

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF INTERACTION IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Education at the
UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER

by

ÖZLEM KAŞLIOĞLU

School of Education
University of Leicester

September 2003

Acknowledgements

I dedicate this work in loving memory of my grandfather Hüseyin Albuz.

I am grateful to my supervisor Dr. Kevin Armstrong, for his invaluable comments and careful reading of my thesis. I am also thankful to my former supervisor Dr. Angela Creese for her support.

I would like to thank my husband Erce and my family for their love and encouragement.

I am also thankful to my sponsor, the Turkish government, for giving me the opportunity to do my Ed.D.

Last but not the least, many thanks to the teachers who kindly participated in this study and shared their experiences with me, and Jonathan Westgate for his support.

Abstract

Language teaching still maintains its strong position in the way it contributes to empowering individuals on a personal, economic, cultural and global level. Since the 1980s the Communicative Approach has shaped the way languages are taught. It has emphasised identifying learners' needs and catering for these needs, meaningful learning and individual differences. Studies on language acquisition and classroom language learning are helping in the constant search for ways in which successful learning can be fostered in foreign language classrooms.

This study investigated foreign language classrooms in two mainstream secondary school settings –English and Turkish, to understand the ongoing practice in schools and explore the ways in which students get the opportunities for spoken practice of the target language.

The data, collected through structured observations, audio recording of lessons, field notes and teacher interviews, suggested that teachers dominate classroom talk, the opportunities for pair and group work are limited compared to the proportion of teacher-fronted lessons. In the English context, it was found that students' language is highly restricted in terms of the content and linguistic form they are expected to produce. In the Turkish context, students were found to engage in more extended talk and display creative use of the language. This study identified certain features of teacher talk as contributing factors to the quality and quantity of students' language production.

It is suggested that for the English context, the limitations of students' language production may be a result of the way the modern languages curriculum and schemes of work are designed, and that if the government is sincere about achieving its agenda to ensure economic success in international trade, access to global citizenship and for mutual understanding among cultures, the language curriculum and schemes of work may need to be revised, and learners and parents need to be informed about the empowering aspects of language learning. For the Turkish context, newly qualified teachers were found to face difficulties in facilitating student participation and creative use of the target language. Therefore, it was suggested that more research is necessary to identify the challenges they face, the type of departmental or external training support they may be needing, how much support is already provided or other teachers may be willing to provide. The implications of such a study point towards ensuring a certain quality of teaching in a consistent manner in schools.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. The Aim of the Study.....	3
1.2. Research Methods and the Participating Schools.....	4
1.3. Structure of the Thesis.....	5
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	7
Introduction: Issues on Communicating in the Language Classroom.....	7
Section 2.1 The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching.....	9
2.1.1 Introduction.....	9
2.1.2 Communicative Competence.....	10
2.1.3 The Communicative Approaches to Language Teaching.....	11
2.1.4. Grammar Teaching within a Communicative Approach.....	13
2.1.5. Summary.....	16
Section 2.2. Input and Second Language Acquisition Theories.....	17
2.2.1 Introduction.....	17
2.2.2 The role of Input in Second Language Acquisition.....	17
2.2.2.1. Behaviourist Views and Audiolingualism.....	18
2.2.2.2. Cognitive views and L2 learning.....	19
2.2.2.2.a. Second/foreign language learning and cognitive approach.....	22
2.2.2.3. Interactionist Views of Second Language Acquisition.....	22
2.2.2.3.1 Features of L1 input.....	23
2.2.2.3.2. 'Foreigner Talk'.....	24
2.2.2.3.3. The role of input and interaction in language acquisition.....	25
2.2.2.3.3.a. <i>Input Frequency</i>	26
2.2.2.3.3.b. <i>The relationship between comprehensible input and language acquisition</i>	26
2.2.2.3.3.c <i>Learner Output and Interactive Discourse</i>	29
2.2.3.4. Summary.....	31
Section 2.3 Input and interaction in the classroom and its significance.....	32
2.3.1 Introduction.....	32
2.3.2 The general characteristics of classroom discourse.....	33
2.3.3 Features of teacher talk.....	34
2.3.3.1 The amount of teacher talk and target language input.....	35
2.3.3.2. Teachers' speech modifications.....	35
2.3.3.3. Teachers' questions.....	36

2.3.3.4 Teachers' feedback.....	38
2.3.3.5. Summary.....	40
2.3.4 Classroom discourse and learner participation.....	41
2.3.4.1 Quantity and quality of learner participation.....	41
2.3.4.2. Students' interaction with teachers.....	43
2.3.4.3. Students' interaction with peers.....	44
2.3.4.4. Summary.....	46
Section 2.4 Conclusion to Chapter 2.....	48
 CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY.....	49
3.1 Introduction.....	49
3.2 The Aim of the Study and Research Questions.....	49
3.3 Research Approach.....	52
3.3.1 Case study.....	52
3.3.2 The Participating Schools.....	55
3.3.2.1 The Status of Foreign Languages in Britain and Turkey.....	58
3.3.3 Classroom Observation.....	60
3.3.3.1 Reliability and The Piloting Stage.....	63
3.3.3.2 Part A categories and coding decisions.....	64
3.3.3.3 Part B categories.....	67
3.3.3.4 The Process of Classroom Observation.....	71
3.3.3.5 Analysis of Audio-recorded lessons.....	72
3.3.3.6 Analysis of Part A.....	74
3.3.3.7 Field Notes.....	74
3.3.4. Teacher Interviews.....	74
3.4 Conclusion to Chapter 3.....	76
 CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.....	77
4.1 Introduction.....	77
4.2. The Corpus.....	78
4.3 The Macro-view of the Observed Classrooms.....	79
4.3.1. English FFL/GFL Lessons.....	80
4.3.2 Turkish EFL Classrooms.....	91
4.3.3 Cross-comparison of the findings and discussion.....	105

4.3.3.1.	Classroom participant organisation in FL classrooms.....	105
4.3.3.2	Language Focus of FL lessons.....	107
4.3.3.3	Skills involved in classrooms activities.....	117
4.4	The Amounts of Teacher and Student Participation in Classroom Interaction.....	117
4.4.1	The proportion of TT in the mother tongue to TT in the target language.....	120
4.4.2	The length of teacher turns.....	121
4.4.3	The purposes of teachers' use of L1 and L2.....	122
4.4.4	Teachers' reactions to the language that students produce.....	126
4.4.5	The proportion of teachers' pseudo questions to genuine questions.....	129
4.4.6	The quantity of students' speech and the proportions of L1 and L2 use.....	130
4.4.7	The length of students' turns.....	136
4.4.8	The issue of form restriction on students' turns.....	138
4.4.9	The issue of the predictability of students' turns.....	139
4.4.10	Students' reactions to the form or content of the language that other speakers produce.....	139
4.5	Discussion of Findings on Teacher and Student Participation in Classroom Interaction.....	142
4.5.1	Teacher talk as target language input.....	143
4.5.2	Teachers' discourse management.....	145
4.5.3	Teachers' questions.....	145
4.5.4	Teachers' feedback.....	147
4.5.5	Students' language production.....	149
4.6	Summary of Findings.....	154
CHAPTER 5:	CONCLUSION.....	156
5.1	Main findings.....	157
5.1.1	Classroom organisation and amount of teacher talk.....	158
5.1.2	Teacher talk as input provision.....	158
5.1.3	Teacher questions and feedback.....	159
5.1.4	Speaking opportunities in language classrooms.....	161
5.2	Implications of this study for language teaching and teacher training.....	162
5.3	Final remarks.....	165

BIBLIOGRAPHY.....166

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES AND CHARTS

Table 1	The Corpus.....	78
Table 2	Participant organisation in English FL classrooms.....	80
Table 3	Language focus of the lessons in English FL classrooms.....	82
Table 4	Skills involved in classroom activities in the English FL classrooms.....	89
Table 5	Participant organisation in Turkish EFL classrooms.....	92
Table 6	Language focus of the lessons in Turkish EFL classrooms.....	94
Table 7	Skills involved in classroom activities in the Turkish FL classrooms.....	99
Table 8	Teachers' utterances.....	120
Table 9	The Length of teacher turns.....	121
Table 10	Teachers' L1 use.....	122
Table 11	Teachers' L2 use.....	123
Chart 12	Information given by teachers.....	125
Chart 13	Teachers' reactions to students' language production.....	126
Table 14	Details of teacher responses to student utterances.....	127
Chart 15	Teachers' request types.....	130
Chart 16	The proportion of teacher-fronted interaction to pair/individual work.....	131
Table 17	Students' language use.....	132
Chart 18	The length of student turns.....	136
Chart 19	Proportion of teacher talk to student talk.....	137
Chart 20	Restrictions on students' language production.....	138
Chart 21	The unpredictability element in students' language.....	139
Table 22	Students' reaction to form.....	140
Table 23	Students' reaction to message.....	141
Table 24	Percentage values for the length of student turns.....	152

LIST OF TRANSCRIPTIONS

Transcript 1, B4, Year 10.....83

Transcript 2, B5, Year 1084

Transcript 3, B6, Year 1085

Transcript 4, B6, Year 10.....88

Transcript 5, B6, Year 9.....88

Transcript 6, T2, Year 9.....93

Transcript 7, T1, Year 8.....96

Transcript 8, T3, Year 997

Transcript 9, B4, Year 9.....99

Transcript 10, T2, Year 9.....101

Transcript 11, T1, Year 8.....102

Transcript 12, T3, Year 9.....104

Transcript 13, B5, Year 10.....104

Transcript 14, B4, Year 9.....109

Transcript 15, T1, year 8.....113

Transcript 16, T2, Year 9.....113

Transcript 17, B4, Year 9127

Transcript 18, T2, Year 9.....129

Transcript 19, T3, Year 9.....134

Transcript 20, T3, Year 9.....135

Transcript 21, T3, Year 9.....135

Transcript 22, T2, Year 9.....141

LIST OF APPENDICES

- Appendix 1: Ofsted Inspection Report
- Appendix 2: COLT Scheme –Part A
- Appendix 3: COLT Scheme –Part B
- Appendix 4: Sample Audio-recordings (English and Turkish lessons)
- Appendix 5: Coded Samples of Chart A and Chart B
- Appendix 6: Interview Questions
- Appendix 7: Sample writing worksheet
- Appendix 8: Sample cue-cards
- Appendix 9: Sample comprehension questions
- Appendix 10: Sample grammar worksheet
- Appendix 11: Sample vocabulary worksheet
- Appendix 12: National Curriculum Speaking Attainment Targets

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

B1-B6: British teachers
CLT: Communicative language teaching
COLT: The communicative orientation of language teaching
DfES: Department for Education and Skills
EFL: English as a foreign language
ES: English school
ESL: English as a second language
FFL: French as a foreign language
FL: Foreign language
GCSE: General Certificate of Secondary Education
GFL: German as a foreign language
HIGs: High input generators
IRF: Initiation –response –feedback
L1: Mother tongue
L2: second language / target language
LIGs: Low input generators
NS: Native speaker
NNS: Native speaker non-native speaker
OCR: Oxford Cambridge and RSA examinations board
OFSTED: Office for Standards in education
S: Student
SLA: Second language acquisition
Ss: Students
T: Teacher
T1-5: Turkish teachers
TL: Target language
TS: Turkish school
TT: Teacher talk

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

As the National Languages Strategy for England (2002:5) puts it, ‘languages contribute to the cultural and linguistic richness of society, to personal fulfilment, mutual understanding, commercial success and international trade and global citizenship’. In the 21st century, acquiring foreign language skills have become not an optional but an essential aspect of empowering oneself. Through learning languages, individuals can be better equipped for intercultural understanding, self-development prompted by access to a wide range of information sources, and for career prospects.

