterns of Communication.....	27
2.2.2. Elicitation Techniques.....	30
2.2.3. Modifying Speech to Learners.....	33
2.2.4. Feedback.....	35
2.3. Approaches for Analyzing Classroom Discourse:.....	38
2.3.1. Interaction Analysis Approaches.....	38
2.3.2. Discourse Analysis Approaches.....	43
2.3.3. Conversation Analysis Approaches.....	46
2.3.4. A Variable Approach.....	49
Conclusion.....	50

## CHAPTER TWO: CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

### Introduction

Within the field of SLA research, classroom-centered research has emerged as an important and productive kind of SLA research which attempts to investigate the nature of classroom discourse. This kind of research is motivated by an attempt to look at the classroom as a setting for classroom language acquisition and learning in terms of the language provided by the teacher's talk. In this chapter, we will shed light on the importance of analyzing classroom discourse, emphasizing TT. We will examine the different patterns of TT and their impact on the learner's involvement. At the end, we will explore the different approaches for analyzing classroom discourse.

### 2.1. Classroom Discourse

#### 2.1.1. Definition of Teacher Talk

For TL learners, classroom is the main place where they are frequently exposed to the target language. The kind of language used by the teacher for instruction in the classroom is known as TT. For this term, it is defined in Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics as:

“that variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching. In trying to communicate with learners, teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of foreigner talk and other simplified styles of speech addressed to language learners” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 471).

Having studied the SLA for many years, Ellis (1985, p. 145) has formulated his own view about teacher talk:

“Teacher talk is the special language that teachers use when addressing L2 learners in the classroom. There is systematic simplification of the formal properties of the teacher’s language... studies of teacher talk can be divided into those that investigate the type of language that teachers use in language classrooms and those that investigate in the type of language they use in subject lessons.”

He also commented the language that teachers address to L2 learner is treated as a register, with its own specific formal and linguistics properties.

In this research, it is the oral form of TT instead of written form that is under this investigation. It refers to the language that teachers use in language classrooms rather than in other settings. From the definitions, firstly we can see that teacher talk in English classrooms is regarded as one special variety of the English language, so it has its own specific features which other varieties do not share. Because of the restriction of the physical setting, special participants as well as the goal of teaching, TT has its own special style. Secondly, we can see that TT is a special communicative activity. Its goal is to communicate with students and develops students’ FL proficiency.

TT is used in class when teachers are conducting instructions, cultivating their intellectual ability and managing classroom activities. Teachers adopt the target language to promote their communication with learners. In this way, learners practice the language by responding to what their teacher says. Besides, teachers use the language to encourage communication between learners and themselves. Therefore we can say teacher talk is a kind of communication-based or interaction-based talk.

Now we examine the features of teacher talk and its impact on learning opportunity.

## 2.2. Features of Classroom Discourse: Patterns of TT

We will examine features of classroom discourse from the teacher's perspective in which we shed light on the interactional features of TT, starting with control of patterns of communications.

### 2.2.1. Control of Patterns of Communications: the IRF/V Exchange

The most commonly observed discourse pattern in the FL/ SL classroom is the ubiquitous presence of the Initiation-Response-Feedback/Evaluation (IRF/IRE) exchange. It is a three-part pattern representing sequences of discourse moves, where "I" is initiation move by the teacher (usually a question designed for the learner to display knowledge), "R" is a learner response and "E/F" is an evaluation or feedback move from the teacher, as it is illustrated (Rymes, 2008) below:

#### **Extract 1:**

**Initiation:** Teacher: what time is it?

**Response:** Jackson: one thirty.

**Evaluation:** Teacher: very good Jackson.

Within the IRF structure, turn-taking –most of the time, in traditional, teacher centered sequences- is organized by the teacher, who controls most of communication patterns. (Walsh, 2006). In fact, the teacher does most of the talking and asks most of the questions. As illustrated in Extract1, for every move by the learner, the teacher makes two. Chaudron (1988) points out that teacher talk represents approximately two-thirds of classroom speech. Supporting Chaudron, Nunan(1989) claims that TT is for up to 89 per cent of the available

time, while Wells (1999, as cited in Thornbury, 2002) cites a figure of 70 percent of all teacher- learner talk as being of the IRF type.

There has been considerable concern expressed about this framed IRF pattern from a number of different perspectives. Van Lier (1996) argues that, in such exchanges, the learner's response is hemmed in between a demand from the teacher to respond and a judgment on the appropriateness of the response. That is to say, the learner is held in the teacher's web of power. The third move, when realized as an evaluation, can close down the exchange, preventing further reflection on the topic. Moreover, Kasper (2001 as cited in Walsh, 2006) goes on arguing that the IRF structure offers learners minimum interactional space. Gibbons (2007), supporting Kasper, states that IRF pattern may not provide many of the essential factors for language learning, such as extended student output and the negotiation of meaning which are, according to Swain (1995), not only an indicator of language learning, but the means by which learning occurs. In the same vein, Rymes (2008, p. 164) emphasizes a more generative feedback turn in which the third turn does not conclude the sequence, but provides feedback for ongoing interaction, and thus, a more learning opportunity:

“Through the use of this slightly augmented third turn, a teacher does not simply supply a closed-ended evaluation, but a scaffold for students' ongoing participation. This kind of Feedback turn can change simple praise (evaluation) into an opportunity for more involved talk”

Rymes (2008, p. 164) provides the following example as an illustration:

EVALUATION		FEEDBACK
Your pictures are great	...could instead be formulated as...	Your pictures helped me to enjoy your story. How did you think to include the little anchor?

Furthermore, Clifton (2006, pp. 18-19) states that in the case of a teacher- fronted classroom, the student through the use of IRF pattern is disempowered, as the teacher controls who says what to whom and when denying the student responsibility for directing the course of the lesson:

“Firstly, by responding to the teacher’s question, the student’s answer is dependent on conditions that have already been defined by the teacher. Thus the topic remains firmly in the teacher’s hand. Secondly, the student’s response is open to evaluation by the teacher’s access to the third turn in the sequence...Thirdly, as Mchoul(op.cit) notes, students do not generally nominate next speaker unless it is the teacher.....teachers are free to select the next speaker”.

The Extract2 from (Walsh 2006, p .7 ) supports Clifton’s quotation for being fairly representative of a piece of classroom discourse characterized by the predominance of IRF structure, in which the teacher controls the topic of conversation(Turn 1), selects who may talk (Turn 1), selects another speaker ( Turn7), evaluates the learner’s performance ( Turn 3,5,7)

**Extract 2:**

1 I T ok Erica could you explain something about law and order in Japan what

happens if you commit a crime?

2 R L1 almost same as Britain policeman come to take somebody to police station

3 F T yes

4 R L1 and prisoner questioned and if he is (5 seconds unintelligible)

5 F/I T yes what's the verb Eric Erica...if she or he yes [commits a crime]they go to

6 R L1 they go to court yes but if they didn't do that they can go home

7 F/I T they can go home(...) very good indeed right what happens in Brazil.

In the light of such findings, we reach the conclusion that IRF/IRV pattern may affect learning opportunities. Hence, teachers should be aware of their language use in shaping their classroom interaction and their learners' participation as well. The second feature to be examined that characterized FL/L2 classroom and anchors the IRF sequence is the use of questions or elicitation techniques.

### **2.2.2. Elicitation Techniques: Questioning**

Questioning is one of the most frequently used technique in FL classes, playing a crucial role in the process of language learning. In fact, questions stimulate and maintain learners' interest, enable teachers to check learners' understanding as well as to elicit particular structure or vocabulary, and encourage learners' participation. Banbrook and Skehan (1981, as cited Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 180) state: "They can be used to allow the learner to keep participating in the discourse and even modify it so that the language used becomes more comprehensible and personally relevant".

The study of teacher's questions and questioning behaviour has been an important issue in classroom research in both first and L2 classrooms. One common distinction was made

between question types as display questions and referential questions (Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Thornbury, 2002; Walsh, 2006). The former refers to a question which is not a real question. That is to say, it does not seek information unknown to the teacher, but rather elicits language practice by prompting learners display information already known to the teacher.

E.g.: T: Is this a book?

L: yes it is.

On the other hand, referential question is a genuine- information-seeking question to which the teacher does not know the answer.

E.g.: T: How are you going to continue this story? Or

T: what is your favorite movie?

According to Long and Sato (1983, as cited in Thornbury, 2002), 79 percent of teacher-learner questions were display questions. The majority of questions asked by the teacher are questions to which he knows the answer, providing little space to referential questions which are more likely to produce “natural responses”. Brook (1986, as cited in Thorbury, 2002, p. 100) examined the effect of teachers to ask a greater number of referential questions and reached the conclusion that: “Such questions may be an important tool in the language classroom, especially in those contexts in which the classroom provides learners with the only opportunity to produce the target language”.

Hence, the use of more referential question and fewer display questions has been suggested as one way to make classes more communicative. In the same vein, Clifton (2006, p.145) emphasizes the crucial role of referential questions in increasing learner’s linguistic output by providing them with opportunities to produce and practice the TL: “a further way of

encouraging learner output is the use of referential questions...the learner is encouraged to hold the floor, develop topic and so increase linguistic output.”

Rymes (2008, p.163) criticizes display questions as being “ guess what I’m thinking questions” which exclude learners’ own thoughts and experiences by simply making them decipher what the teacher thinks they should say. To quote Rymes: “Unfortunately, students who are habituated to typical known-answer questions embedded in the IRF sequence might come to see all questions as teacher-centered “guess what I’m thinking” questions and not questions about students’own thoughts and experiences”

Unlike the previous studies that focused on the distinction between display and referential questions, Walsh (2006) emphasizes the appropriateness of different question types according to the teacher pedagogical objective regardless whether the question is display or referential, as long as it serves its pedagogical objective at a particular stage in the lesson. To say otherwise, if the teacher’s objective is to check comprehension, then the choice of display question is appropriate, whereas a referential question would be needed if the aim is producing classroom discussion. Walsh (2006, p. 8) states:

“According to a teacher’s pedagogical goal, different question types are more or less appropriate: the extent to which a question produces a communicative response in less appropriate to the extent to which a question serves its purpose at a particular point in a lesson”.

Besides display/ referential distinction, another common distinction is made between convergent questions and divergent questions (Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Richards & Schmidt, 2002) in which the emphasis is more on the divergent question that provides more learning opportunities. To begin with, a convergent question encourages similar student responses, or responses which focus on central theme. These responses are often short

answers, such as “yes” or “no” or short statements. It does not usually require students to engage in high-level thinking in order to come up with responses, but often focuses on the recall of previously presented information.

E.g.: T: “what are the men wearing on their heads? Or

T: “ How many of you have personal computer?

T: “ Do you use it everyday?

On the other hand, a divergent question is the opposite of a convergent question. It encourages diverse students’ responses, which are not short answers, requiring students to engage in higher-level thinking. It encourages students to provide their own information rather than to recall previously presented information.

E.g. T: How have computers had an economic impact of society?

After we have closely examined the different questions and their impact on language learning, teachers should raise their awareness about the types of questions they ask and how the use of such questions can promote or stagnate learning opportunities. Now we move to explore another feature of TT which is modifying speech to learners.

### **2.2.3. Modifying Speech to Learners**

Another distinguishing feature of teacher talk is modifications of speech to learners. In fact, TT in the SL or FL classroom differs from speech in other contexts, commonly referred to as “foreigner talk”. Foreign language teachers make adjustments on their language use in order to make themselves as easy to understand as possible. Such adjustment, Krashen (1985, as cited in Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 184) argues, “is how teachers provide learners with comprehensible input...the essential ingredient for second language acquisition”

In order to modify their speech to learners, many strategies are adopted by teachers in so that to make their instructions understandable. Chaudron (1988) identified many strategies:

- Speaking more slowly: When teachers speak to language learners in the classroom, they often use a slower rate of speech than they would use in other situations.
- Using pauses: Teachers tend to pause more and to use longer pauses when teaching language learners, particularly lower-level students. These pauses give learners more time to process what the teacher has said and hence facilitate their comprehension.
- Changing pronunciation: Teachers may sometimes use a clearer articulation or a more standard style of speech, one which contains fewer reductions and contractions than they would use outside of a teaching situation. For example, instead of saying, "Couldja read that line, Juan?" the teacher might more carefully enunciate "Could you . . . ?"
- Modifying vocabulary: Teachers often replace a difficult word with what they think is a more commonly used word. For example, the teacher might ask, "What do you think this picture shows?" instead of "What do you think this picture depicts?" However, teachers sometimes unwittingly "complicate" vocabulary instead of simplifying it. For example, teachers might say, "What do you think this picture is about"? Supplying an idiomatic (but not necessarily simpler) replacement for depicts.
- Modifying grammar: Language teachers often simplify the grammatical structure of sentences in the classroom. For example, teachers may use fewer subordinate clauses in a classroom situation than in other contexts, or avoid using complex tenses.
- Modifying discourse: Teachers may repeat themselves or answer their own questions in order to make themselves understood.

Besides Chaudron, Tardif( 1994, as cited in Walsh, 2006) found that language teachers use five strategies in modifying their discourse: starting with self- repetition, moving on to linguistic modelling, providing information, expanding an utterance and using extensive

elicitation, where questions are graded and adjusted. Each of these has its own particular role to play in the discourse and is used more or less strategically according to desired outcomes.

Like Tardif above, Lynch (1996) identified a number of ways in which teachers modify their interaction. They include confirmation checks, whereby teachers make sure they understand the learner; comprehension checks, ensuring that learners understand the teacher; repetition; clarification requests, asking students for clarification; reformulation, rephrasing a learner's utterance; completion, finishing a learner's contribution; backtracking, returning to an earlier part of a dialogue. The interactional features identified by Lynch are essentially descriptors of teacher talk given by an outside observer/researcher Walsh (2006, p.13) emphasized teachers' awareness about modification strategies. To quote Walsh:

“Their real value to learning can be appreciated when they become interactional strategies, used consciously and deliberately to bring about intended learning outcomes. Sensitizing teachers to the purposeful use of interactional strategies to facilitate learning opportunities in relation to intended pedagogic goals is, arguably, central to the process of SLA.”

#### **2.2.4. Teacher's Feedback**

Providing feedback to learners on their performance is another important aspect of teaching. Feedback is teachers' evaluation of the student response (Cook, 2000). Feedback can be either positive or negative and may serve not only to let learners know how well they have performed but also to increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate. In language classrooms, feedback on a student's spoken language may be a response either to the content of what a student has produced (content feedback) or to the form of an utterance (form-focused feedback). Feedback can be given by means of praise, by any relevant comment or action, or by silence (Richards, J. & Lockhart, 1996). Weinstein (1989) found that children learned how 'smart' they were mainly from teacher's feedback in the form of

marks, comments, and the degree and type of praise and criticism. Children report differences in the frequencies of teacher interactions with different types of learners, with high achievers seen as receiving more positive feedback from the teacher, as well as being given more opportunities to perform, to be challenged and to serve as leaders. By contrast, low achievers are reported to receive more negative feedback, more direction, and help giving as well.

Wheldall and Merrett (1987) cite a large number of studies showing that rewards such as praise are far more effective than punishment. The evidence on punishments tends to reveal that not only are they ineffective in bringing about positive change, but they can often have the opposite effect. Therefore, they have even built an approach to teaching based on this Principle which they term 'Positive Teaching' and which they claim to be highly effective (Wheldall and Merrett, 1987). Most theorists and practitioners agree that favorable feedback about performance has a positive effect on subsequent performance. Knowledge of poor results for some learners could be devastating, so we should try to strike at the right level with each child to ensure high success rates.

Nevertheless, we should avoid the fallacy of trying to pretend that a learner's performance is good when it is not. This only leads to low personal standards. By insisting on realistic goals and thus ensuring some measure of success for each child, we are increasing the likelihood of reinforcement.

Therefore, teachers' feedback plays a significant part in an individual's motivation. Besides, it should be emphasized here that the potentially negative effects of rewards and praise are more likely to occur when extrinsic motivators are superfluous and unnecessary.

Feedback has another distinguishable component: Correction or repair. Inevitably learners will make mistakes in the process of learning. "A learner's errors... are significant in (that) they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the

language (Brown, 2002, p. 205). It is a vital part of the teacher's role to point out students' mistakes and provide correction. In correction, some specific information is provided on aspects of the learners' performance, through explanation, or provision of better or other alternatives, or through elicitation of these from the learner.