In Britain, as explicitly stated by their strategy report, the Government aims to ensure that languages take their proper place at the heart of initiatives, to further its wider social, economic and political agenda. For this purpose, the Government identifies several targets such as inspiring children from an early age to take an interest in languages, the expansion of Language Colleges, the development of Regional Languages Networks, and innovative schemes in the business sector.

In Turkey, the growing international relations with other countries on a political, economic and social level, and the status of the Turkish language, have boosted the interest in learning foreign languages, and the number of state and private institutions that provide language education. Foreign language skills, especially English, provide access to the developments in technology and science, which are vital in the knowledge society of this century. In addition, the ability to speak languages provides better career opportunities in the highly competitive recruitment market.

In both the British and the Turkish contexts, foreign language teaching is underpinned by the Communicative Approach. This approach gives priority to communication over other modes of language behaviour, highlights language functions and notions as alternative to structures, emphasises individuals and their needs, encourages genuine communication and creative language use in classrooms rather than participation in structured activities (Wilkins 1983).

In terms of successful language teaching, classroom language is also considered important. As Allwright (1984:156) says ‘everything that happens in the classroom

happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction'. Depending on their pedagogic purposes teachers prepare lesson plans and activities through which they accomplish their goals. In classrooms, interaction between teachers and students helps to achieve these set goals and activities. The emphasis of the recent approaches to language teaching on meaningful and creative communication practice have been strongly felt by practitioners. From a pedagogical perspective, several reasons may be given for the importance of communication practice in classrooms. It:

- provides a necessary and productive stage in the transfer of classroom learning to the outside world
- gives learners the opportunities to practice the language they might need in real life
- equips learners with the skills to solve communication problems
- aids learning through getting learners to communicate ideas that matter to them

(summarised from Allwright 1984:157)

The pedagogic aim of equipping learners with the necessary language skills and the continuous search for delivering better language education have prompted educational research to investigate language classrooms -especially the features of teachers' and students' speech- to inform and be informed by the classroom practices regarding the ways in which classroom communication may foster learners' language development. Teachers' and learners' speech and classroom interaction have been studied by means of interaction analysis, discourse analysis and the analysis of teacher talk. The growing body of research on language classrooms, informed by these different approaches, have contributed to an understanding of various aspects of teachers' language and classroom interaction that may be beneficial for learners.

Given the complexity of language classrooms as research settings, although much more research still needs to be done, based on the findings so far, classrooms need to be a rich source of target language (TL) input, and the generation of input by means of classroom interaction contributes to learners' language development (Long 1985, Swain 1985, Ellis 1990). Teacher talk both serves as a main source of target language input, and as a primary means of creating opportunities for students' target language production in classrooms. It is argued that providing opportunities for language

production may enable learners to test their hypotheses about language, and encourage them to notice the gaps between the target language norm and the language they produce (Swain 1985). In addition, teacher questions and feedback are two important discourse features of teachers' speech in terms of their effect on students' language production. The studies on classroom interaction and participants' language highlight the importance of communication as a contributing factor to language development.

Nunan (2001) says there is still comparatively little research that is actually carried out in language classrooms. Research comparing different educational settings is also very limited. Given the belief that the generation of input by means of classroom interaction contributes to learners' language development and that the quality of teachers' language can facilitate students' participation in classroom discourse, this study investigated and compared classroom interaction in two different educational settings. The purpose of this study was to analyse and compare the spoken interaction between teachers and students in foreign language classrooms in Britain and Turkey at secondary school level in mainstream education. It was intended that the detailed comparative accounts of classroom processes and the interactions in English and Turkish contexts may contribute to an understanding of the ongoing teaching and learning in classrooms, and may highlight certain aspects of teachers' speech that facilitate students' active involvement in using the target language creatively.

1.1. The Aim of the Study and Research Questions

The necessity to provide learners with the opportunities for language production has been highlighted by recent approaches to language teaching. It is mainly the teachers who determine the quantity and quality of student participation in classrooms. Although various features of teachers' and students' speech and interaction between participants have been identified, classroom based data needs to be collected at different intervals in order for research to be informed about the ongoing processes of teaching and learning in classrooms. In addition to exploring certain characteristics of classroom interaction, more research work is needed to understand how many speaking opportunities are given to students and how teachers in different contexts facilitate students' participation. Therefore the main purpose of this study is to analyse

and compare the spoken interaction between teachers and students in foreign language classrooms in England and Turkey at secondary school level in mainstream education. In relation to the aim, this study attempts to:

- compare English and Turkish language classrooms on the level of activities, classroom participant organisation styles, language focus of the activities and the materials used
- investigate certain features of teachers' language to understand how teacher utterances contribute to students' participation in classroom discourse
- investigate how students participate in classroom discourse

The type of activities tackled in language classrooms and the amount of pair/group work compared to teacher-fronted work have an effect on the quality and quantity of language that students produce. Since this study attempts to compare two different educational settings, it is especially important to provide details regarding the classrooms (activities and the language focus, participant organisation and materials). It is intended that the provision of this detailed information may contribute to an understanding of classroom interaction in the investigated settings.

1.2. Research Methods and the Participating Schools

In order to investigate the questions above, language lessons were observed, audio recorded, detailed field notes were taken and teachers were interviewed. Observational data was collected through the use of a systematic observation schedule. For the purposes of identifying the interactional features, audio-recorded lessons were later subjected to quantitative and qualitative analysis. During the analysis stage, field notes were used as a means of contributing relevant information that may have been impossible to pick up by audio recorders and as a source of descriptive data. Teachers were interviewed formally and informally to have an understanding of their views and purposes, and data regarding these interviews are presented in the relevant sections of this thesis.

From each setting, two secondary schools were selected for this study. The school in Britain is a community college which provides a good standard of language education according to the Ofsted inspection report (see Appendix 1). The majority of the students are fourth generation British Asians. The school in Turkey is a state school (anadolu lisesi) that is perceived to provide a good level of language education. The school is free; therefore, students from different socio-economic backgrounds have access to the school. From both schools, a total number of 63 lessons of 11 teachers were observed. 27 lessons (each 60 minutes) of French as a Foreign Language (FFL) and German as a Foreign Language (GFL) from the British secondary school, and 36 lessons (each 40 minutes) of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) from the Turkish secondary school were observed. Based on the audio-recordings of the lessons, the interactions that occurred in 21 lessons given by 6 teachers were subjected to detailed analysis. Of the participating 11 teachers, 5 teachers were interviewed.

1.3. Structure of the Thesis

The main body of this thesis is divided into five main chapters. The Introduction, Chapter 1, briefly states the aims of research, methodology and provides information regarding the context of the study and the structure of the thesis. The theoretical background reviewed in Chapter 2, lends support to the significant role of teachers' foreign language use and classroom interaction as contributing factors to learners' language development. Two major issues are dealt with in the Literature Review: the communicative methodology and the significance of input and interaction in relation to language learning. Firstly, the characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching are reviewed and the implications of this approach on classroom teaching and learning are discussed. Secondly, theories that seek to explain the role of input and interaction in language acquisition are considered. Thirdly, the relationship between classroom interaction and language learning is discussed, with specific focus on the role of teachers and students as discourse participants, on the basis that comprehension and internalisation of language input is facilitated by classroom interaction (Allwright 1984, Ellis 1984).

Chapter 3, Methodology, explains the research purpose and questions, and the research contexts in detail. It addresses the research approach and techniques undertaken in this study within a research methods literature framework. This is followed by a description of the piloting, data collection and analysis procedures. This chapter also includes a discussion of the coding categories and the changes that have been made to the observation scheme used in this study.

The Analysis and Discussion, Chapter 4, presents results from data gathered through systematic observation, field notes, quantitative and qualitative analysis of classroom interaction and teacher interviews. First of all, it reports data regarding the features of lessons on the level of activities, and compares and discusses the two settings. Secondly, it provides quantitative results of the analysis of spoken interaction, and discusses these results in light of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. The discussions are illustrated by transcribed excerpts from lessons, and teachers' views are also provided where appropriate. Numerical data generated by quantitative analysis are presented in tables and graphs. The Final chapter, Conclusion, summarises and provides an overview of the main outcomes of this study and draws out implications for classroom practice.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction: Issues on Communicating in the Language Classroom

In language classrooms, teachers and students engage in speech encounters, communicate information and maintain verbal interaction through the use of spoken language, which has both social and pedagogical functions. As Hall and Verplaetse (2000:10) point out, 'language learning is a social enterprise, realised primarily through classroom interaction'. Moreover, the interaction process between teachers and students has been considered critical, as it is believed to have an effect on the development of learners' target language skills (Long 1985, Swain 1985). Given the importance of spoken interaction between discourse participants, this study sets out to investigate classroom interaction in foreign language classrooms in England and Turkey. Its main concerns are:

- providing a description of teacher and student speech in both contexts
- making connections between teachers' language and the quality of student participation in both contexts
- providing a comparison of the interaction in the two contexts.

This Chapter addresses the theoretical framework for the study. First of all, Section 2.1 looks at Communicative Language Teaching as the current approach to language teaching. It aims to present the emphasis that this approach gives to the roles of teachers and learners in language classrooms. Secondly, Section 2.2 focuses on different views that have sought to explain how learners process input and acquire a second language, and how these issues are related to the classroom foreign language teaching and learning context. A classroom is an important source for target language input, especially in foreign-language classroom contexts. Therefore, Section 2.2 deals with the issue of input, various views on how learners process input, theories that aim to explain the relationship between input, interaction and language acquisition, and views on how learners' language production benefit their interlanguage development. Finally, the third Section of this chapter (2.3) deals with the relationship between classroom interaction and second language learning. It presents the general characteristics of classroom discourse, the characteristics of classroom discourse that

make it distinct from other types of discourse found in non-classroom settings, and features of teacher and student speech in the classroom.

Section 2.1 The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching

2.1.1 Introduction

Communicative ability has always been a common goal of foreign language learning regardless of the teaching approaches used. Nevertheless, since the 1970s the implications of the word ‘communicative’ have been explored more explicitly, which has opened up a wider perspective on language teaching and learning. The ‘communicative’ label means that a language is not only considered in terms of structure but also the communicative functions it serves. In terms of language teaching ‘communicative’ means that it is not sufficient to teach the structures of a language, and that language teaching should involve the use of real-life situations so that learners can perform communicative functions -resulting in more meaningful language learning. The language teaching view that is associated with the emphasis on a communicative perspective has been known as the Communicative Approach.

Since the 1970s, the developments in language teaching methodology have been substantiated by the communicative approach. This research study set out to investigate and compare classroom language and teacher-student interaction in foreign language (FL) classrooms in two Secondary contexts:

- French/German as a foreign language classrooms in Britain
- English as a foreign language classrooms in Turkey

Although there are differences in classroom practices, which will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4, the communicative methodology is the main approach to language teaching in both contexts. Therefore, Section 2 will review the implications of the communicative approach on classroom FL teaching and learning. The aim of this section is to contribute to the formation of a framework that presents the complex factors that contribute to an understanding of classroom communication. Consequently, this framework will shape the research approach and interaction analysis carried out in this research study.

This section on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) will first attempt to review communicative competence as a key issue in CLT, and then summarise the main implications of the communicative approach on classroom FL teaching and learning. Since the issue of ‘form focus’ within a communicative methodology has been the subject of an ongoing debate, and the two contexts of this study have different approaches to form focus, this section will also attempt to review the literature on form focus within CLT.

2.1.2. Communicative Competence

Communicative Competence is a key issue that underpins the recent approaches to language teaching. The terms ‘competence’ and ‘performance’ were introduced in modern linguistics by Chomsky (1965), who uses these terms in both a weak sense and a strong sense. In its weak sense, ‘competence’ refers to the knowledge about a language, while ‘performance’ refers to the actual use of the language. In its stronger sense, the term ‘competence’ concerns the linguistic system that an ideal native-speaker of a language has internalised, while ‘performance’ involves the psychological factors that have a role in the perception and production of speech. Based on the stronger perspective, a theory of competence can be seen as equivalent to a theory of grammar that is concerned with the linguistic rules that can generate the grammatical sentences of a language (Canale and Swain 1980).

Chomsky’s emphasis on linguistic competence was criticised by Hymes (1979) who argued that linguistic competence represented only part of what one needs to know to be a competent language user. Hymes emphasised that speakers of a language also need to know how language is used by members of a speech community to accomplish their purposes, in order to be able to communicate effectively in a language. In his argument for including sociocultural features of language, Hymes (1979:19) proposed four aspects of communicative competence:

- Whether something is formally *possible* which corresponds to Chomsky's grammatical competence
- Whether something is *feasible* which is concerned with psychological factors and memory limitation
- Whether something is *appropriate* in the context in which it is said

- Whether something is in fact *performed*, and how often.

This idea that being a competent user of a language requires not only the acquisition of grammatical knowledge but also the knowledge of using the language forms in a socially appropriate way, contributed to the widely accepted realisation that the same applies for foreign/second language learning. Thus, communicative competence has been widely discussed in the literature on language and language teaching. Based on this idea, different models of communicative competence have been proposed, to establish a theoretical background that formed the basis of Communicative Language Teaching. For example, Canale and Swain (1980) propose a communicative competence model that comprises the following:

- Grammatical competence: the knowledge of language rules
- Sociolinguistic competence: the ability to use the appropriate forms of the target language in given social contexts
- Discourse competence: the ability to combine meanings with acceptable spoken/written texts.
- Strategic Competence: the skill to use various strategies to overcome the difficulties and problems that may occur while communicating intended meaning in the target language.

They define communicative competence as the realisation of the above competencies in the actual production and comprehension of utterances. This study will also adapt Canale and Swain's definition of communicative competence, unless otherwise stated.

Communicative competence applied to foreign/second language learning contexts brought the recognition that in addition to the teaching of formal aspects of a language (e.g. grammar, vocabulary), learners should be taught how to use appropriate language in different social contexts.

2.1.3 The Communicative Approaches to Language Teaching

Based on the idea of communicative competence, communicative approaches have identified certain characteristics that language teaching should employ in classrooms. First of all, merely concentrating on the teaching of language forms is considered

inadequate and teachers are advised to include social context and situation to teach the use of contextually appropriate language. A communicative approach is organised on the basis of communicative functions (such as apologising, describing, inviting etc) that learners need to know, and emphasises the way in which particular grammatical forms may be used to express these functions (Canale and Swain 1980). Thus, CLT makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. Fluency is also favoured over accuracy. Teachers are encouraged to give more initiative to learners, to find ways of actively involving students in the classroom processes (such as setting up tasks and activities where the students could play a major role, while the teacher took the monitor role). Since the general goal is student performance, teachers are advised to step back and observe after setting up exercises. Individual learning differences are emphasised over lockstep teaching (in which all students proceed through the same materials at the same pace). Regarding lesson materials, it is suggested that materials need to reflect a wide range of language use, and that these materials should be used in a task-oriented way instead of an exercise-oriented one. CLT suggests that the use of materials should integrate the use of four language skills, instead of an isolated practice of any one skill (Maley 1986). Kumaravadivelu's (1993) description captures the key ideas associated with the communicative approach:

‘...a communicative classroom seeks to promote interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning. This means learners ought to be active, not just reactive, in class. They should be encouraged to ask for information, seek clarification, express an opinion, agree and/or disagree with peers and teachers. More importantly, they should be guided to go beyond memorised patterns and monitored repetitions in order to participate in meaningful interaction.’

(p.12)

The application of the communicative approach to teaching is considered to be more motivating, because learners are able to learn and use language that is relevant to their needs, and they are equipped with the necessary skills to tackle the language in the real world. In addition, there is the possibility that an increased responsibility to participate may improve students' confidence in using the target language.

The suggestions reviewed so far have defined the main expectations and practices of CLT. Although it is possible to take a strong or weak line on CLT, Nunan (1987:136) says that there is a tendency to associate non-communicative practices with grammatical focus, error correction, extensive use of drill and controlled practice, and interaction that is pseudo-communicative. On the other hand, some researchers advocate a 'weak' approach arguing that drill and controlled practice are necessary in order to provide learners with the necessary skills for communicative language use (Littlewood 1981, Seedhouse 1997). Indeed, there have been different approaches to communicative language teaching, in which, the emphasis put on grammatical, sociolinguistic or other areas of competence have varied. One of the most -and still-debated issues has been the position of grammar teaching within the communicative methodology, because, although the need to move away from isolated presentation and practise of grammar rules has been identified, there are different opinions regarding the incorporation of a focus on language form and meaning. The next subsection will aim to present the ongoing debate regarding form focus.

2.1.4. Grammar Teaching within the Communicative Approach

The question of whether and how to include grammar in FL instruction has been one of the major issues for classroom researchers. On one end of the continuum, some have viewed communicative language teaching as a message-related practice and therefore opposed any inclusion of form teaching. This position is also referred to as 'zero option'. It proposes the exclusion of grammar instruction for more naturalistic language use in classrooms and is suggested by some SLA researchers (Dulay and Burt 1973, Krashen 1982). This view considers participating in natural communication sufficient for the acquisition of grammatical competence. Others suggest different amounts of form focus. A less strict position on this matter is taking the view that more effective language learning takes place if emphasis is placed on getting one's meaning across rather than the grammatical accuracy of one's utterance. This view is based on the assumption that when a child is learning its mother tongue s/he also focuses on being understood rather than speaking grammatically, thus, the same could apply to second/foreign language learning situations. Doughty and Varela

(1998), for example, suggest minimal interruption to communication and limiting grammar focus to corrective feedback.

There have been different propositions on how teachers can combine form and accuracy with meaning and fluency. One of the suggestions is, as Stern (1983) proposes, moving along a continuum from form-based teaching to meaning-based instruction. Similarly DeKeyser (1998) advocates separate attention to grammar and subsequent integration of the provided knowledge in increasingly communicative activities. Another proposition is to note down errors that occur during a meaning-focused activity and then use these as input for form-focus. Allen (1983) on the other hand defines a three-level (structural, functional, experiential) curriculum model and argues that form and meaning based instruction can be incorporated into teaching at different degrees, according to the learners' needs and programme expectations. According to Long (1991, in Sheen 2002) grammar instruction may be of two types:

- Focus on form: drawing students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons where the main focus is on communication or meaning.
- Focus on formS: traditional teaching of discrete points of grammar in separate lessons.

Yet, as Doughty and Williams (1998) note, focus on form and focus on formS are not polar opposites.

It has been frequently expressed that grammatical competence is not a good predictor of communicative competence. For example, in favour of the 'zero option' the Communicational Teaching Project in southern India sought to demonstrate that when learners focus on meaning, they could acquire grammatical competence without any form-focused instruction (Ellis 1997). Beretta and Davies (1985 in Ellis 1997) compared classes that participated in the Communicational Teaching Project with control classes that were taught by structural-oral-situational method. The results suggested that those students who participated in the project did better on task-based tests, while the control classes did better on traditional structure tests. Lightbown (1983, in Ellis 1997) also compared experimental classes (French speaking children learning English by listening to tapes, extensive reading and without any grammar instruction) with students in the regular programme, where there is a focus on grammar. The findings suggested that the experimental group did less well in the

regular test programme. However, after three years there was evidence of superior grammatical development in the experimental group and they did better on a series of neutral tests. Yet, these learners were at an elementary stage of language development, therefore, the findings of this study cannot be interpreted to suggest that high levels of grammatical competence can be achieved without any grammar instruction. There have been various other studies that set out to compare grammar teaching with meaning focused instruction regarding their effectiveness on the development of learners' communicative competence. Savignon (1972 in Canale and Swain 1980), for example, compared the communicative and grammatical skills of three groups of students. All three groups had the same standard instruction but each group also had an additional hour per week devoted to communicative activities (the communicative competence group), cultural activities (the culture group) and grammar activities (the grammatical competence group). The test results suggested that although there were no significant differences among the groups regarding their grammatical competence, the communicative competence group scored higher than the other groups on communicative tests. Other studies have suggested similar findings (Tucker 1974, Upshur and Palmer 1974 in Canale and Swain 1980).