Correction helps students to clarify their understanding of meaning and construction of the language. One of the crucial issues is how correction is expressed: gently or assertively, supportively or as a condemnation, tactfully or rudely. Ur (2000) points out that we should go for encouraging, tactful correction. The learner has reliable intuitive knowledge about what kind of correction helps most, that is, learner preferences are on the whole a reliable guide. So teachers have to be careful when correcting, if teachers do it in an insensitive way, the students will feel upset and lose their confidence. What kind of correction teachers think is best and learners find most useful? A good deal of teacher sensitivity is needed here.

Generally, the teachers always adopt the following techniques to correct students' errors (Ur, 2000:249):

- 1) Does not react at all.
- 2) Indicates there is a mistake, but does not provide any further information about what is wrong.
- 3) Says what was wrong and provides a model of the acceptable version. That is - explicit correction.
- 4) Indicates something was wrong, elicits acceptable version from the learner who made the mistake (Self-repair).
- 5) Indicates something was wrong, elicits acceptable version from another member of the class.
- 6) Ask the learner who made the mistake to reproduce the corrected version.
- 7) Provides or elicits an explanation of why the mistake was made and how to avoid it.

Furthermore, it is worth pointing out that it is just as important to praise students for their success, as it is to correct them when they fail. Teachers can show their positive feedback through the use of encouraging words and noises ('good', 'well done', 'fantastic', 'mmm,' etc.) when students are doing really well (Harmer, 2000).

Besides positive feedback and repair, another strategy adopted by teachers in providing their learners with feedback is repetition of learner' utterance or what is called "teacher echo". In fact, teacher echo referred to

After we have examined features of classroom discourse from the teachers' perspective, we move to the different approaches for analyzing classroom interaction.

### **2.3. Approaches to Analyzing Classroom Discourse**

There exist a host of approaches designed with view to investigating interaction in the L2/ FL classroom. These approaches, namely, interaction analysis, discourse analysis, conversation analysis and variable approaches are aimed at gaining understanding of the interactive processes at work in the second/ foreign language classroom. Walsh (2006, p. 39) points out that any understanding of classroom interactional architecture requires "selection and mastery of particular tool."

#### **2.3.1. Interaction Analysis Approaches**

Interaction analysis approaches are quantitative approaches that used some type of observation instruments, or coding systems, to investigate the communication patterns that occur in the classroom. According to Brown and Rogers( 2002, as cited in Lee McKay, 2009), there are over 200 different coding systems for analysing the second/ foreign language classroom. Some systems are very comprehensive attempting to account for all the

communication patterns that occur in the classroom. Others are limited, developed in reference to a specific classroom activity, such as student- teacher conferences or group work.

However, there is a consensus on the main features of observation instruments. First, they use some system of ticking boxes, making marks, recording what the observer sees. In some coding systems, the observer codes a behavior every time it occurs, whereas in others, they code only what is happening at a regular time intervals. (E.g. every 30 seconds or every minute). Moreover, in some systems, more than one code can be assigned to a particular behavior. As a case in point, a behavior could be coded by pedagogical function ( e.g. teacher praise) as well as modality( e.g. verbal or non verbal). McKay ( 2006, p.90) claims that such coding system, as they allow for multidimensional coding, they can also result in “ lower inter- rater reliability due to their complexity” .Finally, they have been used in teacher education programme, particularly for developing competencies and raising awreness. Some of them are to be examined beginning with Flander’s Interaction Analysis.

#### **2.3.1.1. Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC)**

Flanders original system of interaction analysis consisted of 10 categories as the following:



TEACHER TALK	INDIRECT INFLUENCE	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. ACCEPT FEELING: accepted and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings are included.</li> <li>2. PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES: praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or saying, “um hm?” or “go on” are included.</li> <li>3. ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENT: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As a teacher brings more of his own ideas on play, shift to category five.</li> <li>4. ASKS QUESTIONS: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answers.</li> </ol>
	DIRECT INFLUENCE	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5. LECTURING: giving facts or opinions about content or procedure: expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.</li> <li>6. GIVING DIRECTIONS: directions, commands, or orders to which a student is expected to comply.</li> <li>7. CRITICIZING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY: statements intended to change student behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing extreme self-reference .</li> </ol>
		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>8. STUDENT TALK-RESPONSE: a student makes a predictable response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement and sets limits to what the student says.</li> <li>9. STUDENT TALK-INITIATION: talk by students which they initiate. Unpredictable statements in response to</li> </ol>

	teacher. Shift from 8 to 9 as student introduces own ideas.
	10. SILENCE OR CONFUSION: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

**Table1: Interaction Analysis (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p.202)**

Flanders introduced the concepts “direct influence” and “indirect influence”, which are a measure of learner’s dependence. Direct influence consists of stating the teacher’s opinion or ideas, directing the learner’s action, criticizing behavior or justifying his authority or the use of it. Indirect influence, on the other hand, consists of soliciting learner’s ideas or behavior, applying or enlarging on those opinions or ideas, praising or encouraging participation of the learner, or clarifying or accepting his feelings.

Notwithstanding the effective categories the FIAC system embraces, Walsh (2006, p.42) argues, these are likely to be subjective, difficult to prove accurately, and biased heavily towards TT:

“ The FIAC system is clearly biased heavily towards teacher talk and suggests that that there are only two ways of classifying learner talk. The categories are rather broad and it is questionable whether the instrument could adequately account for the complex interactional organization of the contemporary classroom”

### **2.3.1.2. Moskowitz: Foreign Language Interaction Analysis System**

#### **(FLINT)**

In 1971, Moskowitz (cited in Walsh, 2006) extended Flanders FIAC system resulting in more sophisticated system than the original Flanders’s one. It encompassed a 22-category

system instrument devised specifically for FL classrooms. Wallace (1991, cited in Walsh, 2006) claims that the system is also more complex and users should master the Flanders's system before utilizing Moskowitz modified version. (see Appendix 1,p 123)

### **2.3.1.3. Frohlich and Spada (1984, 1995): Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)**

It is one of the most sophisticated, widely used coding systems designed by Allen, Frohlich, and Spada (1984). It aims to make “a connection between teaching methodology and language use”. That is to say, the instrument is directly linked to the communicative methodology, and its aim lies in determining the effect of instructional differences on learning outcome. Spada & Lyster (1997, p. 788) state:

“This instrument was developed in the early 1980's to describe differences in L2 learning outcomes. The categories included in COLT are, for the most part, theoretically driven. Their conceptualization was derived from a comprehensive review of theories of communicative language teaching, theories of communication and theories of first and second language acquisition (SLA) research”

A revised version of COLT was presented in 1995. It includes some minor changes from the earlier scheme. The scheme includes categories that dealt with the communicative feature of a classroom because of the widespread support of communicative language teaching prevailing at that time.

The scheme was devised into 2 parts. Part A describes classroom activities, while Part B analyses learner and teacher verbal interaction, describing the communicative features of exchange. (see index 2, p 124)

According to Walsh (2006, p. 43), the COLT instrument has also limitations. “It can only provide a partial picture of reality”. In other words, any pattern of interaction that occurs has to be matched to the categories provided. Thus, the results are predetermined and fail to account for the events which do not match the descriptive categories.

In the same vein, Seedhouse (1996, as cited in Walsh, 2006) makes the important point that coding systems fail to take account of context and evaluate all varieties of L2 classroom interaction from a single perspective and according to a single set of criteria. In addition to this, Rogers and Brown (2002, cited in Lee McKay, 2006) argue that the huge range of schemes available (over 200) means that exposure to one or two of these does not provide a good deal of insight into the range of schemes available. Moreover, the fact that there are so many instruments available makes it difficult to compare the results of existing studies. Furthermore, most of the instruments require considerable training to use.

As classroom interaction can be investigated by interaction analysis approaches, it can be investigated by using discourse analysis approaches.

### **2.3.2. Discourse Analysis Approaches**

The Discourse Analysis model (DA), also known as the Birmingham model or, at the level of exchange, the Initiation-Response-Follow-up structure (IRF), was developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) from research concerning the structural description of discourse found in the classroom. Since its original description in 1975, it has evolved and expanded to allow the application of less-structured discourse, through the works of Coulthard and Montgomery (1981), Sinclair and Brazil (1982), and Sinclair and Coulthard (1992). Other researchers have focused on aspects of the DA model, including the use of questions (Tsui 1992) and the function of intonation. (Coulthard and Brazil 1979, Brazil 1985, Hewings 1992).

From their research, Sinclair and Coulthard discovered that language in the classroom followed a very rigid sequence, and that speaking patterns were highly structured. Thus, in creating a structural description of discourse, speech acts found in the classroom could be defined according to their function, and therefore categorized. This advantage is expanded by Willis, “The distinctive feature of a structural description is that the elements in the description and their possible combinations must be rigorously defined.

This means that descriptions which are based on the same structural criteria are directly comparable.” (Willis 1992, cited in Andrews, 2007).

The ranking scale of the DA model contains 4 components. They are, in descending order of hierarchy: transaction, exchange, move and act. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, in their original model, included the all-encompassing fifth element of lesson, consisting of transactions, but have since dismissed it as being a “stylistic type,” dependant on subjective teaching types. There exists a structure in every rank (above the lowest) which can be expressed in terms of the units next below it. (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992, as cited in Burton, 2009)). Thus, the structure of transaction consists of units of exchanges, exchange units of moves, and move units of acts.

Most discourse research through the DA model is done at the level of exchange, comparably as grammar concentrates on the clause.. There exists two types of exchanges, Boundary and Teaching. Boundary exchanges mark an end or a beginning to a stage of the lesson, and can be implemented either with a framing move or a focusing move. Typical framing and focusing moves are indicated by acts such as ‘well’, ‘good’, ‘okay’, in addition to an extended pause, and/or comments by the teacher which summarize the preceding or following discourse. Teaching exchanges concern the actual progression of the lesson, and depending on the teacher’s intent, can be actualized through informing, directing, eliciting or

checking. There are eleven subcategories of teaching exchanges. Six are free exchanges and are defined by their function and by the type of head act in the initiating move. Whether the teacher or student initiates the exchange also affects categorization. The five remaining exchanges are bound exchanges, in that they normally contain no initiation and thus are bound to the previous exchange's function in some way.

Teaching exchanges consist of initiation moves (called the opening move in Sinclair and Coulthard's original model), response moves (the answering move), and follow-up moves. This three-move structure of an exchange (IRF) is commonly cited, and will be the basis of my data analysis. IRF structure is characteristic of teacher-led discourse, in which the teacher asks a question or provides information, the student responds or reacts, and the teacher provides some degree of comment or evaluation. As Brazil (1995, as cited in Bender, 2005).explains, "the teacher knows what he or she wants to tell the class but chooses to do it by setting up situations in which they are steered- more or less successfully- into telling it themselves." (p.22). This can be seen in the following example, taken from personal data:

Teacher: We have the fisherman. What is he saying to himself?

Student: He is saying... "I got it."

Teacher: Okay. Sure. He is saying, "I got it."

Moves are composed of acts, which are the smallest units in the DA model, and define the function of utterances made by the teacher and students. Sinclair and Coulthard list 22available acts, which will not be listed here due to space constraints. For example, in the preceding example, the teacher's initiation move consists of two acts, informative and elicit. The student's response move contains a reply act, while the teacher's follow-up move includes an accept, which indicates to the student that the response was appropriate, and an evaluate, which comments on the quality of the response. In this case the evaluate is a repetition of the response with high-fall intonation.

The structured, planned discourse of classroom interaction fits well with the DA model, yet critics claim problems lie with the immediacy of the discourse approach.

According to Francis and Hunston (1992, as cited in McCarthy & Slade, 2007, p. 214 ), speech acts in the DA model are labeled as they relate to the following and previous utterances, ‘on a moment-by-moment basis’ , not as they contribute to the discourse as a whole. In addition, the model codes utterances in terms of their effect on the discourse only, not taking into account the participants of that discourse. With analysis concerned only with the product of discourse, the issue of how participants interact and negotiate in the speaking activity cannot be addressed.

That a speech act can only be identified as a single move type is another criticism of the DA model. Rather, an act may perform more than one function of the ‘network of available choices simultaneously.’ Now we move to conversation analysis approaches.

### **2.3.3. Conversation Analysis Approach**

Conversation analysis (CA) focuses on the detailed organization of everyday interaction. As Markee (2007) explains, CA owes much to researchers such as Sacks, Schegloff, Jefferson, and others (cited in Burns, 2009). CA focuses on banal, everyday conversation using fine-grain analyses, often of quite short conversational extracts. Pedagogically–related questions in CA include:

- How do speakers take orderly turns in conversation?
- How do speakers open and close conversations?
- How do speakers launch new topics, close exhausted topics, etc.?
- How is it that conversation generally progresses satisfactorily with little or no conflict or confusion ?

### 2.3.3.1. Turn Taking

In CA, the basic unit of analysis is the individual speaker turn rather than a move. In the Sinclair and Coulthard exchange structure model (1975), one turn could contain, for example, the follow-up move of one exchange and the initiating move of the next one. In CA, a turn is each occasion that a speaker speaks, and a turn ends when another speaker takes the turn. Conversation analysts are interested in how speakers achieve smooth turn-taking, with relatively few overlaps and interruptions or breakdowns, and what the social norms are for who speaks when. In any ordinary, informal everyday conversation, there may be overlaps but there will be hardly any true interruptions, and there will be only minimal silences between turns (on average, less than a second) if there is any silence at all. Sacks et al. (1974, as cited in McCarthy & Slade, 2007) noted that speakers typically take turns when they are selected or nominated by the current speaker, or else, if no one is directly selected, they may speak of their own choice (self-selection). If neither of these conditions apply, the current speaker may simply continue. The language system provides speakers with ways of securing the next turn. These vary in their appropriateness to different contexts and speaker relationships (in English, for example, among many other possible realizations, *If I may ask a question Madam Chair, Can I say something?, Shut up, will you, and listen to me!*). There are also ways of not taking the turn even when one could take it, for example by just saying *mmm* instead of giving a fuller reply. Vocalizations and short words uttered while another person is speaking, such as *mmm, uhuh, yeah, sure, right*, are called *back-channel responses* and show that the listener is still following the speaker and wishes him/her to continue, as well as providing some indication of how the message is being received, but that the listener does not necessarily want to take up the speaker role. McCarthy calls this function *listenership*. Another important aspect of turn-taking is the way speakers predict one another's turns and often complete the other person's utterance or turn for them. Equally, there is often overlap between speakers as

they complete each other's utterances. Back-channels, completions, and overlaps are not normally heard as interruptions or as rude. For CA analysts, they represent cooperative activity to facilitate communication.

Turn-taking is a key feature of conversation by which participants negotiate the joint production of meanings. The implications of its description for language pedagogy are several. Most tempting is to assemble a lexicon of turn-taking gambits for teaching; however, these can sound peculiar if used inappropriately and normally only occur in rather specialized contexts (Can I come in here? and similar utterances are rare in casual conversation but may be useful in formal meetings). A second possibility is to see turn-taking in the classroom as a potential source of understanding of classroom discourse processes (van Lier, 1984, as cited in McCarthy & Slade, 2007): where the intrinsic motivation to listen to and observe the unfolding turn-taking processes in terms of one's own potential to participate is missing, opportunities for active participation and enhanced learning may be lost. Teachers can learn much, van Lier argues, from observing turn-taking patterns in their own classrooms. A third implication of the descriptions of turn-taking is seen in the importance of listener-signals such as backchannel utterances (e.g., yeah, right, uhuh, mm, etc., while listening). McCarthy (2002, as cited in Markee, 2007) sees these and a number of lexical feedback signals (e.g., lovely, great, true, absolutely) as central to good listenership and to the construction and maintenance of interpersonal relations. Much listening skills pedagogy focuses on comprehension of the message, with few opportunities afforded to the examination of appropriate reaction by the listener, who may not wish to take over the turn and become main speaker. The true integration of listening and speaking skills may require areassessment of what listeners do.

### 2.3.4. Variable Approach

A variable approach, continuing the ethnomethodological tradition, is regarded as being more flexible, since it takes account of the different contexts and acknowledges the important relationship between language use and pedagogical purpose. The focus turns to overview SETT( self-evaluation of teacher talk) framework, introduced by Walsh (2003) as a variable approach.

Interactional feature	Description
(A)Scaffolding	(1) Reformulation (rephrasing a learner’s contribution). (2) Extension (extending a learner’s contribution). (3) Modelling (correcting a learner’s contribution).
(B)Direct repair	Correcting an error quickly and directly.
(C)Content feedback	Giving feedback to the message rather than the words used.
(D)Extended wait-time	Allowing sufficient time (several seconds) for students to respond or formulate a response.
(E) Referential questions	Genuine questions to which the teacher does not know the answer.
(F) Seeking clarification	(1)Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said. (2)Student asks teacher to clarify something the teacher has said.
(G) Confirmation checks	Making sure that the teacher has correctly understood the learner’s contribution.
(H) Extended learner turn	Learner turn of more than one clause.
(I) Teacher	(1)Teacher repeats a pervious utterance.

	(2)Teacher repeats a learner’s contribution.
(J) Teacher interruptions	Interrupting a learner’s contribution.
(K) Extended teacher turn	Teacher turn of more than one clause.
(L)Turn completion	Completing a learner’s contribution for the learner.
(M)Display questions	Asking question to which the teacher knows the answer.
(N)Form-focused feedback	Giving feedback on the words used ,not the message.

**Table2: SETT Grid(Walsh, 2006, p. 168)**

The focus of this instrument is teacher talk; the aim is to help teachers gain a fuller understanding of the relationship between language use, interaction and opportunities for learning.

**Conclusion**

In this chapter we sought to examine classroom discourse and the different approaches for analysing classroom interaction. We shed light on the different features of teacher talk and their impact on learning opportunities. We explored as well the different approaches for analyzing classroom discourse starting from interaction analysis to the variable approach offered by Walsh (2003). This chapter paves the way to our practical chapter in which we will identify the different patterns of TT in some secondary classrooms in Algeria.

# CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction.....	51
3.1. Method.....	51
3.2. Target Population.....	51
3.3. Data Collection Procedures.....	52
3.3.1. Classroom Observation.....	52
3.3.1.1. Video Recording.....	53
3.3.2. Teacher’s Questionnaire.....	54
3.3.2.1. Aim of the Questionnaire.....	54
3.3.2.1. Description of the Questionnaire.....	55
3.3.3. Stimulated Recall Methodology.....	55
3.3.3.1. Stimulated Recall Interview.....	56
3.3.3.1.1. Aim of the Interview.....	56
3.3.3.1.1. Description of the Interview.....	56
3.4. Data Analysis Procedures:.....	57
3.4.1. Classroom Observation Data.....	57
3.4.1.1. Quantitative Analysis.....	57
3.4.1.2. Qualitative Analysis.....	58
3.5. Data Analysis.....	59
3.5.1. Features of Teacher Talk.....	59
3.5.2. Impact of Teacher Talk on Learning Opportunity.....	73
3.5.3. Analysis of Questionnaire.....	89
3.5.4. Analysis of the Stimulated Recall Interview.....	93
Conclusion.....	100

## **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS**

### **Introduction**

This chapter embraced two major points. First, it seeks to describe the methodology by which we design this research. It identifies the procedures used to collect the data as well as the procedures followed in analyzing it. The second part of the chapter is devoted for data analysis in which we will analyse the interactional features of teacher talk as well teachers' awareness of the impact of such features on learning opportunities.

### **3.1. Method**

The method selected here is descriptive. "Descriptive research will aim at providing as accurate an account as possible of what current practice is, how learners do learn, how teachers do teach, what classrooms do look like, at a particular moment in a particular place" (Brumfit & Mitchell, 1990, p. 11). Regarding our research, we aim at describing teacher-learner interaction, identifying the different features of TT existing in some secondary classroom interaction. We aim as well to describe the impact of such features on classroom interaction as well as learners' involvement. Our third aim is to describe the extent to which teachers are aware of their language use on learners' participation. Therefore, with no manipulation of variables, we opted for a descriptive research.

### **3.2. Target Population**

Our subjects are two secondary school teachers, teaching second year at Dardar Bouzid secondary school, El Eulma. Teacher 1 with a BA degree (licence), has an experience about 4

years and forty one (41) pupils. Teacher 2, with a BA degree has an experience about 7 years and thirty nine (39) pupils.

### **3.3. Data collection procedures**

Our data was collected via triangulation. That is to say, the process of collecting data from several different sources or in different ways with a view to providing a fuller understanding of a phenomenon. Obtaining data from many source (e.g. interviews, observations, and documents) is the most commonly used type of triangulation. According to Richards and Farrell (1990, p. 181), triangulation is one way of ensuring reliability of the data:

“There are, of course, advantages and disadvantages to each form of data collection.

Some procedures allow a large amount of information to be collected fairly quickly (e.g., a questionnaire), whereas others take more time but allow for more in-depth information to be collected (e.g., an interview). It is important that the information collected be reliable, that is, that the procedures used measure what they claim to measure and measure it accurately. One way to ensure this is by collecting information from several different sources about the issue that is being investigated.

This is known as *triangulation*.”

In order to provide an in-depth picture about TT and teachers’ awareness of their classroom discourse, we opted for three methods in collecting our data: classroom observation, teacher’s questionnaire and a stimulated recall methodology. To begin with classroom observation.

#### **3.3.1. Classroom Observation**

Patton (1990) noted that a popular form of data collection in a naturalistic or field research is observation of the participants in the context of a natural scene. The observational data are used for the purpose of description- of settings, activities, people and the meaning of what is

observed from the perspective of the participants. Observation can lead to a deeper understanding than questionnaires or interviews alone, because it provides knowledge of the context in which events occurred, and may enable researchers to see things that participants themselves are not aware of, or that they are unwilling to discuss.

For our research, we conducted a classroom observation for about two months. We attended the classroom of the two participant teachers once a week with each teacher. That makes about 16 hours of observation. In the first month, we were just sitting in the back, getting familiar with the secondary classroom world and taking notes about management of classroom routine and discipline. We were also observing the materials adopted in delivering the lesson, pupils' behaviour, participation and the teaching content. Our aim was to take notes and get acquainted with the textbook so to know what type of sequence that produces much interaction as well as with the teachers and the learners so that they get used to our presence before video taping the lessons. Video tape is a tool for collecting the data during the classroom observation.

### **3.3.1.1. Use of Video Tape**

Video-recordings have a number of advantages over other data collection methods such as observation. The most important one is that it allows us to make a 'permanent record' of the spoken language data. We can play and replay the videotapes to go back to certain points of the lessons that we are not sure of. Therefore, the transcription can be more accurate and reliable (Swann, 1994, cited in Cullen, 1996). In other words, it means that reliability can be enhanced because 'what is recorded as data is what actually occurred in the setting that was studied' (McMillan, 2000, p. 272). The transcripts of the video-recordings also provide us with a 'permanent and readily accessible record of spoken language', which can then be used in quantitative or qualitative data analysis (Swann, 1994, cited in Cullen, p. 39).

In fact, four lessons were video recorded, two lessons for each teacher. Two lessons were selected randomly and were transcribed and analysed. Each lesson was about 25mn to 30mn teachers interacting with pupils. The rest of the time was for writing on copybooks, on the board, reading a passage, which was not transcribed and analysed.

Besides classroom observation, we opted for a questionnaire designed for teachers.

### **3.3.2. Teachers' Questionnaire**

Another tool utilized in collecting the data is the questionnaire. Two questionnaires were administered to the two participant teachers. The reason for administering the questionnaire to only two teachers lies in the fact of the possibility of checking their responses vis-à-vis their classroom observation. The questionnaire was given after the lesson recording with a view to maintaining authenticity of the data. We believe that administering the questionnaire before classroom recording would jeopardize the classroom observation findings as the teachers may not teach in their usual way, focusing on the questionnaire elements.

#### **3.3.2.1. Aim of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire aims to examine the extent to which teachers are aware about the interactional features of their talk in their classrooms. As a raising awareness stimulus, the questionnaire provides insights about the patterns of TT operating in their classrooms from the two teachers' perspectives. The data obtained from the lesson transcripts (i.e. what teachers actually do) will be compared to the data obtained from the questionnaire (i.e. what the teachers believe they do in the classroom) in order to reveal how they are aware of their language use.

### **3.3.2.2. Description of the Questionnaire**

In the questionnaire, teachers are asked to reflect on their practises and provide the different patterns of their talk operating in their classrooms through a structured questionnaire. It contains twenty two (20) questions, covering the most important features of TT viewed in the literature review. The teachers are asked to supplement information about patterns of their talk like different types of teachers' questions , feedback, errors' correction, wait time among others that have been discussed in chapter two under the section of patterns of teacher talk. They were as well asked to supplement information about providing learners with opportunities to learn English, which was covered in the first chapter in which we discussed the importance of input and output in language learning. The teachers were explained the purpose of the questionnaire and assured that their answers will remain confident. The two participant teachers returned the questionnaire answered.

To reinforce the questionnaire data, we opted for a third method which is stimulated recall methodology.

### **3.3.3. Stimulated Recall Methodology**

Gass and McKay (2000, p. 397) describe Stimulated Recall Methodology as: “one of the introspective methods for obtaining data in second and foreign language research”. In stimulated recalls, teachers are prompted to recall and verbalize their thoughts during an event. The recall prompts generally include a stimulus such as video or audio tape.

In our research, we conducted a reflective interview using the video tape of the two participant teachers' lessons as a stimulus.

### **3.3.3.1. Stimulated Recall Interview**

Interviews are often useful for investigating teacher's insider perspectives on what they do especially why they do the things they do .As we have mentioned before, two reflective interviews were conducted with the two participant teachers. In fact, the interviews were not conducted immediately after each lesson, because of teaching constraints and delays in transcription. One interview lasted more than one hour. The interview was audio-taped and then analysed.

#### **3.3.3.1.1. Aim of the Stimulated Recall Interview**

The interview aims at examining the extent to which the two participant teachers are aware of the impact of their talk on learners' involvement, by making them watch their lesson videos and comment on their decision-making in the classroom interaction. Teachers are to justify, clarify comments on their language choice and evaluate their awareness in relation of what they have provided in the questionnaire.

#### **3.3.3.1.2. Description of the Interview**

We have conducted a semi-structured interview, in which we asked teachers about their talk. We asked questions to each teacher but with probes and open-ended questions to encourage a certain amount of natural conversations. Questions were about the choice of questions, their impact on learners' output, the effect of wait time, the effect of feedback among others.

### **3.4.Data Analysis Procedures**

#### **3.4.1.Classroom Observation Data**

##### **3.4.1.1. Quantitative Analysis of Data**

We attempt to analyse the data obtained from the video recording of the classroom observation, in the shape of lesson transcript quantitatively. That is to say, we aim at identifying the different patterns of TT existing in the classroom interaction as well as the tally of each pattern. We seek to find out about the features that are more dominant, the features that are less dominant and the features that are completely absent. To do so, we opted for Walsh's instrument of SETT ( Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk) (2003) (see Appendix 4) . As a matter of fact, there exist a host of instruments or grids for analyzing classroom interaction quantitatively. As we have seen in the second chapter, there are many instruments like FLINT system, FIAC system, COLT. Those instrument do not serve our study like SETT grid for the following reasons:

Our work is focusing on TT patterns in the interactional process. SETT is designed to investigate teacher talk features. Unlike COLT or FLINT, SETT covers all the features that are believed to have impact on interaction and learning opportunities, as it has been examined in the theoretical part, chapter two. Thus, it deals with the elements already investigated in the literature review. Thus, our theory and practice are in the same vein. Being as such, we believe that the use of SETT will facilitate the understanding and the analysis of TT, since the researcher and the reader are both familiar with the items in SETT. Therefore, a great deal of confusion and ambiguity will be minimized, as the researcher is confirmed why she should examine such features. We believe that the three schemes are not really different to a great extent since all of them examine classroom interaction. They differentiate in the use of

appropriate language to comment on the interactional features. Regarding our research, SETT is the closest.

### **3.4.1.2. Qualitative Analysis of Data**

The analysis of the data quantitatively does not provide us with understanding of the construction of interaction. It does not show the impact of such feature on the interactional architecture of classroom discourse. We believe that studying the data quantitatively helps give insights about classroom interaction; however, the process of interaction is lost. For this reason we opted to study classroom interaction, notably teacher talk, qualitatively using Conversation Analysis (CA) method. The aim behind using CA and not discourse analysis or other approach lies in the fact that we are interested of the construction of interaction. That is to say, we are interested about the talk-in –interaction, which is a major theme within CA methodology. We aim to find out how talk in the classroom is constructed between the teacher and the learner by examining the turn taking system. That is to say, we opted for CA methodology for we want to describe the data naturally. We are not much interested in the linguistic construction of teachers' utterances as taking a move and attempting to decipher in many speech act, searching for discourse markers...etc (discourse analysis), but we are interested rather in the conversation as a whole, in analyzing turn taking, how they are constructed and organized due to teacher talk, taking every utterance as one turn and how this turn affects interaction generally and learners' involvement specifically.

### 3.5.Data Analysis

#### 3.5.1.Interactional Features of TT

Our first research question was: “what are the patterns of TT operating in the secondary classroom? As we have mentioned before in the aim of the study, the question aims at determining the different interactional features of teacher talk existing in the secondary classroom using SETT grid. To begin with, teachers’ questions are investigated.

##### 3.5.1.Teachers’ Questions

What are the types of questions the teacher uses? Is there any predominance of one type over the other? Does the teacher ask more “display questions” than “referential” ones or the other way round?

##### 3.5.1.Rate of Display Questions

We will examine the number of display questions T1 asked in the classroom. Before focusing on the display questions, we wanted to examine first the number of all questions asked in the classroom. The results are displayed in table1:

Number of all the questions	61
Number of display questions	41
Percentage %	67.21 %

**Table 3: T1’s Rate of Display Questions**

According to table 3, a remarkable feature of T1 discourse is the use of elicitation techniques. T1 asks 61 question among which 41 represents display questions. That is to say, questions to which the teacher already knows the answer. In fact, display questions represent

more than 67% of the whole questions, which gives us insight about this feature of classroom discourse in which display questions occupy the majority of it.

Example:

1 T: what is this?

2 L: symbol

Now will examine T2 classroom interaction detecting the number of display questions vis-à-vis the number of all questions asked in the class. The results are displayed in table 4 as follows:

Number of questions	27
Number of display questions	27
Percentage %	100%

**Table4: T2’s Rate of Display Questions**

According to table4, T2 asks 27 questions all of which represents display questions (100%).

The teacher asks merely questions to which he knows the answers.

Example:

1 T: can you list or site some of the emergency situations?

Yes?

### 3.5.1.2. Rate of Referential Questions

Now we will turn to examine another type of questions that plays an important role in promoting genuine communication: referential questions. We will begin with T1 classroom.

Table 5 represents the results

Number of questions	61
Number of referential questions	20
%	32.37%

: **Table5: T1’s Rate of Referential Questions**

Referential questions represent about 32% of the total questions asked by the teacher. Hence, T1 brings his learners’ opinions, feelings and experiences into the classroom, making his interaction more genuine by asking a number of twenty questions to which he does not know the answer.

Example:

1 T: do you help others?

2 LLL: yes

3 T: how? What do you do?

Moving to T2 classroom, since all the questions asked by T2 are only display questions, we deduce that the number of referential questions to none, as it is demonstrated in table6

Number of the questions	27
Number of referential questions	00
%	00%

**Table6: T2’s Rate of Referential Questions**

There is a total absence of referential questions in T2 classroom interaction. T2 did not ask a single question to which he did not know the answer, relying merely on display questions to elicit responses from his learners. In this case no example will be provided.

The second feature to be examined is scaffolding.

### 3.5.1.3.Scaffolding

Scaffolding contains three elements:

1. Reformulation: rephrasing a learner’s contribution.
2. Extension: extending a learner’s contribution.
3. Modeling: correcting a learner’s contribution.

According to Walsh (2002), Scaffolding plays a great role in facilitating learning opportunity. We will examine the tally of scaffolding in T1 classroom. The results are shown in table 7:

Reformulation	01
Extension	07
Modelling	01
<b>Scaffolding</b>	09

**Table7: T1’s Tally of Scaffolding**

According to table 7, we notice a limited scaffolding offered by the teacher1 to his learners demonstrated in nine times. The teacher reformulated his learners turns only one time. Also only one time he corrected his learners’ errors, while he extended his learners’ turns 7 times offering a linguistic support to them.

Example:

1 T: yes, in what situations? (2)

2 L: in disasters.

3 T = in disasters, like floods, volcanoes...you see?

Now we will consider the tally of scaffolding in T2 classroom. The results are shown in table 8:

Reformulation	00
Extension	03
Modelling	00
<b>Scaffolding</b>	09

**Table 8: T2’s Tally of Scaffolding**

From the table above, we notice that teacher2 scaffolding is very limited comparing with T1. We notice a complete absence of reformulation, modelling. Only extension was provided by the teacher but only three times during the lesson.

Now we move to examine another feature of teacher talk which is repair or error correction.

### 3.5.1.4. Direct Repair

Direct repair requires correcting an error quickly and directly. Walsh (2006), states that direct repair is less time consuming and intrusive than the more sensitive preferred by many teachers. We will examine the amount of direct repair in the classroom. The results from both classes are displayed in table 9.