On the other hand, some theorists and researchers have argued that while grammatical competence may not be sufficient for the development of learners' communicative competence, moving away from accuracy and form in favour of fluency and meaning may also have disadvantages for learners' development. For example as Seedhouse (1997) points out, it may result in teachers' downgrading of expectations of the linguistic forms produced by the learners, and accepting every minimal pidginised interlanguage form the learners produce. It may also lead to fossilisation of learner errors. Another important point is that learners may need different kinds of input for comprehending messages and for grammatical knowledge. The issue of input will be addressed in detail in the next section. Regarding the rate of acquisition and ultimate level of achievement, research studies found that learners who receive grammar instruction outperform learners who do not (Krashen et al. 1978, Weslander and Stephany 1983, Ellis and Rathbone 1987, in Ellis 1990). It has also been suggested that learners cannot easily pick up knowledge of the language from the communicative activities they participate in. As Lightbown and Spada (1993) claim, there is evidence to suggest that students have problems with the basic structures of

the second/foreign language if a language programme offers no form-focused instruction.

2.1.5. Summary

This section has aimed to review the main assumptions of the communicative approach, which underpins the current developments in language teaching methodology. It has presented certain characteristics associated with the communicative approach, such as the inclusion of social context and situations, favouring fluency over accuracy, and the active involvement of learners in classroom processes. It has also presented the ongoing debate on the most effective form of grammar instruction in the communicative classroom. CLT emphasises that classroom discourse should correspond as closely as possible to real-life use of language. Thus the debate revolves around the degree to which teachers need to direct learners' attention to understanding grammar while retaining a communicative focus. The results of the studies that have been reviewed here suggest that a communicative focus has a positive effect on the development of learners' communicative competence. However, participating in communicative activities does not ensure a parallel development in learners' grammatical competence. It has been found that learners who receive grammar instruction outperform learners who do not, in terms of the rate of acquisition and ultimate level of achievement. Thus, it would not be wrong to say that form-focus is an essential contributory factor to language development, and that teachers need to integrate attention to form and meaning simultaneously or through interconnected sequence of tasks. Although by doing so, their lessons may seem less 'communicative', as Swan (1985:82) says 'the classroom is not the outside world...and a certain amount of artificiality is inseparable from the process of focusing on language items' and that it could be 'a serious mistake to condemn types of discourse typically found in the classroom because they do not share all the communicative features of other kinds of language use'.

Section 2.2 Input and Second Language Acquisition Theories

2.2.1 Introduction

The previous section has presented the implications of the communicative approach on language classrooms, as it underpins the current approaches to language teaching. In the context of this study, both educational settings practice the communicative approach. Through the literature reviewed in this chapter, the intention is to form a framework that may present the complex factors that contribute to an understanding of classroom communication.

In relation to the above stated aim, this section (2.2) will attempt to look at different views on the role of input. The subsections will focus on various views (behaviourist, cognitive, and interactionist) that have sought to explain how learners process input and acquire a second language. The central claims of these views will be presented, and their connections with classroom language teaching will be made. All these views have direct implications on language teaching pedagogy which will be presented under the relevant subsections. Thus, a secondary aim is to provide a historical perspective for understanding the developments in language teaching pedagogy.

2.2.2 The role of Input in Second Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition (SLA) theorists offer various definitions of input. According to Oh (2001:69) input is ‘all types of linguistic data from a target language that learners are exposed to and from which they learn’. Glew (1998:83) defines input as ‘data that the second language learner hears’. It may be suggested that Oh’s definition presents input in its broadest sense, as it refers to all types of linguistic data. Thus, the term input will be used in this paper with reference to Oh’s definition. Nevertheless, in certain parts of this paper it may be necessary to use the term input with specific meanings (e.g. native speaker input, spoken input, input provided in formal settings), which will be stated.

Second language acquisition can take place only when a learner has access to the target language input. Although all theories of second language (L2) acquisition acknowledge the need for input; these theories differ in the importance they attach to the role of input. In an attempt to group these theories, Ellis (1994:243) distinguishes three different views regarding the role of input in L2 acquisition: behaviourist, cognitive and interactionist. Behaviourist views of L2 acquisition propose a direct relationship between input and output. Output can be defined as the spoken and written language that learners produce. Behaviourist views claim that the process of acquisition can be controlled by presenting learners with the right amount of input and then by reinforcing this input through intensive practising. Behaviourist views reject active cognitive processing that occurs in learners' mind. Cognitive views of L2 acquisition, on the other hand, emphasise learners' internal language processing, and see input as a trigger which sets off this processing converting the language into a form that can be stored and used in production. The third view, which is the interactionist approach, argues that language is acquired through the process of learning how to communicate in it. The following sections will examine these different views in relation to classroom language teaching and learning.

2.2.2.1. Behaviourist Views and Audiolingualism

In the fifties and early sixties, behaviourist psychologists (Watson, Skinner) advocated a learning theory, which treated learning as a process of habit formation that could be described in terms of stimulus-response associations. This indicated a direct relationship between input and output. All behaviourist theories were based on observable behaviour. Learning was considered a consequence of experience, and to be evident in changes in behaviour. According to behaviourist theories, language learning was the same as any other kind of learning and therefore the same laws and principles applied to foreign language learning. Behaviourist theories viewed language as verbal behaviour, and language learning as the development of correct behavioural responses. This development in psychology regarding learning drew the attention of language teaching methodologists such as Brooks (1960) and Lado (1964) who, based on the Behaviourist view, developed an approach to language teaching known as Audiolingualism.

Audiolingualism, based on the Behaviourist view, considers classroom language learning as a mechanical process of habit-formation. Habit-formation is related to the idea of classical conditioning, in which a stimulus is closely associated with a particular response so that whenever the stimulus occurs the response is automatically produced. Such habit-formation is acquired through intensive practice of a mechanical nature.

In audiolingual methodology, language learning proceeds by means of analogy rather than analysis. Through the analogy process, learners are expected to discriminate and generalise by identifying the underlying structure of a pattern by perceiving its similarities and differences with other patterns. Then learners reproduce a pattern in similar situations, using different vocabulary. Substitution and cue drills are used for this purpose. This whole process results in forming habits. On error correction, audiolingual teaching recommends immediate correction. Errors are viewed as the result of first language interference and are to be corrected if they cannot be avoided. In audiolingual teaching, correct responses receive positive reinforcement and negative responses receive negative reinforcement.

Ellis (1990) says that audiolingual theory has had a tremendous impact on teachers' popular conceptions about classroom language learning, and that this impact is still evident, although the theory has been rejected as an adequate account of classroom language learning. Ellis suggests that this could be due to the fact that audiolingual learning theory treats language learning like the teaching of another school subject.

2.2.2.2. Cognitive views and L2 learning

Audiolingualism is based on the idea that learning could be directed from outside through manipulation of learner behaviour. In the mid sixties, the assumptions of audiolingualism were subjected to criticism on the grounds that learners actively contribute to the language learning process. This criticism occurred as a result of the developments in psychology and psycholinguistics fields, which projected new insights to language pedagogy by emphasising the role of learners' mental processing. Psychologists developed a cognitive theory of learning, which underlined meaningful learning:

meaning being understood not as a behavioural response, but as a clearly articulated and precisely differentiated conscious experience that emerges when potentially meaningful signs, symbols, concepts, or propositions are related to and incorporated within a given individual's cognitive structure.

(Bigge 1982:186).

Bigge stresses 'experience'. Similarly, cognitive-field psychologists gave experience a major role in their theories, defining it as a person's purposive interaction with his/her respective psychological environment (Bigge 1982:187). Concepts such as experience, awareness and consciousness have been emphasised by cognitive psychologists. This contrasted with the position of behaviourist psychologists, as these concepts had little place in behaviourist theory of learning that Audiolingualism was based on.

Cognitive-field psychology regarded individuals as active participants in the knowledge-getting process through selection and transformation of information, constant construction and alteration of hypotheses. This emphasis on individuals' active role in the learning process has contributed to the development of a cognitive theory.

Cognitive theory, based on cognitive psychology, viewed language learning as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill such as driving. As opposed to behaviourist learning theory, the cognitive approach emphasised the role of internal mental processing rather than external behaviour. It distinguished between two types of knowledge: *declarative* and *procedural*. Declarative knowledge referred to knowledge of facts about the world, and procedural referred to knowledge about how to do something (Anderson 1976:78). There have been various models within the cognitive theory to explain how the mind moves from declarative to procedural knowledge. Anderson (1983) suggested that this integration occurred in three stages: the declarative stage, the compilation stage, and the tuning stage.

In the declarative stage, initial learning of a skill involved just acquiring facts. Information was stored in the form of cognitive units such as propositions or images, however, this did not imply knowing how to use the information. At this stage,

general problem solving strategies were applied to declarative knowledge held in working memory. The compilation stage explained the nature of the knowledge compilation process. It involved learners' trying to sort the information into more efficient production sets by means of grouping. Through the compilation process, learners incorporated declarative information in procedural memory. According to Anderson (1976) much learning went on after the compilation stage. This learning process that followed compilation was referred as the autonomous stage. In the autonomous stage, the procedures became gradually automated while the mind reorganised the productions through generalising as well as discriminating, to improve performance.

The three stages may also explain knowledge processing in relation to foreign language learning. It can be said that the mind relied on declarative knowledge when it started to learn a new production rule or system, as it had no pre-set procedures (e.g. *wash-ed*). General problem-solving procedures could be used at this stage to handle the new declarative knowledge. In the compilation stage, the mind tried to compile the information into more specific procedures (e.g. in order to generate a past-tense verb – *ed* is added to the verb). In the final step, even though the information was compiled and structured, the mind might still fine-tune the production by generalising and discriminating (*go-ed* replaced by *went*). In the final step, the procedural ability to do something was no longer available to consciousness. The knowledge processing stages offered an explanation as to how in foreign language learning, learners applied general rule following procedures to the rules they had learned, and gradually developed the ability to use the language without thinking (Cook 1993).

Another cognitive model that emphasised progression through learning stages was one proposed by McLaughlin (1987). McLaughlin's information-processing model of L2 learning saw human beings as processors of information limited both by how much attention they could give to a task and by how well they could process the information. McLaughlin pointed out that different tasks required different amounts of attention and capacity, and argued that learning starts with a controlled process, in which learners handle new information with maximum attention. Thus, this attention-controlled process was slow and limited in capacity. As learners repeated this controlled processing, they got more used to handling the process and could move to

more and more difficult levels. As a result, information processing gradually transformed into being automatic with less need for attention. The continuous move from controlled to automatic processing meant a constant restructuring of the learners' linguistic system, and this restructuring might explain the variability characteristic of learner language.

2.2.2.2.a. Second/foreign language learning and cognitive approach:

According to cognitive theory, second/foreign language learning -like any other learning- involved the gradual integration of skills as controlled processes, which later became automatic. It emphasised practicing as a means to learning a new skill. The learning of a skill could be deliberate, and it became automatic through use.