T1	01
T2	00

**Table 9: T1,T2’s Rate of Direct Repair**

The analysis of transcripts in terms of direct repair, we found that only one turn in which T1 corrected directly the learner error, whereas in the classroom of T2, no direct repair was detected. From both classrooms, there is almost a complete absence of correcting learners’ errors which leads to the question: do learners produce correct utterances all the time, or

does the teacher neglect their errors? We will seek to answer this question in the coming sections.

Example:

1 T: what happened to the buildings? (3)

2 L: They were broken

3 T: destroyed. So the buildings were destroyed, what else?

We will now consider another feature: seeking clarifications.

### 3.5.1.5. Seeking Clarification

Seeking clarification is very crucial for learning through which meaning is negotiated. In the classroom of the two participant teachers, the question to be raised is: Do teachers use clarification request? If yes, what is the rate of such interactional feature?

Clarification request could be both a feature for teacher talk as well as learner talk. That is to say, teachers ask learners to clarify something the student has said, or learners ask teachers to clarify something the teacher has said.

We will examine seeking clarification in the classroom of T1. The results show that T1 used very few clarification requests only 2 times which is considered to be inadequate:

Seeking clarification	02
-----------------------	----

**Table 10: T1's Rate of Seeking Clarification**

Example:

1 T: do you help others?

2 LLL: [yes]

3 L2: [yes]

4 T: how? What do you do?

In classroom of T2, the situation is not much better, but even worse. T2 used only one clarification request during the lesson as it is showed in table11.

Seeking Clarification	01
-----------------------	----

**Table 11: T2’s Rate of Seeking Clarification**

Example

1 T: what do all organization do? (1) it helps?=  
=

2 L: =people

3 T: it helps people where? In what situations? In what situations?

4 L: in disasters.

Now our discussion turn to examine confirmation checks.

### **3.5.1.6. Confirmation checks**

Confirmation checks is making sure that teacher has correctly understood learner’s contribution. Do teachers ask confirmation checks?



The data analysis exhibits the complete absence of confirmation checks from both teachers. Teachers do not ask confirmation checks that lead to meaning negotiation from learners. That gives us an idea about the process of negotiation of meaning operating in the class.

	T1	T2
Confirmation Checks	00	00

**Table12: T1,T2’s Confirmation Checks**

Now we consider extended teacher turn.

### 3.5.1.7.Extended Teacher Turn

One of the features of teacher talk observed in the interaction is the extended teacher turn, generally for explaining (transmitting knowledge). An extended teacher turn is a turn of more than one clause. We will observe how many teacher extended turns exist in the classroom of T1. The results are shown in the following table:

Extended teacher turn	15
-----------------------	----

**Table13: T1’s Extended Teacher Turn**

From the table above, we find 15 turns in which the turn in extended like in the following

Example:

1 T: but they help people who are injured so this is happen in Switzerland. So this organization came to first(( pointing to red cross on the board)) so many years after Muslims start suffering also from wars.

As far as the second teacher is concerned, we found five extended teacher turn used in explaining:

Extended teacher turn	05
-----------------------	----

**Table14: T2’s Extended Teacher Turn**

Teacher echo is another feature that ought to be examined

### 3.5.1.8. Teacher Echo

When the teacher repeats a previous utterance or repeats a learner’s contributions, it is called teacher echo. As a remarkable interactional feature of teacher talk, we seek to examine the presence of such a feature on the two participant talk-in-interaction classrooms as well as its tally. The results of T1 classroom are show in the table below:

Teacher echo	Tally
T repeats a previous utterance	06
T repeats learner’s contribution	18
Total	24

**Table 15: T1’s Rate of Teacher Echo**

From the table above, we found that teacher1 used 24 teacher echoes among which 18 times the teacher repeats a learner answer. Thus, teacher echo is a strategy to give feedback for T1. Also, there are 6 times when the teacher repeats his previous utterance and here we question whether it is a deliberate or just a habit in which the teacher uses teacher echo.

Example:

1 T : what do you do in Ramadan? What do you do in Ramadan?

2 L : suhur

3 T : suhur yes..

Now, we examine T2 classroom with regards to teacher echo. The results are show in table 16 as following:

Teacher echo	Tally
T repeats a previous utterance	09
T repeats learner’s contribution	08
Total	17

**Table 16: T2’s Rate of Teacher Echo**

Regarding T2, we found teacher echo one of the features of this teacher. He used teacher echo 17 times: nine time he repeats his previous own utterance and 8 times he repeats a learner response. Unlike teacher 1, echoing his own utterances is more than echoing his learners utterances. That leads us to consider the impact of teacher echo on learner’s contribution. Is it a strategy or merely a habit or both of them?

Example:

1 T: it helps people where? In what situations? (2)

2 L: in disasters.

3 T: in disasters like floods, volcanoes... you see?

Now we consider another feature which is turn completion

### **3.5.1.9. Turn Completion**

Turn completion occurs when the teacher completes a learner’s contribution. Thus, the question to be raised is: do teachers complete learners turns in order to create a smooth flow of discourse? According to Walsh (2002, p. 15), turn completion hinders learning

opportunities. “it limits to the frequency and quality of student contributions and minimizes learning opportunities”. The results of both T1 and T2 are displayed in the following table:

Turn completion T1	00
Turn completion T2	00

**Table17: T1,T2’s Rate of Turn Completion**

From the results above, we found that neither of both teacher completes his learner’s contribution. The results show that two participant teachers gave interactional space or their learners to complete their turns, which facilitate learning opportunities.

We have considered turn completion which implies that teachers do not interrupt their learners and complete turns for them. But do they interrupt in other turns? We will consider teacher’s interruption.

### 3.5.1.10. Teacher’s Interruption

Like turn completion, interrupting learners’ contributions results in breaking down the discourse. We will examine teacher’s interruption. To what extent teachers interrupt their learners. The results of both teachers are displayed in table 18

Teacher’s interruption T1	00
Teacher’s interruption T2	00

**Table18: teacher’s interruption T1,T2**

From the table above, we can observe that no teacher’s interruption has been detected. Now let’s consider content feedback.

### 3.5.1.11. Content Feedback

Content feedback is giving feedback on the message rather than the form. In other words, the teacher provides feedback strongly resembles utterances found in the “real world”. According to Walsh (2002), “feedback on the message rather than its form is also more conducive genuine communication” (p09).

We will examine how many times the 2 participant teachers provide content feedback. The results are shown in the table below:

Content feedback T1	00
Content feedback T2	00

**Table19: T1 ,T2’s Content Feedback**

From the table above, there is a complete absence of content feedback. No teacher provided a feedback on the message as it was expected.

Having examined content feedback, let’s now consider form-focused feedback.

### 3.5.1.12. Form Focused Feedback

Form-focused feedback is about giving feedback on the words used, not the message. We will consider the rate of form-focused feedback operating in the construction of teacher’s classroom interaction. The results are displayed in table 20 for T1:

Form-focused feedback of T1	27
-----------------------------	----

**Table20: T1’s Rate of Form-Focused Feedback**

According to the data obtained from lesson-transcripts. Teacher1 provides 27 form-focused feedback .

Example:

1 T: what is this?

2 L: symbol

3 T: very good, it's a symbol.

According to T2, he performed only 04 focused form feedback comparing to 27 display questions which leads to consideration. The results are shown in the table 21.

Form-focused feedback of T2	04
-----------------------------	----

**Table21:T2's Rate of Form-focused Feedback**

Example:

1 L: flood

2 T: flood, very good..yes in flood.. where flood takes place.. those

organization is going to =?

After we have covered all features of teacher talk in SETT grid. The results obtained will be displayed in the SETT grid for both T1 and T2.

Features of teacher talk	Tally of T1	Tally of T2
scaffolding	09	03
Direct repair	01	00
Content feedback	00	00
Confirmation Checks	00	00
Referential questions	20	00
Seeking clarifications	02	01

Confirmation checks	00	00
Extended learner turn	00	00
Teacher echo	24	17
Teacher’s interruption	00	00
Extended teacher turn	00	00
Turn completion	15	05
Display questions	41	27
Form-focused feedback	27	04

**Table 22: T1,T2’s SETT Grid**

### **2.5.1.13.Discussion**

After the analysis of the interaction of the two participant teachers, a host of remarks came into being. To begin with, many interactional features are found in the talk of the two participant teachers, as the use of questions, teacher echo, form-focused feedback, scaffolding, seeking clarifications... However, some features are completely absent in the interaction of the 2 participant teachers with their pupils. As a case in point, no extended learner turn was detected for both teachers as well as the absence of confirmation checks, teacher completion and teacher’s interruptions. Some features were present only in one classroom as the use of referential questions and direct repair by T1.

What is the remarkable observation from the data that requires consideration is the controversy embedded between the lines, notably, for T1. That is to say, T1 asks forty one display questions among which many questions are divergent. As it was viewed in the theoretical part (chapter two), divergent questions are questions that elicit great contribution and involvement of the learner, for they are not closed questions. On the contrary, they are open questions. At the same time, we found that learner extended turn is zero .i.e. no

utterance provided by the learner exceeded one clause. Hence, that leads to wonder how such a great number of divergent questions did not create a single learner turn.

The same thing is observed comparing the tallies of referential questions with the tally of content feedback. T1 asked an interesting number of referential questions about twenty questions, to which he did not know the answer. Referential questions seek to bring learners' experiences, opinion into the classroom. As genuine questions, they usually produce feedback resembling to real word utterances. i.e. content feedback rather than evaluating "very good" feedback. However, the tally of content feedback is "zero". Thus, that leads us to wonder what kind of feedback was generated from such questions.

As far as T2 is concerned, the dominance of display questions, the absence of divergent as well as referential questions will lead automatically to the absence of learner extended turn in addition to the very few numbers of clarification requests, which results in minimizing learners' contributions. Another observation is that with about twenty seven questions asked, only four form-focused feedbacks were provided.

The study of features of TT quantitatively using SETT Grid provides us with insights about the classroom interaction in general. However, it does not give us explanation about how classroom interaction was constructed, how the turns were created and taken according to the teacher language use and how such controversies that were discussed above were brought into being. Hence, we need to study the data qualitatively to understand the impact of teacher's interactional features on learners' involvements.

### **3.5.2. Impact of Teacher Talk Patterns on Learners' Contributions**

In this section, we will attempt to examine the impact of teacher talk patterns on learners' involvements by analyzing the transcripts using CA methodology.

**The Objective of the Lesson:** we recorded the same lesson for both teachers. Their objectives were to introduce their learners to the new unit “no man is an island” by introducing them to the vocabulary to be encountered during the whole unit. The vocabulary turns around helping organizations: Red Cross, Red Crescent and disasters. The piece of lesson that was recorded acted as a warm up through which teachers aim at promoting oral interaction as well.

### **3.5.2.1. Impact of Teachers’ Questions on Learners’ Contributions**

We will examine the impact of the different types of questions on learners’ involvement, starting with display questions as the dominant feature of classroom discourse

#### **3.5.2.1. Display Questions and the Dominance of IRF Sequence**

We will examine the impact of display questions on classroom interaction, notably, on learners’ involvements.

#### **Extract 1:**

1 T: what is this?

2 LLL: symbol

3 T: very good. It is a symbol. Which symbol? Which symbol?

4 L: the red cross

5 T: the red cross very good (( writing on the board)) where do you find this

symbol? What does it symbolized? What does it symbolized? What does

it represent? Yes?

6 L: organization

7 T: it represents organization(( writing on board))

In this extract from T1, the focus will be more on the initiation move: the teacher's question and the learner response in specific. The F move will be referred to in general since it will be discussed later in this section in details.

The Extract is taken from T1 lesson. In fact, this extract falls under the IRF patterns in which the teacher asks questions in turns (1,3,5) and the learners respond to the questions in (2,4,6) and the teacher followed pupil responses with evaluation in (3,5,7).

All the questions asked in the extract are display questions, which are appropriate according to the teacher objective. All the display questions generate a short, simple response from the learners in form of one word.

### **Extract 2**

1 T: What happened to the building? What happened to the people? Describe what happened?

2 L: Tsunami

3 T: Yeah, what happened to the buildings?

4 L: They were broken

5 T: Destroyed..so the buildings were destroyed what else?

6 L: So many people died

7 T: So many people died yes..3400 people and the number is still increasing yes?

What else? For the cars? Yeah? What happened in the nuclear station?

8 L: The explosion

9 T: The explosion. It has exploded. Since these people are suffering.. people in Japan are suffering.. What can we do for them?

As far as this Extract is concerned, T1 asked his learners about a recent natural disaster that occurred in Japan which is Tsunami. T1 used display questions which were open ones in turns (1, 3, 5, 7 and 9). All the questions used were justified since they coincided with the teacher's objectives. Such questions elicit responses from learners in turns (2, 4, 6 and 8). Despite the fact that all T1's questions were open ones, learners' responses were still limited, not exceeding one clause. Thus, in the F move, T1 extended and echoed learners' contributions in turns (7, 9); modeling his learner's response in turn 5. This piece of discourse falls under IRF structure in which the teacher controls patterns of communication. In fact, most of the lesson was dominated by IRF structure when the teacher talked most of the time. The following Extract is taken from T2's lesson, which is not different from the previous ones. Unlike T1's lesson, T2's is brimful with solely display questions.

### **Extract 3**

1 T: people working there are they paid?

2 LLL: no

3 T: they are not paid. They work for free. They are not paid...so they are what?

In this extract from T2 is a typical IRF exchange. The teacher initiates a question: a display question to which he knows the answer. The objective was to check their learners' comprehension in turn 1. He modifies his question by rephrasing it and repeating it with a yes/no question (closed question. The question was answered by the pupil in turn 2 with one

word which is “no”. in turn 3, the teacher confirms his learner response in teacher echo and extension of his response (they work for free).

#### Extract 4

1 T: This is a helping organization and this is another. what do they have in

common?

What do they have in common?yes? what do all organization do?(3) it

helps...?

2 L: = People

3 T: It helps people. Where? In what situations? In what situations?yes Faysal?

4 L: In disasters

5 T: In disasters like floods, volcanoes...you see?

It helps exactly people in?

In emergency situations ( **writing on the board**) in emergency situations

In emergency situations..good

Regarding this extract, the teacher asked display questions in turns (1, 3 and 5). In turn 1, the teacher asked his learners about the role of helping organizations with a display question. He repeats the question once again with an extended wait time about three seconds. He reformulated the question and then gave a clue about the answer. In fact, he provided half the answer (it helps). Learners responded in turn 2 with the other half of the answer represented in one word (people). The teacher repeats the learner s’ response as a feedback, initiating

another display question to which the answer is already known. Another learner provided answer in turn 4. The teacher echoed the learner answer scaffolding it by extending his contribution. Turns from 1 to 5 represents an IRF exchange. In fact, turn 5 represents an IRF structure itself. If we examine teacher's turn, we find that T1 initiated a display question and without any wait-time, he provided the answer, repeated his response and ended the exchange with an evaluation "good". In fact, what was noticed in T2 class is the dominance of IRF and the rush from the teacher part to answer his own questions without providing sometimes enough wait time for learners to think.

### **3.5.2.2.Referential Questions as Display Questions**

As we have examined before about the rates of interactional features of teacher talk in the SETT grid, we found that there were about twenty referential questions with a complete absence of content feedback, which led us to wonder about the kind of feedback generated from such questions. In the following extract, we shall examine such an issue:

#### **Extract 5**

1 T: do you help others?

2 LLL: =yes

3 T: how? What do you do?

when you want to offer help what do you do?what kind? (3)

4 L: give money

5 T: give money very good.. what else?

6 L: we give food

7 T: food very good

8 L: clothes

9 T: give clothes..yes.. very good, Aziza?

10 L: the most important thing is to give advice

11 T: to give advice why not, what else?

The extract is taken from the classroom interaction of T1. The teacher used many questions that elicit many responses from the learners. All the questions are referential questions aiming at creating classroom discussion in turns (1, 3, 5, 9, 11). The teacher asked questions about whether their pupils help others and the ways by which they offer help, which he is not supposed to know their answers. Turn1 is a close-ended referential question aims to open the discussion about helping others. It elicits a very short utterance by the learner (turn 2) in form of “yes”. The rest of the questions are open questions in which the learners expressed their opinions about the ways they helped others. The learners responded in turns (2, 4, 6, 8, 10). There utterances were very limited, very short and very simple, in terms of one word or two, not even forming a simple sentence, except in turn 6 and 10 when the 2 learners’ utterances were simple sentences.

Notwithstanding the use of referential questions, the extract follows an IRF routine in most of the extract. The teacher asks a question, the learner responds, and the teacher evaluates the learner. In IRF patterns, “T” is usually a display question that leads to the evaluation of the teacher at the end of the sequence. However, referential questions are not to be evaluated, for they seek information about learners’ opinions and experiences. They require rather a feedback on the message.

In this extract, we observed that referential questions were used as display questions that needed to be evaluated by “very good” from the teacher. It is obvious that teachers’ evaluation “very good” were not for the message. In other words, is the evaluative feedback provided by the teacher in turns ( 5, 7, 9 ) on the action, that is very good for to help people that way, or very good for providing a correct answer?

As we have mentioned before, the opening of the lesson is about introducing learners to the existing “helping organizations” (the red cross and the red crescent), and their roles in helping people in the emergency situations. Back to the extract, if we observe the teacher’s feedback turns, all of them were evaluative in terms of “very good”, except for the turn 11 where “very good” was substituted with “why not”. That indicates that this is not the answer expected by the teacher and therefore does not require a “very good” feedback, although it was a way of helping people, which is considered to be the most important one for the learner: “giving advice” (turn 10). The learner response failed to fulfill the teacher’s expectation, for “giving advice” is not included in the vocabulary of disasters and helping organizations.

### **3.5.2.2. Divergent Questions and Learners’ Contributions**

As we mentioned before, divergent questions are supposed to promote learners contributions, engaging them in a reflective process. However, teachers should put their pupils level into consideration

#### **Extract 6**

1 T: What is the most special thing about Islam? What is the most special thing?

Why Allah has given us Islam?(7) yes? Why one single month in year is to

Make people fast? Why?yes?(7)

2 T: kind of worshipok? But it also to HELP other people. When the rich fast,

they feel the misery of the poor. They feel that they are in need for help,

This extract taken from T1 represents one extended teacher turn in which there is a complete absence of learners turn. If we observe the nature of his extended teacher turn, we found that questions constitute most of the turn are questions that generally elicit learning responses. However, they did not generate any response. In the opening of the sequence, the teacher asked five questions which are divergent questions. The teacher asked about the special thing about Islam? He made modifications of his questions in order to make himself understood, as repetition( what is the most special thing? Paraphrasing ( why do you think Allah has given us Islam? Substituting the question with another one (why one single month in the year is to make people fast? With two questions just “why”. This questioning strategies are to give clues to help learners provide answers. They act as pseudo-wait time. We notice also extended wit time about 7 seconds; however, no learner’s contribution is found and the sequence ends in the teacher answering his own question.

Divergent or open-ended questions help promote longer responses. However, the level of the learner should be taken into consideration. If we examine the complexity of the questions, we question whether the learner is ready to discuss such topics. In fact, all the questions are too general and ambiguous like: what is the most special thing about Islam?

There are many special things about Islam but what is considered to be the most special one for the teacher? Although the teacher, in turn 22, provided an answer which is simple “helping other people”, the process of “guess what I’m thinking” failed and all the way questions failed to create learners’ involvement.

### 3.5.2.3. Impact of Teacher's Feedback on Learners' Contribution

Now we will examine the effects of teacher's feedback on learning opportunity. We will explore the feedback from two angles: positive feedback and teacher echo, and feedback as elaboration of learners' turns.

#### 3.5.2.3.1. Positive Feedback and Teacher Echo

As a way of giving feedback we detected two strategies both teachers utilized: positive feedback and teacher echo.

##### Extract 7

1 T: do you help others?

2 LLL: =yes

3 T: how? What do you do?

when you want to offer help what do you do? what kind? (3)

4 L: give money

5 T: give money very good.. what else?

6 L: we give food

7 T: food very good

8 L: clothes

9 T: give clothes..yes.. very good, Aziza?

10 L: the most important thing is to give advice

11 T: to give advice why not, what else?

As we notice from extract1 from T1 classroom, the teacher's questions about the ways learners help others generate learners' responses in turns (2,4,6,8,10). Such responses create feedback from the teacher in turns (5,7,9,11). If we examine the feedback provided by the teacher in those turns we find lot of positive feedback and teacher echo. The teacher uses such strategies to provide feedback, saying very good and repeating the learner utterance . Sometimes, we find them both as a feedback as in turns (5,7,9) or just teacher echoing the learner response in turn (11). Positive feedback encourages the learner to gain self esteem and talk more. Teacher echo also as a strategy used by the teacher in giving feedback helps in reinforcing the learner's answer, acting as a model in pronunciation.

A crucial way for elaborating learners 'turns is seeking for clarification. Hence, we will discuss the impact of seeking clarification on learning opportunity.

## **Impact of Seeking Clarifications on Learners' Contributions**

### **Extract 6:**

1 T: What do they have in common please? what do they have in common?(2)

Yes? (2) what do all organizations do? (5)

It helps..?= ↑

2 L: =It helps people where? In what situations? In what situations?

3 T: In disasters.

4 T: In disasters like floods, volcanoes...you see?

This extract is taken from the classroom interaction of the T2. The teacher asks a display question in turn(1) to which he knows the answer. The teacher repeats his question paraphrasing it and giving clues( it helps?) with a raising intonation in order to facilitate learners'answers. The learner provides answer in turn(2), a one word “people”, which represents half an answer. The teacher requests for clarification in turn(3),which elicits another turn from the learner in turn(4). The teacher confirms the learner's answer in teacher echo, providing scaffolding exemplified in extending learner contribution.

Request for clarification represents a part of negotiation of meaning, which is very important for learning as we have seen in the first chapter. However, learners' involvement is still very short and limited in one word despite the fact that the learner was given two opportunities to practice the language.

The following extract examines seeking for clarification differently.

**Extract 7:**

1 T : Since those people are suffering, what can we do for them?(2)

2 L: Help this people

3 T: We help these people how? How can we help them?yes how to help those

people? Yes?(3) what can we do for them?( the teacher addresses the

question to the whole class)

4 L: Doctors go to Japan.

5 T: Yes, very good. Doctors go to Japan.

This extract is taken from T1's classroom interaction. Like in the previous extract, there is a request for clarification from the teacher to all the pupils in turn (3) in which the teacher seeks a clarification about the way they help people suffering from disasters. The difference between this extract and the previous one lies in the fact that in the first extract, the request for clarification was addressed to the same learner who responded to the teacher's display question in turn 2. The learner was provided with another opportunity in turn (4) to elaborate his response whereas in this extract, the clarification was for the whole class. That makes it act as an initiation question rather than elaboration of learners' responses.

In both extracts, it was the teacher who seeks clarifications from his learners, which is the appropriate one. The following extract depicts the opposite in which the teacher clarified his learner response, denying a learning opportunity for his learners.

### **Extract 8:**

1 T : generally, we have two kinds of disasters natural and...,?      ↑

Yes Aziz

2 L: natural or man-made disasters

3 T : very good. We have man-made disasters means man is responsible for. If

You are smoking a cigarette and walking near a forest and you throw it..er..if

You set fire, this is a man made disaster and we have other side, natural

disasters ...very good.

The teacher opens this extract with a display question about the two kinds of disasters, giving a clue about one kind ( natural) and seeking an answer for the second kind. The learner responded correctly to the teacher's question and the teacher provided him with a positive

feedback in turn3. The evaluation feedback was followed by an extended teacher turn in which the teacher clarified the learner's response by explaining man-made disasters and providing examples.

Instead of giving the floor to the learner to clarify his answer, the teacher did the clarification himself, denying an opportunity for negotiation of meaning that would result in extended learner turn.

### **3.5.2.6.Choice of Language and Learning Objectives**

The teacher's goals and learning objectives determine the choice of language used by the teacher. We will examine in this extract the extent to which language use serves teacher's objectives. The extract is too long and cannot be divided for it is connected from the opening to the closing of the topic. Then the teacher moves to another topic.

#### **Extract 9:**

1 T : I'm good. so tell me what is our religion? What is our religion?

2 LLL :Islam

3 T : islam. So you are muslims. So during the whole year, we have one special moth.

One special moth, what is it? For muslims one special month...yes?=  
=

4 L: = Ramadan

5 T: Yes, what do you do in Ramadan? What do you do? (2)

6 L: Suhur

7 T: Yes, what do you eat?

8 LLL: Shorba, bourek (**Laughing**)

9 L: Reading the Quran

10 T: Yes, very good reading the Quran

11 L: Pray tarawih

12 T: Very good pray tarawih

13 L: ((...))

14 T: Not eating food is to fast, called fasting. Is that all? Do you visit your

Relatives? Your family?

15 LLL: Yes

16 T: Why?

17 L: صلاة الرحم

18 T: For bringing relations close. What do you do for your neighbours ? people live

Near you. What do you do to them?

19 L :We offer food for them

20 T :Very good..offer food for them. What else?

What is the most special thing about Islam? What is the most special thing?

Why Allah has given us Islam?(7) yes? Why one single month in year is to

Make people fast? Why?yes?(7)

21 T :Kind of worshipok? But it also to HELP other people. When the rich fast,

they feel the misery of the poor. They feel that they are in need for help, ok?

In this extract from T1 classroom, the teacher asks many questions in terms of display and referential questions, that aim at eliciting responses from the learners. All the questions being asked in turns( 1,3, 5, 7, 14, 16, 18, 20, 21) are questions that aim to elicit responses about Islam and Ramadan. The teacher-learner conversation suggests that the topic is religious which is very far to be so. The teacher was directing the discourse every time towards a specific point (helping people). In turns (1,3,5,7,16), the teacher asks what the learners do in Ramadan. Then turn (18) what they do for their neighbours specifically, whereas in turn (18,20,21) there was a shift towards asking about their beliefs about Islam. The teacher keeps asking questions which do not serve his objectives. Hence, this leads to wonder about the aim behind asking such questions. The answer is revealed in turn 21 that “to help others”. The teacher engaged his learners in a guess what I am thinking process, in which , through the use of questions failed to reach his objectives about the word “help”, making learners pay attention to the word help. At the end, he answered the question himself, failing to draw learners’ attention to the word “help”. Thus, the teacher through his choice of language did not reach any objective. On the contrary, pupils were being lost in the discourse. The teacher could have chosen another way for warming up about “helping organizations.

After we have examined the interactional architecture of the classroom, the different patterns of teacher talk and their impact of learners’ output, we will move now to examine teachers’ awareness about their classroom interaction, notably their teacher talk by analyzing teachers’ questionnaire

### 3.5.3. Analysis of the Questionnaire

#### **Q1: Do you state clear pedagogical goals to accomplish before you start the lesson?**

The result show that both teachers state clear pedagogical goals of the different activities to be accomplished (100%). The choice of “yes” answer expresses awareness from the teachers’ side about the importance of defining learning objectives- what the learners will able to do at the end of the lesson.

#### **Q 2: Do you link your teacher talk to your pedagogical teaching objectives?**

Both teachers chose yes that they link their teacher talk to pedagogical teaching objectives (100%). As we have seen in theoretical part, teacher talk should be adjusted to the teaching goals so that learning will be boosted. The teachers’ answers display awareness of linking talk to pedagogical teaching objectives.

#### **Q3: From where do you choose your activities?**

Since teacher talk is incorporated with the activities, our aim is to learn whether the teachers depend on other material then the textbook to reach their objectives. Both teachers answered that they use only the textbook to deliver their lessons (100%).

#### **Q4: To what extent do the activities chosen from the textbook help you reach your objectives?**

Teacher 1 answers that the textbook helps him reach his objectives somewhat (50%), while teacher 2 stated that it slightly helps (50%). That implies that the textbook does not help to a great extent the participant teachers. More than this, it indicates that the teachers are aware of this; however, they adopt the textbook as the only material. This leads to the question: since the textbook does not help to a great extent, then why don’t teachers adopt

other materials help them reach their objectives (this question will be addressed in the stimulated recall interview).

**Q5: To what extent do you encourage your learners to talk in the class?**

The aim behind this question is to engage teachers in a reflective process, in which they reflect upon their practices in relation to learners' encouragement to talk. It is a broad question that accepts many answers. Teachers are not required to state the ways they do so. Ways of encouragement will be provided in the following questions. What matters is that both teachers answered "largely" (100%) that they encourage their learners to talk in the classroom. That shows that teachers are aware about importance of encouraging learners to talk. Moreover, they are aware that this lies with their responsibility.

**Q6: Do you give fair turn distribution to all your learners?**

The aim of this question is to examine what teachers think they do in the classroom and also to test this answer to the previous one. As giving fair distribution is one way of encouraging learners to talk. The first teacher answered "yes", that he gives fair turn distribution (50%), while teacher2 answered "no", that he does not give fair turn distribution (50%). For teacher 1, his answer shows that he is aware about his practices in the classroom, that he gives fair turn distribution. His answers also confirm the previous answer that he always encourages his learners to talk. Concerning teacher 2, he answered no (50%). This implies that T2 reflected about his practices and found that he did not give fair distribution turns, which display awareness from his part. However, his answer does not confirm his previous one.. ( this question will be addressed in the stimulated recall interview).

**Q7: what are the types of questions you ask in the class?**

This question is about detecting the different questions teachers use in the class. Both of teachers ticked all the boxes, which means that teachers are aware they use display questions, referential questions, divergent questions, as well as convergent ones.

**Q8: how many display questions do you ask in the classroom?**

Both teachers answered that they use many display questions (100%) in the classroom. That gives an idea about the type of questions that teachers overuse in the class.

**Q9: how many referential questions do you ask in the class?**

T1 stated that he used many referential questions as the use of display questions (50%), while T2 stated that he used few referential questions (50%). For T1, he seems to be aware of the use of referential questions that are genuine questions, focused on real communication. Hence, we expect to find his classroom full with opportunities for real communication. Concerning T2, he answered that he used too few referential questions. He is aware that he used referential questions despite the fact they are few.

**Q10: How many closed questions do you ask in the classroom?**

Both teachers stated that they use many closed questions. Generally, closed questions are very prevailing in secondary school teaching.

**Q11: How many open-ended questions do you ask in the classroom?**

T1 stated that he used many open-ended questions, while T2 stated that he used few of them. Both teachers are aware about the type they believe they use in the classroom. T2 answered that he used few. In fact , in the lesson recorded, T2 escaped “WHY question, the last question in the activity, ” which is an open-ended question.( this remark will be addressed to T2 in the stimulated recall interview).

**Q 12: Do you think that your explanation is clear and suitable for your pupils' level?**

Both teachers agreed that their explanation is clear and suitable for pupils' level

**Q13: How often do you ask for clarifications from your pupils?**

Both teachers stated that they asked some clarifications from their pupils

**Q14: How often do you check your pupils' comprehension?**

T1 stated that he always checked his pupils' comprehension. Like T1, T2 answered that he always checked their comprehension checks are very important in the learning process. Hence, the teachers' answers show awareness about the importance of comprehension checks.

**Q15: Do you encourage pupils' initiated questions?**

Both teachers pointed out that they encouraged pupils' initiated questions. That implies that teachers care about learning, not just teaching, and that discourse goes from two parts: from teacher to learner, and from learner to teacher. It gives idea that it is not only the teacher who controls the discourse and who asks questions all the time. Learners as well are provided with opportunities to initiate asking questions.

**Q16: Do you wait little after asking questions?**

Both teachers stated that they offer their learners wait time. Teachers both wait a little after asking questions that is very important to generate more responses and even complex ones.

**Q17: How often do you provide positive feedback?**

Both teachers claimed that they always provide positive feedback. That display teachers' awareness about the use of positive feedback, that positive feedback is used as a strategy from both teachers.

**Q18: Do you correct your pupils' errors?**

Correcting errors is a very important process in language learning. The question is whether teachers correct their pupils' errors or not. Both teachers answered "yes", that they correct their learners' errors.

**Q19: Who corrects the error?**

T1 claimed that he is the one who corrected his learners' errors, while T2 answered that sometimes he corrected the error and sometimes the learner corrected the error.

**Q20: How do you correct the error?**

The question is about the ways teachers correct their learners' errors. As we have seen in chapter two concerning teacher's corrective feedback, we have examined different methods for correcting errors. T1 answered that he corrected the error immediately, while T2 answered that he corrected the error explicitly. The three last questions give us idea about teachers' beliefs about error correction that inform their decision-making in the classroom.

After we have demonstrated the questionnaire results, we move to the analysis of the stimulated recall interview.

### **3.5.4. Analysis of the Stimulated Recall Interview**

The teachers' reflective interview will be analysed in terms of critical self-evaluation and decision-making justification. We will begin with T1 interview.