According to cognitive theory, competence (the perception of L2 rules) preceded performance (the actual use of these rules). It emphasised the control of the language as a coherent and meaningful system -a kind of consciously acquired competence which the learner could then put to use in real-life situations. Therefore considerable importance was attached to metalinguistic knowledge (knowledge about the language). The theory suggests that if learners had a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of the language, facility would develop automatically with the use of the language in meaningful situations. Although the cognitive approach did not reject conscious teaching of grammar or language rules, it proposed developing learners' understanding of the language as a system, thus offering an alternative to the behaviouristic way of habit formation through intensive drill. It highlighted rule learning, meaningful practice and creativity as opposed to behaviouristic conditioning, reinforcement and habit-formation. Cognitive perspectives on second/foreign language acquisition did not seek to explain the learning process in terms of observable behaviour; but recognised the contribution of classroom learners' internal mental processing in learning. Thus, they formed a theoretical basis for communicative language teaching.

2.2.2.3. Interactionist Views of Second Language Acquisition

Two different views of language acquisition have been reviewed so far. While a behaviourist view of language acquisition explained this process in terms of what happens outside the learner, cognitivist accounts aimed to describe what happens inside the learner. This section will consider a third view that sees language acquisition as the result of an interaction between a learner's mental ability and the linguistic environment. According to this interactionist view, the learner's processing mechanisms both determine and are determined by the nature of the input. Likewise, the quality of input affects and is affected by the nature of the internal mechanisms. Thus the interactionist view does not only focus on the language produced by the learner, but the discourse which the learner and interlocutor jointly construct.

Early studies of input and interaction investigated the acquisition of a first language, and these studies have provided a framework for studies investigating L2 acquisition. Therefore, the following subsections will firstly present the findings of studies that have focused on the characteristics of L1 input. This will be followed by the findings of studies that have investigated the characteristics of the interaction between native-speakers and L2 learners. Then, theories that have aimed to explain the relationship between interaction and language acquisition will be reviewed. It is intended that the revision of these theories will provide a basis for the next section, where input and interaction issues will be discussed in relation to classroom language learning.

2.2.2.3.1 Features of L1 input:

The register used by adults speaking to young children is referred to as 'caretaker talk'. Studies on mother tongue (L1) input that children receive from adult speakers have shown that adult speakers adjust their speech formally, so that the input that the children receive is both clearer and linguistically simpler compared to the speech adults address to other adults (Ellis 1994). Caretakers also make interactional modifications, check comprehension, repeat their utterances and allow the child the freedom to initiate and control the development of topics. If the child's communication attempts fail, then caretakers usually request clarification or

confirmation in the form of an expansion of what the caretaker thinks the child had tried to say.

Researchers have been interested in the extent to which the speech adjustments of caretakers are finely or roughly tuned. According to Krashen (1980), fine-tuning is the provision of the specific features, which the child is ready to acquire and that caretaker-talk is characterised only by rough tuning. Studies that investigated how speech adjustments affect first language acquisition have found that the way mothers and caretakers talk to children influences the rate that the children acquire their L1 (Cross 1978, Ellis and Wells 1980, Barnes et al. 1983). The key features of caretaker talk that contribute to children's speech development are caretakers' choice of discourse function (commands rather than questions), and the devices that caretakers use to sustain conversation (such as clarification requests, expansions and acknowledgements).

This subsection attempted to look at the findings of studies that have investigated the interaction between adults and children focusing on the features of input and interaction in relation to first language acquisition. It would now be appropriate to look at studies that have focused on communication between native speakers and L2 learners.

2.2.2.3.2. Foreigner Talk

The interactionist views perceive verbal interaction as an essential factor in L2 acquisition. Thus, the target language that is made available to learners was subjected to detailed analyses, to find out about the specific features of this available input (such as the frequency of occurrence of specific morphemes in the input, the complexity of input, the nomination and development of topics, and how communication breakdown was avoided). For the analyses, the register used by native speakers when they address non-native speakers (known as 'foreigner talk'), and the conversations between native and non-native speakers have been studied in detail. In this subsection, the characteristics of foreigner talk and the discourse between native and non-native speakers will be presented.

The function of foreigner talk is similar to caretaker speech, that is, to promote communication, to signal speakers' attitudes towards their interlocutors and to teach the target language implicitly (Hatch 1983). Foreigner talk is not static; as it may be influenced by situational factors such as the topic of conversation, the age of participants and the proficiency level of learners (Arthur et al 1980). It bears many of the features of caretaker talk; however, there are differences in input and interactional features. When caretaker talk and foreigner talk were compared, particular declaratives were found to be much more common in foreigner talk while yes/no questions and imperatives were less common (Freed 1980, in Ellis 1994).

Foreigner talk serves as target language input to the L2 learner. Native speakers modify their speech through simplification (such as adjusting speech rate), regularisation (the selection of basic forms or full forms), and elaboration (lengthening sentences in an attempt to make the meaning clear) (Ellis 1986, Chaudron 1983). However, it is not only the native speaker who determines the quality and quantity of this input, but also the L2 learner who affects this input through the feedback s/he provides.

Studies investigating the strategies that are used to manage discourse found that native speakers tended to select salient topics, treated topics simply and relinquished topic control where necessary (Long 1983a). Also native speakers have been found to check whether the learner has understood, as a way of managing discourse. Such comprehension checks were more frequent than in conversations between two native speakers (Long 1981). When miscommunication arises, discourse repair is required and that is generally achieved through negotiation of meaning. Ellis (1994:260) defines meaning negotiation as 'the collaborative work which speakers undertake to achieve mutual understanding'. Different strategies are used for meaning negotiation. For clarification and confirmation, native speakers typically use requests. Self and other-repetitions also help to repair discourse (Ellis 1994). Researchers have investigated the conditions that promote the negotiation of meaning, based on Long's (1985) claim that negotiation of meaning results in comprehensible input which is beneficial to L2 acquisition. This relationship between comprehensible input and acquisition will be discussed in detail in the following subsection.

2.2.2.3.3. The role of input and interaction in language acquisition

SLA theorists and researchers, have attempted to explain the relationship between input, interaction and second language acquisition by trying to determine whether the frequency of linguistic features in the input is related to the frequency of the same features in the learner language, the role of learner output in interaction, the relationship between comprehensible input and language acquisition, and how joint discourse construction helps acquisition. The theoretical claims and findings in relation to these issues are presented subsequently in the following subsections.

2.2.2.3.3.a. Input Frequency

With regard to the effect of input frequency on L2 acquisition, there is little evidence that the order of L2 acquisition is parallel to the frequency of the occurrence of linguistic items in language input. However, there is also no evidence to disprove such a relationship. Thus, it may be said that input frequency has an effect on language acquisition among other factors. On the other hand, Krashen (1981, 1985) and Long (1985) see comprehensible input as a major causative factor in L2 acquisition. Krashen and Long's theoretical positions on that matter have been very influential.

2.2.2.3.3.b. The relationship between comprehensible input and language acquisition

Krashen (1982) has proposed the 'Input Hypothesis', claiming that L2 learning is similar to L1 learning. According to Krashen, learners progress along the natural order by understanding input that contains structures slightly beyond their current level of competence. This input that is slightly beyond a learner's current level of competence is referred as 'comprehensible input'. Krashen (1981) argues that learners acquire structure by understanding messages and not focusing on the form of input. Krashen (1982) has suggested that if learners are exposed to 'comprehensible input' and are provided with opportunities to focus on meaning and messages rather than target language forms, they would acquire the language in the same way as L1 learners. Because of that, conditions for language learning should be made more similar to L1 learning. Krashen (1981) also argues that learners acquire structure by understanding messages and not focusing on the form of input. From Krashen's perspective,

although comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition to take place, it is not sufficient, as learners also need to be affectively disposed to 'let in' the input they comprehend. According to Krashen (1985:5) 'comprehensible input delivered in a low (affective) filter situation' is the causative variable in second language acquisition.

Non-interactive input becomes comprehensible as a result of simplification and with the help of contextual and extra linguistic clues. Two-way interaction is also considered a good way of providing comprehensible input because speakers can obtain additional contextual information and also negotiate meaning through conversational adjustments when communication breaks down. Although Krashen discusses the usefulness of two-way interaction, he sees speaking as the result of acquisition, not as its cause, and therefore, argues that learner production does not contribute directly to acquisition. Although there is no direct evidence to support Krashen's claims, various studies have shown that learners do acquire certain linguistic forms without any explicit teaching (Ellis 1982, Long and Sato 1983, Terrell et al. 1980).

Long (1985), whose theoretical position has also been very influential in the SLA field, agrees with Krashen that simplified input and context can play a role in making input comprehensible. However, Long argues that interactive input is more important than non-interactive input and underlines the importance of interactional modifications that occur in negotiating meaning when a communication problem arises. In order to show the relationship between comprehensible input and acquisition Long (1985:378) proposed a three-way model:

- Show that linguistic/conversational adjustments promote comprehension (A→B)
- Show that comprehensible input promotes acquisition (B→C)
- Deduce that linguistic/conversational adjustments promote acquisition (A→C).

According to Long, if researchers can show that linguistic adjustments make input comprehensible, and comprehensible input leads to acquisition, then researchers can indirectly show that linguistic adjustments promote acquisition. For this purpose Long

(1985) investigated the effects of talk adjustments to spoken discourse on non-native speaker comprehension. Long aimed to determine the relative comprehensibility of two versions of a lecture (recorded on tape), one intended for a native speaker audience and the other adjusted for non-native speakers. The average comprehension score of the group that heard the adjusted lecture was significantly higher than the group which listened to the lecture intended for the native speakers of English. Long, then, conducted a replication study, which, he claims, provided strong support for the findings of the original study. Long (1985) concludes that there is a causal relationship between linguistic and conversational adjustments of the kinds native speakers make to non-native speakers under certain conditions and the comprehensibility of what they say to their non-native listeners, adding that:

If one accepts there is already substantial evidence of a second causal relationship between comprehensible input and SLA, then one can deduce the existence of an indirect causal relationship between linguistic and conversational adjustments and SLA (p.388).

Long's studies support the idea that modified input aids the processing of a message by the learner of the language. Krashen (1985, in Ellis 1990) also points out the success of immersion classes in Canada and claims that this success is due to the provision of plenty of comprehensible input –which he uses as supportive evidence for the hypothesis. Other researchers also agree that learners should be provided with as much comprehensible input as possible (Netten and Planchot-Ferguson 1995).

Not all researchers who have studied classroom learning agree with Krashen's idea that comprehensible input is sufficient for second language acquisition. Krashen's Input Hypothesis has been criticised on the grounds that there is a lack of empirical evidence regarding this model, it is difficult to know what determines learners' current level of competence and to define what input is relevant for any particular learner, and also that the hypothesis does not clarify the relationship between comprehension and acquisition (White 1987, Ellis 1990). Nevertheless, Krashen and Long's proposals have led researchers to investigate the factors that are involved in making input comprehensible.