### 3.5.4.1. Teacher's Justifying Their Decision-Making

#### Extract10

*“concerning feedback, I mean..er. (looking at the questionnaire)..saying very good, I was aware of this and I'm doing it on purpose. I wanted to encourage my pupils so..er. they can they can..er. participate more in the class. I believe teachers should give positive feedback, sayin very good to their pupils”*

In this extract, it is clear that T1 is aware of the use of positive feedback on learner's involvements in the interaction. We observe words like (*I was aware*) and (*I was doing it on purpose*), which implies that the teacher consciously uses the positive feedback as a strategy (*I wanted to encourage my pupils*). The teacher justified his decision-making and showed awareness about the effect of using positive feedback on learners' contributions. In fact, that was manifested throughout his talk.

#### Extract11

*“ I also notice that I ..er ..repeat my pupils' answers after they gave me the answers. I think it is a good thing..er because when I repeat so everybody can hear the answer. Honestly I was doing it unconsciously but not all of it..if I feel that the question is difficult I repeat the answer so everybody can understand . I am aware of saying very good ..i was making sure to do so but for repeating my answer, the pupil answer each time i was not paying attention to this .er bu I think it is a good thing.”*

In the extract 11, the discussion centres on teacher's echo in the class. We find that the teacher was able to evaluate the use of teacher echo (*I think it is a good thing*), although he was not fully aware of its use (*honestly I was doing it unconsciously*); however, he was aware of using echo when the question is difficult. The teacher was able to justify his decision,

stating a clear objective that teacher echo has good effects in amplifying learners' contributions (*if I feel that the question is difficult I repeat the answer so everybody can understand*).

### Extract 12

Classroom interaction appears on the left; teachers' comments appear on the right

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1 T: what is this? =                          | <i>I asked a lot of display questions</i>   |
| 2 L: symbol                                   | <i>I think is appropriate for the task</i>  |
| 3 T: very good. It is a symbol. Which symbol? | <i>and for my objectives too. I had to</i>  |
| 4 LLL: the red cross                          | <i>to introduce the symbols drawn in</i>    |
| 5 T: the red cross very good                  | <i>the book....i mean the organizations</i> |
|   | <i>So I asked questions in order to</i>     |
|   | <i>check their understanding</i>            |

Regarding extract 12, the teacher justified the use of display questions (*So I asked questions in order to check their understanding* and linked the use to his pedagogical objectives (*I think is appropriate for the task and for my objectives too*) which implies awareness of the use of display questions.

As we found samples in which teachers justified their language use, critical self-evaluation of some decisions were found as well while interviewing T1.

### 3.5.4.2. Critical Self Evaluation

#### Extract 13

*“ I notice that my learners that my learners’ responses are very short..very short just one word..really I wasn’t paying attention to this..yeah I want them to speak..asking questions but **just one word**. I asked “how” questions but one word ..i was just asking questions and I want just to have responses but the truth is that I wasn’t paying attention to the responses.i should pay attention..it’s good I’m watching this” .*

As we have seen before in the analysis of patterns of TT, learner extended turn was completely absent, that did not exceed one sentence. In this extract, the teacher was not aware of the very limited output of their learners, the quantity as well the quality. The teacher believes that output is not sufficient at all (**just one word.... but one word**), which shows that learners’ responses did not satisfy the teacher. More than this, he is not aware of this (*I wasn’t paying attention to the responses*).from this extract, we found a critical self-evaluation form the teacher in which he reflected about his actions (*i should pay attention..it’s good I’m watching this*).

#### Extract 14

*“ I wasn’t paying attention to my learners’ responses but truly I’m shocked about my feedback. Yeah I gave encouragement “very good” but the responses are very short just one word or two words and I didn’t do anything.. I just continue to ask questions. Normally I told them to give me full sentence with subject and verb..I have to pay attention to this because I have to improve my pupils level..honestly I wasn’t aware of this but I will work on my feedback” .*

In this extract, we find self-critical evaluation of TT. The teacher stated that he was not aware that his feedback did not extend learners' output. He stated that so clearly "*honestly I was not aware of this*", "*I wasn't paying attention*". In fact, as classroom observation reveals, learners' output was very limited; yet, the teacher did not elaborate their responses.

### Extract 15

Classroom interaction appears on the left; teachers' comments appear on the right

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 5 T: I'm good. so tell me what is our religion?          | <i>" No, it doesn't seem that</i>  |
| What is our religion?                                    | <i>I will talk about disasters</i>   |
| 6 LLL: Islam   | <i>and Red cross...but my aim</i>  |
| 7 T: Islam. So you are muslims. So during the whole      | <i>was talking about Islam and</i>   |
| year, we have one special month.                         | <i>Ramadan is about helping</i>  |
| One special month, what is it? For muslims               | <i>people. I wanted to focus on</i>  |
| one special month...yes?=<br>8 L: = Ramadan              | <i>helping people but I didn't get</i><br><i>responses about this. I created</i> |
| 9 T: Yes, what do you do in Ramadan? What do you do? (2) | <i>a kind of interaction but I could</i>   |
| 10 L: Suhur  | <i>introduce the lesson directly</i>   |
| 11 T: Yes, what do you eat?                              | <i>That match with my objectives</i>   |
| 12LLL: Shorba, bourek ( <b>Laughing</b> )                | <i>yeah that talk not linked to</i>  |
| 13 L: Reading the Quran                                  | <i>my goal maybe I wasted little</i><br><i>time"</i>                             |

Although T1 stated in the questionnaire that he linked his talk to his pedagogical objective, in extract 15, he admitted that he did not do so (*yeah that talk not linked to my goal*), (*I could introduce the lesson directly that match with my objectives.*). Walsh (2002) states that TT should coincidence with learning objectives. That is to say, where language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated; conversely, where there is a significant deviation between language use and teaching goal at a given moment in a lesson, opportunities for learning and acquisition are missed. From the interview, we notice that T1 is aware about the possibility of hindering learning opportunities by his choice of language that did not coincidence with his learning objectives (*maybe I wasted little time*).

Like T1, T2 made some critical-self evaluation about his talk in the classroom and its impact on learner's involvement. We will consider some extracts from T2 interview in which we will examine T2 awareness about the impact of his talk on learners' contributions.

### **Extract 16**

*" I used just display questions ..yeah I know.and I see that such questions gave only short responses I see that my pupils' answers are very short and I did nothing about it...yeah even the feedback I gave did not ameliorate their responses. i was not aware about this. Actually I didn't know that my talk would have such impact on learners...so the truth is that not only pupils responsible but me too..i have great responsibility to improve interaction...but I didn't do that in the class...this is so bad"*

This extract contains evaluative comments on two different interactional features of TT ( teacher's questions and teacher's feedback) as well as comment about learner's contribution. T2 stated that feedback provided to learners as well as the choice of his questions did not help

elaborate learners' turns. In this extract, T2 admitted the relationship between TT and learning opportunity about which T2 was not totally aware (*. i was not aware about this. Actually I didn't know that my talk would have such impact on learners*).

### **Extract 17**

*“ I notice that I answer a lot of my questions without trying so hard to make my pupils answer them..i think that maybe because I think.er..they can't answer them..yes even I avoided asking “WH”question I see that I don't give much time for them to answer. I think I talked a lot during the lesson and my pupils talked so so little and I'll try to mind this I'll try to give them more opportunity n I will pay attention to my questions”*

From this extract, we see that T2 was not fully aware that he might hinder learning opportunities by rushing to answer his own questions (*I notice that I answer a lot of my questions without trying so hard to make my pupils answer them*). As such, he might not encourage his learners to speak in the classroom unlike he claimed in the questionnaire. We find that T2 avoided deliberately the use of “Wh” question that generate more complex answers than yes/no ones, claiming that his pupils would be unable to answer. Therefore, T2 did not make effort to encourage his learners to speak by being restricted to closed questions. On the other hand, T2 admitted the inadequacy of his learners' output due to his TT time (*I think I talked a lot during the lesson and my pupils talked so so little*). In fact, watching the lesson video, T2 claimed to make changes concerning the way he asked questions and his TT time in order to facilitate learning opportunities. This implies little awareness from teacher part about his talk in the class.

In fact, the stimulated recall interview through self-evaluation and justification of choice of TT provided us with insights about teachers' awareness about the impact of their talk on learning opportunities.

### **Conclusion**

We have examined the research methodology adopted in analyzing the data. We opted for three methods in our analysis. We analysed classroom transcripts quantitatively using SETT grid and qualitatively using conversation analysis in order to reveal the different patterns of teacher talk operating in the classroom interaction. We analysed as well teachers' questionnaire and stimulated recall interviews with a view to exploring teacher's awareness about their TT and its effect of learning opportunity. The results obtained from the three methods will be discussed in the coming chapter. Pedagogical implications will be offered as well to facilitate learning opportunities.

# **CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSIONS FOR THE MAJOR FINDINGS, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS and SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

## **Introduction**

In this chapter, we seek to discuss the results obtained from the data analysis with a view to provide answers to the questions raised in the introduction. The major findings of classroom observation will be discussed to compare to the data obtained from the questionnaire as well as the stimulated recall interview. Another aim from this chapter is to provide pedagogical implications as well as suggestions for further research to enhance the quality of learning English in our secondary classrooms.

### **4.1. Discussion of the Major Findings of Classroom Observation Data**

Through classroom observation note taking and the analysis of the lessons' transcripts, we came to the conclusion that TT is inextricably intertwined with learning opportunities.

From our note-taking during our observation process, we noticed that the teacher depends heavily on the textbook following it as a curriculum, not just a material among a host of other ones. On the other hand, the two participant teachers complained about the complexity as well as the ambiguity of some activities. We observed the unit of “no man is an island” – Listening and speaking sequence. This sequence is about the safety measures when earthquake occurs. Teacher 2 complained about the picture used in the warming up (some pupils under the tables) stating that it is not clear enough that helps to get to the right point. Another example that we observed in the same unit was that the two participant teachers were struggling to introduce Bill Gates “the man of the year” (the head of Microsoft company) who

is completely unknown for both the teachers and the learners. The lesson objective was the reported speech; however, an interview with unknown person did not really motivate the learners. In the respect, another important observation was that great deals of learners' textbooks were already provided with answers from the pupils of the previous year. Hence, the classroom becomes predictable, not challenging or motivating, notwithstanding the participation that, we may call, artificial sometimes.

From all what was mentioned above, our point is to stress the fact that TT is incorporated with the pedagogical activities selected by the teacher. In fact, it is the type of the activity that defines the choice of language use by the teacher. Most of the times, TT especially questions (occupied the majority of TT) are the same questions of the activities. Thus, teachers should be aware of the activities they choose since their choice of the activity- their language use- may not motivate their learners and create learning opportunities.

From the analysis of the lessons' transcripts, we found that the two participant teachers displayed many interactional features- interactional strategies- to provide learning opportunities. At the same time, many other features were absent or very limited. As far as the first teacher is concerned, we found that T1 used a lot of questions in the class, about 60 questions. 40 questions of them were display questions. The use of such questions is justified since one of his objectives is to introduce vocabulary in form of helping organizations. The teacher was asking his learners about the different symbols, the different organizations, the different disasters to which he already knows the answer. The objective was to check their information and elicit responses from the learners.

In introducing them to the vocabulary in unit, T1 also asks referential and divergent questions. His second objective was also to create oral interaction by bringing learners to share their opinions about how to help others. The learners were not just asked to answer

closed questions, but also to answer open-ended and referential questions to which, the latter, the teacher does not know the answer. There was a diversity of questions in T1 classroom.

However, notwithstanding the use of diversity in the questions' types, learners' output was very limited in the form of one word or two which is not enough. The output, that is very important in the learning process, is very weak. learners do not produce or practice the language as they should do. At the same time, T1 did not attempt to elaborate his learners' utterances . on the contrary, it was the teacher who, in each time, reformulated the learners one word utterance into a simple sentence, without asking the learner to do so( i.e. to answer in a whole sentence, not just words). In fact, in the FL classroom, English is the means by which teaching is carried out and also the goal to be reached. Such responses in other subjects like maths, or geography would be accepted. But for teaching English language, teachers should be interested in the correct answer and in the production itself. T1, also, used a very limited request for clarification, which are a way of negotiating meaning and a strategy to elaborate learner's contributions. What we observed is that T1 jumped to clarify his learners utterances before giving them opportunity to clarify their utterances. Hence, in such way, many learning opportunities may be denied due to teacher's rush to clarify his learners' responses.

Concerning feedback, T1 tends to use a positive feedback after each response, joined with teacher echo. The aim was to encourage learners to create confidence in learners so that they do not hesitate to answer. The aim behind teacher echo is to amplify learners' responses and to provide the ideal answer every learner can hear. In the feedback turn, teacher 1 answered some of his questions, especially when he asked a divergent question about Islam. The question, in fact, was very general, ambiguous that is above their levels.

As far as corrective feedback is concerned, only one error correction was detected. The absence of error correction is not a sign of a wonderful level. That is to say that learners master the language but rather the opposite. In fact, errors play a crucial role in the development of learners' interlanguage. This lack of error production was due to the weak output provided by the learners. One function of Swain's comprehensible output is that output can function as a hypothesis testing which is enhanced through the feedback as well as scaffolding provided by the teacher. Moreover, TT should go with the teacher's objective in order to provide learning opportunities. T1 used a warm up that did not serve his objectives. Thus, time was wasted and learners were lost in the discourse

Concerning T2, there are not many differences compared to T1. As regards the questions asked by T2, we find that T2 asked just display questions which are already known to him. His objective was the same as T1. Most of his display questions were justified; however, no referential question or even a divergent question was used to encourage his learners to reflect and provide complex utterances. His learners' output, due to his questions, was very limited. Many times we found that the teacher answered his own questions what can partially justify the small number of positive feedback compared to the questions asked. There was almost no interactional space offered to the learner. In fact, the lesson followed a strict IRF patterns in which sometimes all the three exchanges were from the part of the teacher. Like T1, a very limited number of clarification requests were asked. Regarding error correction, the teacher did not correct any error for there was no error production, for there was almost no production in his class, justified with the absence of extended learner turn. Learners did not utter more than one clause despite the fact that they are learners of second year secondary school.

From the analysis and discussion of the data obtained from classroom observation and lesson transcripts, we reach many conclusions listed below:

- Teachers' questions occupied the majority of teacher talk in which display questions are overused with very little use of referential or divergent questions.
- Learners' responses were very short, very limited and very simple which didn't exceed one sentence or even formed one sentence.
- Teachers did not make efforts to extend their learners turns, providing only positive feedback rather than elaborating their learners' contributions.
- There is almost absence of clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks which gives an idea about the status of negotiation of meaning in the classroom. Hence, teachers rarely ask their learners to modify their language whereas they use many modifications in their language as repetition, paraphrasing and giving clues.
- In general, TT most of the time: asking questions, giving feedback, clarifying learners' contributions that did not help so much in involving learners to practice and produce the language.

After examining teacher-learner interaction focusing on TT and its effects on learners' involvement, we seek now to answer the question: to what extent teachers are self aware about their language use and its impact on learners' contributions. We have administrated a questionnaire and analysed it. We will discuss the questionnaire results according to the classroom observation data in order to reveal what teachers actually do and what they think they do in the classroom. That is to say, how much aware they are.

## 4.2. Comparing the Questionnaire Data to the Classroom Observation Data

We will seek to reveal teachers' awareness of their TT by comparing the questionnaire results to the classroom observation data.

As far as the first question is concerned, the teachers were asked whether they state clear pedagogical goals. What we observed in the classroom is that both teachers stated objectives for the lesson in the form of a lesson plan. That manifested awareness from the teachers' side about the importance of stating learning objectives in the learning process.

In question two, teachers were asked whether they link their objectives to their talk. Both teachers answered yes. As we have seen in the classroom observation, not all the talk was linked to pedagogical goals. Concerning T1, in the opening of the lesson, the warm up he chose did not lead him to reach his objectives. Language use and learning objectives did not coincide.

Question three deals with the teaching materials adopted by the teachers in delivering their lessons and reaching their objectives. We found that both teachers depend solely on the textbook as the only source to reach teaching goals.

In question four, teachers were asked to state the extent to which the activities chosen in the book serve their objectives. As we have seen in the questionnaire, T1 stated somewhat, while T2 claimed slightly helps. What we observed confirmed their answers. The two participant teachers were sometimes struggling in explaining the activities. They even were complaining about some tasks. Hence, both teachers are aware that the textbook does not serve their objectives. It does not facilitate the learning process all the time. However, both teachers depend only on the textbook which leads to wonder whether the teachers are forced

to follow only the textbook or they are not motivated to search for other materials to better serve their objectives. Those questions will be addressed in the interview.

Question five, as we mentioned before, is a broad question about encouraging learners to talk in the classroom. Both teachers stated that they encourage them to speak, but the classroom observation, on the other hand does not confirm their answers all the time. In other words, teachers think that they encourage their learners to talk to in the class; however, their actions do not interpret that most of the time that will be discussed in the coming points.