Researchers showed particular interest in the nature of the modifications that are most effective in promoting comprehension. Parker and Chaudron (1987) have reviewed various experimental studies (Johnson 1981, Blau 1982, Cervantes 1983, Chaudron and Richards 1986) that have investigated the effects of input modifications on comprehension. Findings have indicated that although linguistic modifications (simpler syntax, vocabulary) helped comprehension, this was not consistent. In contrast, elaborative modifications (repetition of constituents, paraphrasing, use of synonyms, use of left dislocation and slower speech, and modifications that help to make the thematic structure explicit) have had a consistent effect on comprehension (Ellis 1994:275). In another study Pica, Young and Doughty (1986) have investigated the relation between negotiation of meaning and comprehension by comparing the effect of three types of input (unmodified, premodified and interactionally modified). The results suggested that the interactionally-modified input, where the learners were given the opportunity to seek clarification resulted in the highest levels of comprehension. Other studies also confirm these results (Li 1989, Loschky 1989, Tanaka 1991, and Yamazaki 1991 in Ellis 1994). It can be said that overall, the amount and type of information and the extent to which the participants engage in negotiation of meaning have an effect on comprehension.

Although the presence of interactional modifications do not guarantee that comprehension occurs, studies show that interactionally modified input has a beneficial effect on comprehension. Research findings regarding comprehensible input suggest that language learning should be an interactive process between teachers and learners. Learners can comprehend new language better if they can ask questions when they face a comprehension difficulty rather than relying on the teacher or the textbook to anticipate possible difficulties (Pica 1987).

2.2.2.3.3.c Learner Output and Interactive Discourse

Comprehension does not mean that learners attend to linguistic form. If learners rely on contextual information and existing knowledge to understand what is said, they may pay little attention to the form of the input. Færch and Kasper (1986 in Ellis 1994: 278) argue that only when a learner recognises a knowledge gap between the input and his/her current interlanguage, does acquisition take place. Likewise,

Sharwood Smith (1986) differentiates between comprehension and acquisition processes, and argues that learners use input both to interpret meaning, and to advance their interlanguages.

During an interactive discourse, learners get the opportunity to produce target language. Although Krashen (1985) argues that this production has no direct effect on acquisition, other researchers such as Swain (1985) have claimed that learner output contributes to interlanguage development. Swain's claim about learner production has been known as the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. Swain argues that learners try out rules or items in production and then use the feedback they receive from other speakers to confirm or reject their hypotheses about the target language. This feedback may be in the form of clarification requests, confirmation checks, or corrections. According to Swain (1985) and Swain and Lapkin (1995) learners need to use their linguistic resources to achieve full grammatical competence, because when they experience a communicative failure, learners are pushed into making their output more precise, coherent, and appropriate, which may encourage them to move from semantic to syntactic processing.

Researchers have investigated how learner output is affected by different types of indirect feedback (such as clarification requests, confirmation requests). A number of research studies have found evidence to support the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. Pica (1988), for example, found that when native speakers requested confirmation or clarification, in 95% of the cases this led to learners making their contribution comprehensible, and in nearly half of those cases the learners were able to produce the correct form. In another study conducted by Pica et al (1989), the findings suggested that the learners were much more likely to produce output modifications (both syntactic and semantic) in response to clarification requests rather than confirmation requests and repetitions. Pica et al suggested that clarification requests are open signals that require learners to resolve comprehension problems, whereas in confirmation requests and repetitions the native speaker models what the learner intended to say, which removes the need for improved output. In another attempt, Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) examined the relationship between pushed output and language acquisition in an experimental study. They used two-way information tasks to explore whether pushed output (through clarification requests) resulted in

improved performance over time. The results suggested that while two out of three experimental subjects improved and maintained the accuracy of their use of the past tense, the control subjects showed no improvement. They concluded that pushing learners to produce more comprehensible output might have a long-term effect, but not necessarily for all learners.

2.2.2.3.4. Summary

The subsections under 2.2.2.3 have aimed to review the research and hypotheses that have sought to explain the relationship between input/interaction and language acquisition. Regarding the characteristics of mother-tongue input, it has been found that interactional modifications, clarification and confirmation requests are important features of caretaker speech. These have been found to have a positive effect on child language development. Following caretaker talk, features of interaction that occur in natural settings between native speakers and L2 learners have been presented. Studies have found that native speakers adjust their speech rate, select basic or full forms to make their message clearer. Also, similar to caretaker speech, clarification and confirmation requests have been found to be common in foreigner talk. The presentation of the features of foreigner talk has been followed by the revision of hypotheses that have sought to explain the relationship between input/interaction and language acquisition. The hypotheses can mainly be grouped as those:

- that emphasise the importance of input as opposed to learner output
- that emphasise the necessity of learner output for learner language development

Krashen's views on input and Long's claims about the role of interaction have been reviewed respectively. Much of the research based on Krashen and Long's claims have focused on how input is made comprehensible and how this comprehension leads to acquisition. Speech rate, modifications, and negotiation of meaning through interactional adjustments have been found to have an effect on comprehension. It has been found that learners are likely to modify their output both syntactically and semantically when interlocutors request confirmation or clarification. In particular, clarification requests have been found to be effective.

The link between comprehensible input and acquisition has been made indirectly. Speech rate and elaborative modifications have been found to aid comprehension, if the input is non-interactive. In the case of interactive input, the amount of information and meaning negotiation through interactional adjustments contribute to comprehension. In the case of comprehensible output, Swain (1985) has argued that pushing learners to produce more accurate and coherent language (learner output) helps to develop grammatical competence.

Section 2.3. Input and interaction in the classroom and its significance

2.3.1 Introduction

The previous section reviewed the theories and research that have sought to explain the role of input and interaction in second language acquisition. This section will focus on the relationship between classroom interaction and language learning. Allwright (1984:156) says interaction is ‘the fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy’, because ‘everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction’. Oral communication serves both as the medium of learning, and as an object of pedagogical attention in second and foreign language classrooms. Thus, the role of oral communication in these classrooms is especially important. Through the process of interaction, teachers and learners establish and maintain social relationships, and create activities that shape the form and content of the target language which in return affect learners’ language development. Hence this paper sees language lessons as socially constructed events. This specific section aims to review the findings of research that focused on classroom processes. The research that will be presented here has been informed by input and interactional theories of SLA –especially regarding the claims about comprehensible input, negotiation of meaning and learner output.

Researchers have observed and tried to describe the interactional events that take place in language classrooms, in order to understand how learning opportunities are created. They have identified and focused on different aspects of classroom

interaction, such as, teacher utterances, teachers' questions, feedback, learner participation, error treatment, task-based interaction, pair-work and small group work. It is important to bring together the findings of studies that have focused on various aspects of classroom interaction, in order to construct a sound framework that summarises the general characteristics of classroom discourse. Therefore this section will have various subsections each of which deal with a specific aspect of classroom interaction to provide an understanding of the roles of the participants in constructing and maintaining classroom discourse.

2.3.2 The general characteristics of classroom discourse

Teachers make pedagogic decisions with regard to the syllabus and teaching methodology, and plan their lessons accordingly. When these plans are realised, they result in classroom interaction. Although classroom interaction is shaped by teachers' pedagogic decisions, learners also contribute to this process, and therefore, interaction is flexible and evolves during the course of a lesson.

The purpose of an interaction influences the type of interaction that takes place. Comparing natural discourse and classroom discourse Kramsch (1985) says that, when the tasks are teacher-controlled and are focused on the transmission and reception of information, the emphasis is on knowledge and accuracy. However, in natural discourse the participant roles are less clearly defined and there is equal participation in the negotiation of meaning, while the focus is on the interactional process itself and fluency. According to Ellis (1984), if the aim of an interaction is to focus on the language itself, the learners are likely to be restricted in their response, while, interaction opportunities regarding classroom events and social goals enable learners to perform a wider range of language functions as well as initiate discourse. Following Ellis' view, Kaneko (1991, in Ellis 1994:578) investigated the effect of language choice on learning. According to the results, the participants of the study reported learning better in interactional events where the focus was on the language itself with an element of spontaneous language use. Current views on language teaching emphasise the need for bringing classroom discourse closer to natural

discourse, in order to make language learning a more meaningful process for the learners.

One of the main features of classroom discourse that distinguishes it from natural discourse is teachers' control over discourse. Researchers studying the characteristics of classroom discourse have developed various models. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed one of the most widely known models (The Birmingham Model). They studied the interaction between teachers and students in mother-tongue classrooms, and have identified an exchange pattern that consists of an Initiation (teacher), followed by a Response (student) which is followed by Feedback (teacher). Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) argued that this IRF sequence is a typical feature of classrooms. Indeed, it has been commonly accepted that the interaction pattern of teacher questions, student replies, and teacher gives feedback is typical of classroom exchanges (Tsui 1995). Teachers' control over discourse is also evident in the turn-taking process. Teachers control and decide who speaks to whom, when, and how the turns are to be allocated. Depending on the amount of control the teacher exercises, the participation structure may vary from highly ritualised to highly spontaneous speech events. Having mentioned teachers' important role in the shaping of classroom discourse, the next subsection will look at more specific features of teachers' language and how these features affect classroom interaction and learner participation.

2.3.3 Features of teacher talk

In language classrooms, target language input is available to learners through 'teacher talk', some audio-visual devices and through other learners. Teachers' target language use in the classroom serves as a linguistic model through input provision, which is necessary for the learners' internalisation of the target language (Allwright 1984, Ellis 1984). In addition to this, interaction between teachers and students is thought to contribute to learners' language development by providing the opportunities for the learners to exercise target language skills, to test out their hypotheses about the target language, and to get useful feedback (Chaudron 1988). In an attempt to understand which source of input learners actually preferred (the teacher, the language assistant, tapes or videos) Neil (1996) found that learners preferred teacher talk in the target

language compared to input provided by tape and video because of the possibility of interaction and feedback. Learners also commented that extraneous background noise and speed of delivery of the 'authentic' materials made them less comprehensible.

Krashen's (1980) theoretical work on comprehensible input has led research to investigate the features of teacher talk. The main focus has been on understanding how teacher talk aids language learning. For this purpose, there has been a considerable amount of research aimed at defining the features of teacher talk (the complexity of teacher talk, rate of speech, and discourse features such as questions, feedback, and error correction). The following subsections will review the findings of SLA researchers regarding these specific features of teacher talk.

2.3.3.1 The amount of teacher talk and target language input

Research on the amount of teacher talk has shown that teachers do most of the talking in classrooms. According to Chaudron (1988) observations of many different classes, both in content area subjects and in language instruction, consistently show that teachers typically do between one half and three quarters of the talking done in classrooms. For example Tsui (1985, in Chaudron 1988) reports that the teacher in her study made more than 80% of all speech and 60% of responding moves.

Target language use in classrooms has been encouraged on the grounds that it promotes language acquisition, while the use of the mother tongue (L1) is considered to undermine this process by diverting attention from the object of pupils' learning. Teachers are also expected to provide a rich target language environment, by carrying out instructions, drills, disciplinary and management procedures through the use of target language. In immersion classrooms Allen et al (1985) found very high uses of French or English L2 (about 90% or more) in the four programme types they observed in Canada. However, Chaudron (1988) reports that Mitchell et al's (1981) study of 17 Scottish secondary school FFL classes found a minimum average of 21% use of English L1. Mitchell and Johnstone (1984, in Chaudron 1988) found about 70% target language use. In a different study, Dickson (1996) investigated teachers' beliefs about the issue of TL use. He requested teachers estimate the proportion of classroom communication carried out in the TL. The results suggested that the mother tongue

plays a major role in classroom teaching. Only few teachers estimated that they use TL as much as 80% in their lessons (Dickson 1996:8). The proportion of L1 to L2 may not be the critical variable that determines second language acquisition, however, as Chaudron (1988) says 'it is the functional allocation of the TL relative to the L1 which would indicate to the learner the priorities of the extended social environment that schools and teachers represent'.

2.3.3.2. Teachers' speech modifications

Gaies (1977, in Chaudron 1988) compared teachers' speech in the classroom and outside the classroom, and found that teachers modified their speech considerably in the classroom. Especially with beginning level classes the syntactic complexity of teachers' speech was low, and teachers' speech complexity increased in relation to the learners' proficiency levels. Chaudron (ibid) links this gradual increase in complexity to Krashen's idea of providing learners with input that is slightly beyond their current level of interlanguage development ($i+1$). Chaudron's (1988:85) comprehensive review of studies that have investigated teachers' speech modifications suggest that teachers' rate of speech is slower, they pause more frequently and for longer, their pronunciation tends to be exaggerated and simplified, and they use more basic vocabulary, lower degree of subordination, more declaratives and statements compared to questions, and more self-repetitions when they interact with lower-level students.

2.3.3.3. Teachers' questions

Teachers' questions constitute a primary means of engaging learners in classroom interaction. The high numbers of questioning have been reported in various studies (Johnston 1990, Long and Sato 1983, in Ellis 1994). Questions function as devices for initiating discourse (IRF), and maintaining control over classroom discourse. Various types of teacher questions have been identified. Two of these are *display (pseudo)* and *referential (genuine)* questions. While display questions aim to elicit information already-known to the teacher, referential questions are genuinely information seeking. Teachers also ask *open* and *closed type* questions. Open type questions have more than one acceptable answer, whereas closed type questions have only one acceptable

answer. Studies that have examined the type of questions that teachers ask, have found that display/closed type questions are far more common than referential/open type questions (Barnes 1969, Long and Sato 1983, White and Lightbown 1984, Pica and Long 1986, White 1992).

Researchers have not only examined the type of questions teachers ask, but how these questions might affect learners' interlanguage development. One focus could be the opportunities that teacher questions might provide for learner output. As reviewed in section 2.2.2.3.3.c, the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis claims that pushing learners to producing output helps them to reconstruct their interlanguages. Thus several studies have compared learner responses to referential and display questions. In an experimental study, Brock (1986) found that the students responded with significantly longer and more syntactically complex utterances to referential questions than to display questions. The students also produced significantly more sentential connectives and had significantly more instances of more than two successive turns taken by the same learner. Studies by Long and Crookes (1987) and Nunan (1990) have also suggested that responses to referential questions were significantly longer than responses to display questions. In another study, Koivukari (1987) studied the effects of referential questions on learner comprehension. For this aim, teachers were trained to use more detailed comprehension questions and fewer superficial rote questions. The results suggested that an experimental group who benefited from this treatment showed improved comprehension scores.

Researchers have also focused on the length of turns that learners get prompted by a question. Long and Crookes (1987) have found that display questions elicited more student turns compared to referential questions. As a result of these findings and in view of the current methods in language teaching that emphasise enhancing communication in classrooms, display questions are considered less favourable as they tend to elicit short answers, and in addition, learners have less communicative involvement since the information they produce is for didactic purposes.

Teachers modify the form and the content of the questions they ask, when there is a comprehension problem or when learners signal difficulty. Studies of teacher

questions have identified three types of questions that teachers use to maintain interaction: comprehension checks, clarification requests, and confirmation checks.

Teachers use comprehension checks to make sure that the learners receive the message correctly, clarification requests to signal their comprehension difficulty to the learner, and confirmation checks to make sure that they interpret learners' intended meaning correctly. Pica and Long (1986) compared classroom teachers' use of these three question types with native speakers' use in interaction with non-native speakers. The most frequent type of questions used in NS-NNS data was confirmation checks, followed by clarification requests while comprehension checks were the least frequent question type. Teachers, on the other hand, used comprehension checks the most frequently, followed by confirmation checks and clarification requests respectively. Similarly Ellis (1985) and Early (1985, in Chaudron 1988) studied ESL teachers' use of these question types and both studies found relatively few of these question types occurring in classroom interaction. In another study, Pica and Doughty (1985a) compared the extent to which these three types of questions are used in teacher-fronted activities and group activities. The results showed that these question types were used more frequently in teacher-fronted activities, although during group activities students took more turns, produced more language and had more input directed to them.

To summarise, research on teachers' questions suggest that language learning will be enhanced if teacher questions encourage active learner participation and meaning negotiation. Questions that focus on the message, rather than the language are considered to relate to communicative orientation.

2.3.3.4 Teachers' feedback

Feedback is the information provided by listeners on the reception and comprehension of messages. In social interactions, participants do not have the automatic right to impose judgement and give feedback on others' linguistic behaviour. While such evaluation is not a common feature of natural conversations, in the classroom, teachers' superior knowledge and status give them the right to evaluate or correct student behaviour. Through the provision of feedback teachers inform learners of the

accuracy of their target language production and knowledge. Teachers provide feedback in various ways such as error treatment and cognitive and affective feedback. This subsection will focus on different types of feedback and their effect on language learning.

One of the ways in which teachers provide feedback is through error correction. Following Chaudron's (1986:66) definition errors can be described as 'linguistic forms or content that differs from native speaker norms or facts, and any other behaviour signalled by the teacher as needing improvement'. Several studies have been conducted to find out when teachers are more likely to correct errors (Yoneyama 1981, Salica 1981, Courchène 1980, Chaudron 1986). Chaudron's (1988) review of these studies reveal that teachers are more likely to correct errors when they are related to the pedagogical focus of the lesson or when they significantly constrain communication.

The issue of feedback had various implications according to different language teaching approaches. The audiolingual approach to language teaching considered positive feedback as positive praise or repetition of students' correct responses. For negative feedback, the traditional approach relied on grammar explanations, and modelling of the correct response for the learners to recognise the difference between the model and their errors. In a cognitive view of learning, feedback served to provide reinforcement and information that learners can use in confirming, disconfirming and modifying their hypotheses about the target language. Changes in pedagogy with the recent advent of the communicative approach to language teaching, have influenced attitudes towards error and its treatment. Different theoretical arguments have been made regarding the extent to which teachers should correct learners' errors. If the assumption of the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis is considered, teachers need to provide learners with the feedback they need to modify their hypotheses about the linguistic forms they use. In that sense feedback can be seen as a contributing factor in learners' interlanguage development. For example, Schmidt and Frota (1986) conducted a diary study of Schmidt's acquisition of Portuguese. They found out that in order to change an incorrect form, Schmidt needed to become consciously aware of the difference between the language he produced and what other speakers produced, before he could alter his output. They concluded that corrective feedback provides

input that is slightly beyond learners' current level of interlanguage development (Krashen's idea of *i+1*), which puts the learner in an ideal position to notice the gap. They added that although this conscious awareness of the gap is a necessary first step, it is not a sufficient condition for improvement.

If the feedback is in the form of error correction, another issue that teachers need to consider is to correct errors without discouraging the learners. Vigil and Oller (1976, in Ellis 1994:584) distinguish two types of feedback: *cognitive* and *affective*. Cullen (2002) refers to these as *evaluative* and *discoursal* feedback respectively. Cognitive feedback relates to the information that teachers provide regarding learners' language production. Affective feedback, on the other hand, relates to teachers' emotional reactions in response to students' utterances and signals as to the interlocutor's desire or willingness to continue communicating. As Vigil and Oller (1976) argue, although correction of linguistic forms is necessary, perhaps it is important that teachers also provide positive affective feedback to ensure continued communication and encourage student efforts to interact in the target language. Johnson (1995) similarly suggests that teachers' confirmation and expansion upon learners' comments seem to foster their continued willingness to participate.

In order to ensure continued communication, teachers also use repetitions and recasts of students' utterances. Hall (2000:288) says that in this way, teachers create connections by linking individual student utterances into the classroom discourse, affirming students' contributions and also making these contributions available to the full class for their consideration. For example in Hall and Verplaetse (2000), Duff (2000), Sullivan (2000) and Verplaetze (2000) found that teachers' repetition and paraphrasing of classroom members' utterances helped to create a sense of community. According to Hall (2000), teachers who act inquisitively, ask intellectually weighty and socially relevant questions, provide multiple opportunities for the students to be full participants in the conversation, display a genuine interest in the topic and in the students' expressed thoughts, help to establish a dynamic motivating learning environment.

2.3.3.5. Summary

So far, the subsections under 2.3.3 have attempted to review the linguistic and discourse features of teacher talk. Teacher talk serves as a linguistic model through input provision. In addition, interaction between teachers and students is considered to contribute to learners' language development by providing the opportunities for the learners to exercise target language skills, to test out their hypotheses about the target language, and to get useful feedback.

Research on teacher talk has shown that teachers tend to dominate classroom discourse. Teachers use questions as a primary means of engaging learners in classroom discourse. Research has suggested that language learning will be enhanced if teacher questions encourage active learner participation and meaning negotiation. Thus questions that focus on the message, rather than the language are thought to relate to communicative orientation. Feedback, another important feature of teacher talk, is considered to be a contributing factor in learners' interlanguage development since it may trigger learners to modify their hypotheses about the linguistic forms they use. In addition, research suggests that teachers' expansion upon learners' comments and interest in students' expressed thoughts create a sense of community and motivate learners in contributing to classroom discourse. As Cullen (2002) and Gil (2002) point out, it is important to acknowledge the fact that the classroom is a unique social environment with its own conventions and therefore teacher talk should not be evaluated solely according to the norms of communication outside the classroom when any evaluations regarding the communicative functions of teacher talk are being made. Having looked at the role of teacher talk in classroom interaction, the following subsections will look at students' roles and participation in classroom interaction.

2.3.4. Classroom discourse and learner participation

A number of scholars have argued that, in order for learners to develop successful L2 competence in a classroom, teachers need to ensure that learners get sufficient opportunities to participate in discourse directed at the exchange of information (Krashen 1982, Swain 1985, Prabhu 1987, Nunan 1991). The following subsections

will focus on learner participation in language classrooms both in terms of quality and quantity of the target language that learners produce and the way learners interact with teachers and their peers.