In question six concerning fair turn distribution, T1 answered that he gave fair distribution , while T2 stated that he did not. In fact, fair distribution of turns is completely absent. The teachers work with only a few learners. Most of the learners were neglected, especially those sitting in the back. In fact, in the secondary class situation with crowded classes and little time offered just one hour for English that would make fair turn distribution impossible. As observed , some learners are not motivated and interested at all to study; however, we still emphasize the role of the teacher in stimulating learners in the learning process.

Regarding question seven, teachers were asked about the type of questions they asked. Both teachers answered that they used all types of questions. In fact, teacher 1 used all the types of questions while teacher2 just used display questions in this lesson and other lessons as well.

In question eight, teachers were asked about the amount of the use of display questions. Both teachers answered that they use many of them. Their answers match the classroom observation data. Hence, teachers are aware of the overuse of display questions.

Concerning question nine, T1 answered that he used many referential questions. According to SETT grid, Teacher1 used twenty referential questions which are considered to be many. However, some of these questions were used as display questions, not interesting about

sharing their learners their beliefs but rather directing the discourse towards particular point. For T2, he answered that he used few. In fact, while observing his class, referential questions were almost absent. T2 rarely asked referential questions.

Regarding question ten, we found that both teachers are aware about the over use of closed questions. Both teachers agreed over the use of closed questions which match the classroom observation findings.

As regards question eleven, T1 stated that he used many divergent questions. In the classroom observation, we detect many of divergent questions used by the teacher. T2 stated that he used few divergent questions. In the classroom we did not detect any divergent questions. In fact, T2 deliberately avoided the use of “WH” questions.

The question thirteen was about using clarification requests. Both teachers stated that they always use clarification request, while in the lesson transcripts teachers used very limited ones.

For question fourteen, teachers agreed that they always check their learners' comprehension. In the observation of the classroom, no comprehension check was to be found. The teachers did not even ask whether the lesson was understood or whether or not everything was clear at all.

Question fifteen was about encouraging learners' initiating questions. T1 answered sometimes while T2 answered never. In fact, during our observation, we notice that none of them encourage their learners to ask them questions. No learner initiated question was detected, which implies that the discourse is controlled only by the teacher. That is to say, it is only the teachers' questions which dominate the interaction, with no room offered to the learner to gain little control of the discourse.

Concerning question eighteen about providing positive feedback, both teachers answered that they always used positive feedback which goes along with our observation. We found that both teachers used positive feedback “very good” as a strategy for providing feedback

In the last three questions about error correction, T1 stated that he corrected the error directly while T2 stated that he asks the learner to correct themselves. In fact concerning error correction, it was difficult to compare their answers to the classroom observation since we did not detect any error or error correction from the both parts, except in T1 classroom in which detect one error that was corrected directly by himself.

From all the discussion above, we came to the conclusion that both teachers are aware about the over use of display questions as well as closed ones, providing positive feedback and stating objectives for their lessons before teaching. However, they displayed little or no awareness about the use of comprehension checks, clarification checks, turn distribution, learners’ initiated questions which all encourage learners to talk. T1 displayed awareness about the use of all types of questions which is absent for T2.

Now we move to discuss the findings of the stimulated recall interview to know about the extent to which teachers are aware about the effect of TT on learners’ contributions.

### **4.3. Discussion of the Findings of the Stimulated Recall Interview**

During the stimulated recall interview, we detected two aspects when analyzing teachers’ comments towards their classroom practices, notably, in their talk. The two aspects are: justifying their decision-making and critical self-evaluation.

Concerning justifying decision-making, both teachers clarified the use of display questions, providing positive feedback, teacher echo and their objectives with the use of the

textbook. This shows that teachers were using such decisions consciously which indicates awareness from the teachers part. However, teachers were not aware about the impact of many features of their teacher talk on learning opportunities which resulted in a critical self-evaluation. In fact, teachers admitted that they were not aware about elaborating learners' responses, seeking for clarification, interacting with some learners while neglecting others, the wait time given after the question as well as the amount of their talk comparing to learner talk. Teachers claimed that this experience helped them in gaining understanding about their talk, interaction and learners' involvements promising to be more aware of those features in the coming lessons.

After examining classroom interaction issues, we seek now to provide pedagogical implications with a view to overcoming such problems and enhancing learning environment.

#### **4.4. Pedagogical Implications**

To address the above issues, some possible solutions are suggested as follows:

##### **4.4.1. Encouraging More Students to Participate in the Whole Class Teaching**

To give students more opportunities to participate in the whole class teaching portion of a lesson, teachers should nominate more students to try answering a question, instead of just giving the answer immediately after several initiations or clues.

##### **4.4.2. Making the Teaching Materials Relevant for the Learners**

Making learning stimulating and enjoyable presenting tasks in a motivating way and setting specific learner goals.

##### **4.4.3. Giving 'Quality' Feedback**

It is the feedback given in reaction to pupil responses which either opens or restricts classroom interaction'. Therefore, instead of giving feedback that either positively or

negatively evaluates students' responses only, teachers should also give some 'quality' feedback which encourages students to expand upon or further elaborate their original responses so that they will give much longer and syntactically more complex responses and 'higher levels of interaction and cognitive engagement' can be promoted. To bring about more dialogic forms of whole class teaching, teachers should ask pupils to expand their thinking, justify or clarify their opinions' in the follow-up moves. In the grammar lessons, for example, this can be achieved by asking the pupils to justify how they come up with the answers, instead of just expecting them to give the answers. Teachers can also use the word 'and' or 'so' after repeating students' answers to signal the students to elaborate more of their answers.

Concerning Positive feedback, as demonstrated in the present study, is not only preferred by the teacher involved in this examination but also receive a great deal of support from the students. Negative feedback, on the other hand, receives almost no support from the students. Positive feedback is an effective technique for increasing motivation of FL learning. A teacher who provides encouraging feedback is much more likely to get students motivated to learn and to participate in class, and will help to create a warm, relax atmosphere in the classroom. It is believed that learners' confidence and courage will be fostered in a friendly atmosphere, and increasing motivation will encourage greater effort on the part of learners and as a result, a greater success in language performance. Therefore, teachers are expected to enhance learners' motivation through providing positive feedback wherever necessary. As achievement motivation theory demonstrates (Dornyei, 2007) when the learners' motive to achieve success is stronger, his interest in achievement-oriented activity would be increased; on the contrary, when the learners' motive to avoid failure is stronger, all interest in achievement-oriented activity would be inhibited .So it is necessary for teachers to provide appropriate feedback to learners' classroom performances. When problems occur in learners'

communication, teachers should encourage them to overcome these difficulties. Moreover, it should be attached great importance to the idea that negative feedback is an undesirable behavior for teachers to follow. But it is worth noting that teachers should not only give positive feedback. It is true that positive feedback tends to encourage, but negative feedback, if given supportively and warmly, will be recognized as constructive, and will not necessarily discourage. Moreover, very frequent approval would lose its encouraging effect on learners' classroom behavior. The giving of praise can easily be devalued through overuse.

#### **4.4.4. More Open and Referential Questions Should be Asked**

Apart from the simple yes/no questions, and closed and display questions, more open and referential questions should be asked to 'move beyond yes/no or simple recall to extended answers involving reasoning, hypothesising and thinking aloud' so that students can engage in authentic communication. Teachers' questioning techniques should be improved.

#### **4.4.5. Shifting the Teacher-Centered Classroom to Student-Centered Classroom**

The results of this research indicate that the classes under this investigation are still teacher-dominated class. the teachers still play the authority role and consider less the learners' needs. In student-centered classrooms, the student centered classroom can provide more opportunities for students to practice the TL, thus can better prompt English language learning and teaching. So the teachers should change their belief, shifting the teacher-centered classroom into student-centered classroom.

It is worth noting that a learner-centered classroom is not one in which the teacher hand over power, responsibility, and control to the students in a unilateral way. Nor does it involve devaluing the teacher. Rather, it is one in which students are actively involved in the whole learning process so that they can gradually assume greater responsibility for their own learning. Two suggestions for learner-centeredness are put forward here.

First of all, changing the role of teacher and establishing a new teacher- student relationship. Teachers are a medium of teaching. It is the teachers' responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for classroom activities. Guidelines for classroom practice suggest that during an activity the teacher monitors, encourages and organizes the students and provides them with information of each particular course and strategy of learning. In addition to the two primary roles as organizers and facilitators, according to Richards (1995), teachers should fulfill the following roles: monitor, motivator ,controller, provider, counselor and friend, needs analyst, materials developer, evaluator. By contrast, the students are viewed as a subject of teaching who play a creative role by responding to stimuli from the teacher.

Secondly, the students' needs should be taken into consideration. Teachers should have a better understanding of the students. Since the students play the main role in learning, teachers should care much about their needs, motivation, personal factors and their role in learning. Only when teachers and students work together as happy partners, only when we think of students as the most important ingredients in the teaching learning process and adapt the teaching approaches to students and to their circumstances, can teachers manage teaching successfully.

#### **4.4.6.Improving Teachers' Awareness Toward TT**

There exist a lot of factors affecting teaching quality. For many years, teachers just focus on the learning of teaching methods and techniques. Most of them just follow or imitate the fashionable teaching method or technique. As a result, they only copy the superficial forms, but miss some essential elements of teaching. TT, the most important factor a successful class depends on, is always neglected. In the actual teaching, few teachers are aware of the importance of TT and use it unconsciously, they know little about the forms of teacher talk and most of them just follow other teachers. Different forms of TT bring different effects:

positive feedback can create a warm, encouraging classroom atmosphere that prompts learners; referential questions can elicit students to produce more complex, meaningful sentences than display questions, thus lead them to attaining a much higher language proficiency. It was found that the teachers receiving training in question types produced significantly more referential questions than the control teachers following training. (Chaudron, 1988, p. 174) So if teachers know much about TT, and choose its appropriate forms consciously, the dull atmosphere in the classroom will disappear and the teaching quality will be improved. Teachers should persist in the study of teaching and learning theory and place teacher-training in its proper place. At the same time, a good teacher must integrate the teaching theory with practice. Teacher talk is the medium to combine theory with classroom practice. It will contribute a lot to the successful classroom language teaching if teachers know about the theoretical knowledge including TT.

## **Conclusion**

In this chapter, we sought to provide answers and solutions to the problems that lead us to conduct this research. We found that TT affects learning opportunities. It can hinder and obstruct, as well as it can facilitate and construct if teachers are more aware about their talk and their decisions-making in the moment-by-moment of the interactional construction of their classrooms. The teacher plays a crucial role in shaping his learners' contributions. Hence, awareness should be promoted.

## **5.Limitations of the Study**

As far as this research is concerned, there are many limitations:

1. We have worked just with two teachers and one lesson for each, which is considered to be very limited data. Hence, this work cannot be generalized.

2. We dealt with teacher talk only from the verbal side. That is to say, we were interested only in analyzing teacher's speech, not the gestures or even the affective side of the teacher.
3. Our presence in the observation process may act as an obstacle. The teachers, knowing that they are being observed and recorded, would not teach in their usual way.
4. Our work stops in raising awareness. It does not go beyond to reveal whether teachers made changes they promised to make or not.

## **6. Suggestions for Further Research**

Due to the limitations of the study, we suggested further research about the following issues:

We found that activities are melted with TT. The activities used by the teacher in the textbook are suggested or imposed by the ministry of education. We can conduct a research about the effects of the activities in the textbook on learner's production of language, whether the tasks provided to the learner help in promoting learner's practice of English and in what way we can design activities that can help to foster our learners' production.

Since this research can be embraced within teacher education field. We can search about the programmes devoted for teacher education in Algeria. In what ways we can enhance them and make them applicable.

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

The aim of the carried out research is to answer the questions raised in the Introduction. These are: what are the patterns of TT operating in the secondary classroom? To what extent does teacher talk hinder or facilitate learning opportunities? To what extent are teachers self-aware about their talk patterns and their impact on their learners' contributions? Our aim is to raise teachers' awareness about the interactional discourse of their classrooms, by examining the different interactional features of their talk, and their impact on learners' contributions. We aimed as well to suggest recommendations with a view to improving the quality of teacher talk and, therefore, improving the quantity and the quality of learners' involvements.

At the theoretical level, we have attempted to shed light on the relationship between input, interaction, output and learning opportunities, in all of which the teacher plays a crucial role. We reviewed a sample of the literature on class-based SLA, examining the role of input, negotiated interaction and output in the learning process. In fact, interaction in the L2 classroom is fundamental to language acquisition. That is, if interaction is to promote meaningful learning, it has to be mediated, drawing on sociocultural theory. The prime responsibility for creating interaction-centered learning opportunities lies with the teacher. The latter plays a critical role in understanding, establishing and maintaining patterns of communication that foster classroom learning.

Since the teacher plays a crucial role in creating and maintaining interaction, our second theoretical chapter spots light on classroom discourse, notably, TT. It describes its different features their impact on learners' involvement. Then, the chapter moves to investigate the different approaches for analyzing classroom discourse starting with Interaction Analysis approaches that aim to examine classroom interaction quantitatively using predetermined coding schemes to Discourse Analysis and Conversation Analysis approaches that seek to

study classroom interaction qualitatively. Besides these approaches, a Variable Approach for investigating classroom interaction was introduced, exemplified in the framework of SETT.

We moved from investigating TT patterns theoretically to the practical part. We sought to examine teacher-learner interaction, focusing on the ways in which teachers, through their talk, can create or hinder learning opportunities. We utilized three methods in collecting our data. We conducted a classroom observation of two teachers who claimed the inadequacy of their learners' output for two months. The classes were video-recorded, transcribed and analyzed with view to discovering the problems of interaction owing to the TT. As a second method used in collecting the data, a questionnaire was administered to the two teachers in order to find out about the patterns of teacher talk, teachers believe they use in the classroom. We concluded our data collection conducting stimulated recall interview, in which the teacher justified the use of such patterns of teacher talk in order to examine his awareness about the impact of their talk on learners' participation.

The classroom observation findings showed that teachers talk most of the time: asking questions, giving feedback, clarifying learners' contributions that did not help so much in involving learners to practice and produce the language. The questionnaire along with the stimulated recall interview revealed that teachers display little awareness about the patterns of their teacher talk and the effects of specific features like questioning techniques and feedback on learning opportunities.

Hence, in order to raise teacher's interactional awareness, some pedagogical implications were provided. Teachers should improve their questioning techniques, trying to use more referential and open ended questions to encourage their learners to practice the language. Teachers should as well provide quality feedback that aims to elaborate their learners' contributions by asking more for clarifications that leads to the extension of learners' turns. In all, teachers should raise their awareness about their teacher talk by reflecting upon

their practices so that learning would move to the top gear. The research ends with suggesting further research about promoting teachers' awareness and enhancing the quality of interaction and , therefore, learning.

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Appendix 1 : Foreign Language interaction Analysis( FLINT)system

TEACHER TALK	INDIRECT INFLUENCE	<p>1. DEALS WITH FEELINGS: In a non-threatening way, accepting, discussing, referring to, or communicating understanding of past, present, or future feelings of students.</p> <p>2. PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES: Praising, complimenting, telling students why what they have said or done is valued. Encouraging students to continue, trying to give them confidence. Confirming answers are correct.</p> <p>2a. JOKES: Intentional joking, kidding, making puns, attempting to be humorous, providing the joking is not at anyone's expense. Unintentional humor is not included in this category.</p> <p>3. USES IDEAS OF STUDENTS: Clarifying, using, interpreting, summarizing the ideas of students. The ideas must be rephrased by the teacher but still recognized as being student contributions.</p> <p>3a. REPEATS STUDENT RESPONSE VERBATIM: Repeating the exact words of students after they participate.</p> <p>4. ASKS QUESTIONS: Asking questions to which an answer is anticipated. Rhetorical questions are not included in this category.</p>
	DIRECT INFLUENCE	<p>5. GIVES INFORMATION: Giving information, facts, own opinion or ideas, lecturing, or asking rhetorical questions.</p> <p>5a. CORRECTS WITHOUT REJECTION: Telling students who have made a mistake the correct response without using words or intonations which communicate criticism.</p> <p>6. GIVES DIRECTIONS: Giving directions, requests, or commands which students are expected to follow.</p> <p>6a. DIRECTS PATTERN DRILLS: Giving statements which students are expected to repeat exactly, to make substitutions in (i.e., substitution drills), or to change from one form to another (i.e., transformation drills).</p> <p>7. CRITICIZES STUDENT BEHAVIOR: Rejecting the behavior of students; trying to change the non-acceptable behavior; communicating anger, displeasure, annoyance, dissatisfaction with what students are doing.</p> <p>7a. CRITICIZES STUDENT RESPONSE: Telling the student his response is not correct or acceptable and communicating by words or intonation criticism, displeasure, annoyance, rejection.</p>
STUDENT TALK		<p>8. STUDENT RESPONSE, SPECIFIC: Responding to the teacher within a specific and limited range of available or previously shaped answers. Reading aloud.</p> <p>8a. STUDENT RESPONSE, CHORAL: Choral response by the total class or part of the class.</p> <p>9. STUDENT RESPONSE, OPEN-ENDED OR STUDENT-INITIATED: Responding to the teacher with students' own ideas, opinions, reactions, feelings. Giving one from among many possible answers which have been previously shaped but from which students must now make a selection. Initiating the participation.</p>
		<p>10. SILENCE: Pauses in the interaction. Periods of quiet during which there is no verbal interaction.</p> <p>10a. SILENCE-AV: Silence in the interaction during which a piece of audio-visual equipment, e.g., a tape recorder, filmstrip projector, record player, etc., is being used to communicate.</p> <p>11. CONFUSION, WORK-ORIENTED: More than one person at a time talking, so the interaction cannot be recorded. Students calling out excitedly, eager to participate or respond, concerned with task at hand.</p> <p>11a. CONFUSION, NON-WORK-ORIENTED: More than one person at a time talking, so the interaction cannot be recorded. Students out-of-order, not behaving as the teacher wishes, not concerned with the task at hand.</p>
		<p>12. LAUGHTER: Laughing, giggling by the class, individuals, and/or the teacher.</p> <p>e. USES ENGLISH: Use of English (the native language) by the teacher or the students. This category is always combined with one of the 15 categories from 1 to 9.</p> <p>n. NONVERBAL: Nonverbal gestures or facial expressions by the teacher or the student which communicate without the use of words. This category is always combined with one of the categories of teacher or pupil behavior.</p>



### Appendix 3 : Transcription system ( Walsh, 2006, p. 165)

T	teacher
L	learner (not identified)
L1: L2: etc.,	identified learner
LL	several learners at once or the whole class
/ok/ok/ok/	overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one learner
[do you understand?]	
[I see] }	overlap between teacher and learner
=	turn continues, or one turn follows another without any pause
...	pause of one second or less marked by three periods
(4)	silence; length given in seconds
?	rising intonation – question or other
CORrect	emphatic speech: falling intonation
((4))	unintelligible 4 seconds: a stretch of unintelligible speech with the length given in seconds
Paul, Peter, Mary capitals	are only used for proper nouns
<b>T organizes groups</b>	editor's comments (in bold type)

**Appendix 4 : SETT Grid (Walsh, 2006, p. 167)**

Features of teacher talk	Tally
scaffolding	
Direct repair	
Content feedback	
Extended wait-time	
Referential questions	
Seeking clarifications	
Confirmation checks	
Extended learner turn	
Teacher echo	
Teacher's interruption	
Extended teacher turn	
Turn completion	
Display questions	
Form-focused feedback	

## Appendix 5: T1's Lesson Transcript

1 T: Good morning everybody

2 L: Good morning

3 T: How are you?

4 LLL: Good thanks, and you?

5 T: I'm good. so tell me what is our religion? What is our religion?

6 LLL: Islam

7 T: Islam. So you are muslims. So during the whole year, we have one special moth.

One special moth, what is it? For muslims one special month...yes?=  
=

8 L: = Ramadan

9 T: Yes, what do you do in Ramadan? What do you do? (2)

10 L: Suhur

11 T: Yes, what do you eat?

12LLL: Shorba, bourek (**Laughing**)

13 L: Reading the Quran

14 T : Yes, very good reading the Quran

15 L: pray tarawih

16 T: Very good pray tarawih

17 L: ((...))

18 T : Not eating food is to fast, called fasting. Is that all? Do you visit your

Relatives? Your family?

19 LLL: Yes

20 T : Why?

21 L: صلة الرحم

22 T: For bringing relations close. What do you do for your neighbours ? people live

Near you. What do you do to them?

23 L: We offer food for them

24 T: Very good..offer food for them. What else?

What is the most special thing about Islam? What is the most special thing?

Why Allah has given us Islam?(7) yes? Why one single month in year is to

Make people fast? Why?yes?(7)

25 T: kind of worshipok? But it also to HELP other people. When the rich fast,

they feel the misery of the poor. They feel that they are in need for help,

ok?

26 LLL: Yes

27 T: Do you help others?

28 LLL: = Yes

29 T: How? What do you do? When you want to offer help what do you do? Yes?

What kind?

30 L: Give money

31 T: Give money yes very good, what else?

32 L: We give food

33 T: Food very good

34 L: Clothes

35 T: Give clothes, very good yes , Aziza?

36 L: The most important thing is to give advice

37 T: To give advice, why not, what else?

So all of thses are help. So when you want to provide help. I'm here

Can you help me?

38 LLL: No

39 T: So if I need help yes Imen

40 L: I help others in disasters

41 T: Very good... so when people need help, it depends. It may not be in disasters

But people need help which times we find so many people in help. When

disaster happens..did you watch TV? The events of Japan..what happened?

Tsunami and earthquake. What happened? Describe what happened? Yes?

What happened to the building?what happened to the people? Describe

what happened?

42 L: Tsunami

43 T: Yeah, what happened to the buildings?

44 L: They were broken

45 T: Destroyed..so the buildings were destroyed what else?

46 L: So many people die

47 T: So many people died yes..3400 people and the number is still increasing yes?

What else? For the cars? Yeah? What happened in the nuclear station?

48 L: The explosion

49 T: The explosion. It has exploded. Since these people are suffering.. people in Japan

50 T: Are suffering.. what can we do for them?

51 L: Help this people

52 T: We help these people, how? How can we help them? Yes? How to help those

People?yes? what can we do for them?

53 L: Doctors go to Japan

54 T : Yes, very good. doctors go to Japan.. to do what?

55 L: Medical care

56 T: Very good.. supply medical care. What else?

How can you help people in Japan?

57 L: Food

58 T: Provide food yes

59 L: Give money

60 T: Yes, to rebuild Japan ok...give money to help them build the country again

Yes? What else?

Sometimes even word helps, word of support to say that we are sorry for

You. This helps because it deal with psychological aspect, raise their spirit

ok? ok? do we have just those disasters? earthquake and tsunami what are

they? They are?

61 LLL: Disasters.

62 T : Very good. They are natural disasters. We have only natural disasters,

63 L: No

64 T: Yeah , what else? Generally we have two kinds of disasters natural and,?

Yes Aziz?

65 L: Natural or man-made disasters

66 T: Very good. We have man-made disasters means man is responsible for.

If you are smoking a cigarette, walking near a forest and you drop it.

If you set fire that is man made disasters very good.

Can you site examples for natural disasters?

67 L: Fire

68 T: It can be man made or natural

67 L: Flood

68 T: Yes floods what else? Examples of natural disasters?

69 L: Tsunami

70 T: Very good

71 L: Earthquake

72 T: Earthquake good what else? So you agree all that you are charitable

That you want to provide help. Since it must be organized, you

Cannot do it alone. You need people around you. That's why in the

world we find people who form groups in order to supply help ok?

those ..ok I'll draw for you and tell me ( drawing symbols on the

board)

73 LLL: Red cross

74 T: What is this?

75 LLL: Symbol

76 T: Very good. It is a symbol. Which symbol? Which symbol?

77 L: The red cross

78 T: The red cross very good (( writing on the board)) where do you find this

symbol? What does it symbolized? What does it symbolized? What does

it represent? Yes?

79 L: Organization

80 T: Yes, it represents organization(( writing on board))

## Appendix 6: T2's Lesson Transcript

1 T: This is a helping organization and this is another. what do they have in common?

What do they have in common?yes? what do all organization do?(3) it helps...?

2 L: = People

3 T: It helps people. Where? In what situations? In what situations?yes Faysal?

4 L: In disasters

5 T: In disasters like floods, volcanoes...you see?

It helps exactly people in?

In emergency situations ( **writing on the board**) in emergency situations

In emergency situations..good

6 T: People working there are they paid?

7 LLL: No

8 T: They are not paid. They work for free. They are not paid...so they are what?

They are volunteers ..since they are not paid they are?

9 LLL: Volunteers

10 T: Raise your hand..raise your hand

11 L: Volunteer

12 T: Volunteer....they do the job for free. He is not paid. He is not paid.

Yeah very good. in what situations exactly? So these organization, these two

Organizations..help people in emergency situations..can you list some of the

emergency situations? Can you list or site some of the emergency situations?

Yes?( 7)

13 T: Can you list some of the emergency situation? U know emergency situation?

(4) like earthquake.

14 L: Flood

15 T: Flood, very good..yes in flood.. where flood takes place.. those

organization is going to =?

16 L: = Help

17 T: To help people, help people how? How?(5)

By providing or supplying ...by providing what? By providing people with?

**( pointing to medical care written on the board)**

18 L: Medical care

19 T: Medical care what else?

20 L: Foods

21 T: Food, blanket..ah, yes.. what else? Yes please?yes? so this is some kind of

Solidarity..helping people is some kind of solidarity thank you.

Helping people is some kind of solidarity..solidarity,solidarity thank you

Write with me please. What do the symbols represent? This symbol? ( **Point in the red cross symbol on the board**)

22 L: The red crescent

23 T: The red crescent.. the second one?

24 L: The red cross

25 T: The rthis is the red cross which is the latter. So you write Fayçal the former represents the Red Cressent while the latter represents the red cross.

26 T : so what do they have in common?what do they have in common?

27 L: help people

28 T: yes, good. You write both organization help people in the emergency situations. Both organization help people in the emergency situations. Now “c”. do the people working for them get paid?yes?

29 LLL: No

30 T : No, they are volunteers. You write the people working for them are volunteers they are not paid.

31 T: now in what situations in people’s lives do they operate?yes? what did we say?

32 L : in earthquakes

33 T: yes, all this we called it? What? Emergency situations. So they operate in emergency situations. Emergency situations. Write Fayçal they operate in emergency situations. Write this on your copybook then read the text ok?

34 LLL: yes

## **Appendix 7: Teachers' Questionnaire:**

Dear Colleague,

We would greatly appreciate your taking the time to complete our questionnaire.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn about the quality as well as the quantity of your teacher talk. Your individual responses and your school's combined results will remain confidential. Please, tick the answer that best corresponds with your opinion

1- do you state clear pedagogical goals to accomplish before you start the lesson?

a- Yes

b- No .

2- Do you link your teacher talk to your pedagogical teaching objectives?

a- Yes

b- No

3- From where do you choose your activities?

a- The textbook

b- Other materials

4- to what extent do the activities chosen from the textbook help you reach your Objectives?

a- Entirely

b- Largely

c- Somewhat

d- Slightly

e- Not at al

5- to what extent do you encourage your learners to talk in the class?

a- Entirely

b- Largely

c- Somewhat

d- Slightly

e- Not at all

6- do you give fair distribution to all your learners?

a- Yes

b- No

7- what are the types of questions you ask in the class?

a- Display questions ( to which you already know the answer)

b- Referential questions ( to which you do not know the answer)

c- Closed questions ( require very short answers)

d- Open ended questions (require long answers)

8- how many display questions do you ask in the classroom?

a- Too many

b- Many

c- Few

d- Too few

9- how many referential questions do you ask in the classroom?

a- Too many

b- Many

c- Few

d- Too few

10- how many closed questions do you ask in the classroom?

a- Too many

b- Many

c- Few

d- Too few

11- how many open-ended questions do you ask in the classroom?

a- Too many

b- Many

c- Few

d- Too few

12- do you think that your explanation is clear and suitable for your pupils' level?

a- Yes

b- No

13- how often do you ask for clarifications from your pupils?

a- Always

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

d- Never

14- how often do you check your pupils' comprehension?

a- Always

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

d- Never

15- do you encourage pupils' initiated questions?

a- Yes

b- No

16- do you wait little after asking questions?

a- Yes

b- No

17- how often do you provide positive feedback?

a- Always

b- Sometimes

c- Rarely

d- Never

18- do you correct your pupils' errors?

a- Yes

b- No

19- who corrects the error?

a- The teacher

b- The learner himself

c- The class

20- how do you correct the error?

a- Immediately

b- Modeling

We welcome your feedback. Please write any suggestions or comments in the space provided on the back of the answer sheet. Thank you very much for your participation in this study.



## Appendix 8 : Teacher’s pre- questionnaire

Dear Colleague,

We would greatly appreciate your taking the time to complete our questionnaire.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn about the quality of interaction and learners’ participation in your class. Your individual responses and your school's combined results will remain confidential. Please, tick the answer that best corresponds with your opinion

Q1 : how do you describe your classroom interaction?

.....  
 .....

Q2: how do you describe your learners’ production

.....  
 .....

Q3: whether good interaction or bad, what do you think this is due to?

.....  
 .....

Q4: Is it likely that your teacher talk affects your learners’ production?

.....  
 .....

Q5: do you reflect about your teaching when you finish your lesson?

.....  
 .....

Q6: would you like to find out about your teacher talk and its impact on your learners?

## ملخص البحث:

يهدف هذا العمل إلى رفع درجة وعي المدرس بخطابه خلال العملية التفاعلية مع طلابه في أقسام التعليم الثانوي، ولأجل هذا اعتمدنا ثلاث طرائق: لاحظنا درسا قدمه أستاذان وتم تصويره عن طريق شريط فيديو تمكننا من كتابة محتواه وتحليله كميًا ونوعيًا باستعمال جدول للتقييم الذاتي يخص حديث المدرس كما لجأنا إلى طريقة تحليل الحوار. كان الهدف من هذا البحث إيجاد الطرائق التفاعلية المختلفة والحديث أو الكلام الملقى في القسم ومدى تأثيرهما على المتعلم. تهدف الاستمارة التي أنجزناها والتي استلم منها الأستاذان نسخة إلى استبيان مدى وعي المدرس باستعماله للخطاب. وللتأكد من تحقق هذا الوعي زدنا الاستمارة السالفة الذكر بلقاء حوار يمكن الأستاذ أو المعلم من توضيح وتبرير ما اتخذ من قرارات داخل القسم وأثناء الدرس. تظهر النتيجة التي توصلنا إليها أن المعلم خلال العملية التفاعلية يكثر من استعمال الأسئلة التي يملك أجوبتها ويقل من الأسئلة المرجعية كما يفتقر أدائه إلى التحقق من فهم المتعلم إضافة إلى إصراره في تصحيح ما هو خطأ. ولكل هذه العوامل أثر على عملية التعلم. وفي النهاية تبين لنا من خلال هذا البحث أن للمعلم قدرًا قليلًا من الوعي يؤثر مباشرة على اختيار نوعية الأسئلة التفاعلية وعلى التحصيل العلمي للطلبة على السواء. وفي الأخير نقدم بعض التداخلات البيداغوجية لتحسين نوعية الحديث الذي يختاره المعلم وتعزيز درجة الوعي لديه.

## Le Résumé :

Ce travail consiste à sensibiliser la prise de conscience chez les enseignants pendant leur performance en classe à travers leur interaction avec les apprenants en considérant le temps consacré à leur part d'interaction avec les apprenants par rapport à celle des élèves. Pour se faire trois méthodes ont été élaborées : Nous avons observé une classe ou deux enseignants participants ont été filmés sur une vidéo. Laquelle a été par la suite transcrite et analysée quantitativement et qualitativement en utilisant une grille pour l'auto-évaluation de la parole de l'enseignant ainsi que la méthode d'analyse de conversation. L'objectif était de détecter les différents modèles d'interaction, les discours donnés en classe et leur impact sur l'apprenant. Deux questionnaires ont été établis et remis aux enseignants participant ayant pour but de révéler à quel point l'enseignant est conscient de son discours pédagogique. / En vue de vérifier cette prise de conscience par l'enseignant, nous avons renforcé le questionnaire d'une interview lui permettant de clarifier et de justifier ses actions et ses décisions prises en classe. Le résultat obtenu démontre que l'interaction en classe est sujette à un usage exagéré de questions- dont la réponse est connue par l'enseignant-, peu de questions référentielles avec une absence remarquable de vérification de compréhension et son intervention immédiate pour corriger ses élèves. Tout cela produit un plus grand impact sur la procédure de l'apprentissage.

En somme, la recherche a révélé qu'il y'a peu de prise de conscience chez les deux enseignants, influençant ainsi par le choix de leurs questions a contribution de l'apprenant. En conclusion nous offrons quelques implications pédagogiques pour améliorer la qualité des discours de l'enseignant et de promouvoir sa prise de conscience.