2.3.4.1 Quantity and quality of learner participation

The traditional notion that a skill can be acquired through productive practice of the skill, forms the basis of the idea that learners can develop their language skills through frequent practicing of the use of the target language (Chaudron 1988). Similarly, Swain (1985:248) argues that 'one learns to speak by speaking' and if learners are pushed into producing coherent, precise and appropriate language, this will help them to reconstruct their interlanguages. Swain bases these arguments on the findings of a large-scale project concerned with the development of bilingual proficiency. The findings suggested that although French immersion students reached a high level of target language proficiency, they were still noticeably different from the native speakers in their use of some aspects of French. Swain (1985) says this was particularly evident in those aspects of communicative performance that demanded the use of grammatical knowledge. Swain, then, argues that the hypothesis that comprehensible input is the only causal variable in second language acquisition is called into question by the data on immersion students since, as she suggests, there is compelling evidence to believe that immersion students do receive considerable meaning-focused comprehensible input (for almost 7 years). According to Swain, producing the target language may be the trigger that forces a learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning. In another observational study in French immersion classrooms Allen et al (1990, in Ellis 1994:282) found that students' responses were typically minimal (with less than 15 per cent of students' utterances in French being more than a clause length). They also point out that there was little indication that the students were being pushed to produce target language that is more coherent and accurate.

Studies that have investigated students' language production have found that there is a positive correlation between students' proficiency level, and the quality and quantity of the language produced (Naiman et al 1978, Strong 1983, Peck 1985, in Chaudron 1988). However, Chaudron points out that these studies demonstrate a correlation

rather than causation. The proportion of students' target language use compared to their L1 use has also been a point of interest. Dickson (1996) reports that in Key Stage 3 only 30% of teachers estimated that half or more of their pupils' talk was in the TL, and this was just over 20% in Key Stage 4. The figures were 8% in Key Stage 3 and 5% in Key Stage 4, for over three-quarters of pupils' talk in the TL.

In relation to the issue of student participation, Seliger (1977) argued that those learners who initiate interactions that result in speech directed to them will derive more benefit from the input than if they are exposed to the input in a more vicarious manner. Seliger referred to those learners as High Input Generators (HIGs), who initiate and sustain conversations through taking turns and cause other people to use language with them. In contrast, Low Input Generators (LIGs), as Seliger puts it, are learners who do not actively use language to get more exposure to the target language, and speak only when called upon. Seliger studied participation patterns and test results of learners in an ESL classroom, and found that HIGs outperformed the LIGs in English achievement. Seliger concluded that learners who initiate interaction are better able to turn input into intake.

Following Seliger's ideas, Day (1984) replicated Seliger's study with a larger population but could not find an observable relationship between the frequency with which the learners participated in class and their achievement on an English test. Building on Seliger's and Day's work, Slimani (1987) looked for relationships between learner participation and learning in an Algerian university classroom. Slimani concluded that the more proficient the learners in her class, the more willing they seemed to interact, perhaps because more proficient learners found interaction less stressful. According to Slimani there seemed to be no satisfactorily strong evidence that interaction should be interpreted as leading to progress.

2.3.4.2. Students' interaction with teachers

It could be argued that in classrooms, teachers have more discourse rights than learners. Thus, teacher talk is an important factor to determine the potential for student talk in the language classroom. It has been suggested that if teachers can provide opportunities for students to contribute to what is being discussed and, acknowledge

and build on what students say, they can actively involve the students in classroom discourse (Nystrand and Gamoran 1991, Johnson 1995).

Research studies that investigated teacher and student talk have found that teachers' speech mostly consists of soliciting and reacting moves, while students' speech mainly consists of responding moves (Tsui 1985). For example, Politzer et al (1981) found that in their study ninety per cent of all student moves were responses, which points to the limited nature of participation opportunities in classrooms. Differences in the teachers' control of the patterns of communication influences the extent to which students use target language during lessons. Johnson (1995) found that when teachers exercise a significant amount of control over the interaction pattern, students' language is limited to one or two-word responses. According to Johnson (1995:27), when there is less teacher control, students' language tends to be in the form of phrases or sentences that express ideas not previously initiated by the teacher. That indicates students need to be given more flexibility in terms of what they can produce using the target language. Nevertheless, it does not imply that this can only be achieved through student-student interaction, as it has been found that it is possible for teachers to lead learners to become highly involved in the negotiation of meaning and linguistic form through the use of directives, assisting questions, repetition and non-verbal devices (e.g. pauses, gestures) in teacher-student exchanges (Anton 1999). Thornbury (1996) and Garton (2002) also argue that teachers can involve learners in a more active way, if they encourage learners to initiate questions, pick up on topics introduced by learners, and increase their wait-time. This, according to Thornbury (1996:282) suggests 'a healthy distribution of the ownership of classroom discourse'. As Slimani (1989) says learners claim to learn the most from learner-initiated content rather than teacher-initiated content.

2.3.4.3. Students' interaction with peers

In language classrooms, teachers are not the sole providers of language input. The target language that students produce, also serves as input for other learners. Through interaction with their peers, learners get the opportunity to participate in meaning-focused communication, negotiate meaning, and engage in both planned and unplanned discourse. Long's (1983b in Ellis 1994) arguments regarding the

connection between negotiation of meaning and language development, and the current emphasis placed on small group work in communicative language teaching have led various research studies to focus on the interactive discourse between learners.

Learners' interactions have been studied for the purposes of finding out whether learners acquire faulty input from each other, and whether and how peer interaction provides opportunities for negotiation of meaning. Although the studies show that learner talk is less grammatical than teacher talk or foreigner talk (the address used by native speakers when interacting with non-native speakers) it has been found that learners repeat only a very small amount of the faulty input they hear (Pica and Doughty 1985a, 1985b, Porter 1986).

Regarding the quantity and quality of interactions between native-speakers and L2 learners and among L2 learners, Van Lier et al.'s (2001) study revealed that conversational activities provide L2 learners with a larger range of opportunities for language use, compared to information gap activities. Participants also perceived themselves to be more challenged in conversational activities as they had to pay attention to the entire discourse whereas they focused on lexical items in information gap activities. Compared to the negotiation opportunities that learners get while interacting with native speakers, non-native speakers were found to have significantly more meaning negotiation opportunities when interacting with other learners, and they prompt each other significantly more than native speakers prompt non-native speakers (Gass and Varonis 1985, Porter 1986). In addition to the significant opportunities for meaning negotiation, several research studies suggest that learners' interaction with peers -especially in small groups- encourage the use of more complex language (Johnson 1983, Pica and Doughty 1985a, Duff 1986, Porter 1986, in Chaudron 1988). Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki (1994) report that Japanese students of English attained better comprehension and increased vocabulary acquisition when they could talk about a complex written text than when they read the text in a premodified version without interaction opportunities. Similarly, Van den Branden (1997) compared pairs of pupils who discussed the content of a detective story consisting of several pictures. Pupils were asked to describe the pictures orally both before and after the task. The results suggested that pairs that used more sequences of negotiating meaning while

carrying out the task and exhibited an increased amount of L2 production in the post-test, as well as a greater variety in vocabulary. Polio and Gass (1998) also showed that comprehension is improved in interactive conditions.

Researchers also compared student-student interaction with teacher-fronted interaction, and according to task types. The studies that have focused on comparisons between teacher-fronted classrooms and group work suggested that group work provides better opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, and perform a wider range of acts such as comprehension checks, confirmation requests, and clarification requests. For example Long et al (1976, in Chaudron 1988) found that the number of students' pedagogical moves, social skills behaviours and rhetorical acts were significantly greater in group work compared to teacher-fronted classroom learning. Similarly, Doughty and Pica (1986) used a problem-solving task to compare teacher-fronted class and group work and found that the use of comprehension checks, confirmation and clarification requests, self and other-repetitions, and repairing, preventive or reacting acts were significantly more frequent in the group activities with required information exchange than in the teacher-fronted classroom. In another study, Rulon and McCreary (1986) compared the negotiation of meaning opportunities between teacher-fronted and group work (peer groups) and found that peer groups produced significantly more confirmation and clarification checks with regard to the lesson content. Moreover, in terms of quantity and complexity, the target language that peer groups produced was equal to that produced in the teacher-led classes with equal frequencies of confirmation and clarification checks.

The effect of task type (one-way and two-way information exchange) on peer interaction has been another point of interest for research. It has been found that generally, tasks that require a two-way information exchange result in increased negotiation of meaning (Long 1980, Doughty and Pica 1986, Newton 1991). In another study comparing task types, Duff (1986) used two problem-solving and two debate tasks to investigate several interactional variables. According to Duff (1986) there were no significant differences in the quantity of total words or communication units produced by learners in the two task-types. The problem solving tasks were significantly superior to debates in terms of the rate of questions posed by the subjects, the rate of referential questions and the rate of confirmation checks.

However, although learners took significantly more turns in the problem solving tasks, they produced more words per turn in the debate tasks. Although research findings show pair and group work are beneficial for learners, not all research completely supports these practices. As Pica (1987) points out, tasks that focus on problem solving or discussion tend to favour participation among more assertive students. The critical factor that affects interaction patterns, then, is the type of learning tasks or activities used.

2.3.4.4. Summary

The subsections on learner participation in foreign language classrooms (2.3.4 to 2.3.4.3) have attempted to present the findings of research that investigated the role of learners in classroom discourse. The results of studies that have investigated the relationship between student interaction and language development have been mixed and therefore it cannot be claimed with confidence that interaction leads to progress. Nevertheless, student-student interaction is considered an essential feature of communicative language teaching, since it enables students to engage in meaningful language use, meaning negotiation, and promotes a positive affective climate.

Teacher talk has been identified as a major factor that determines the potential for student talk. Several studies have established that students' speech mainly consists of responding moves. Current teaching methods that favour active involvement of learners have led research to focus on the interaction between students occurring in small group and pair work. It has been suggested that student-student interaction enables learners to participate in meaning-focused communication, negotiate meaning and engage in planned/unplanned discourse. Studies have also compared features of student-student interaction with teacher-led interaction. It has been found that compared to teacher-led interaction, learners' interaction with peers encourage the use of more complex language, and through group/pair work learners get better opportunities for meaning negotiation and perform a wider range of acts (e.g. comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation requests). Regarding task-type, it has been found that two-way information exchange tasks result in increased negotiation of meaning. It can be said that, depending on the task type, the opportunities that the students get through small group or pair work may give them the

opportunity to use the target language, negotiate meaning and content, and construct discourse collaboratively.

Section 2.4 Conclusion to Chapter 2

This chapter dealt with two issues extensively discussed in the area of foreign language teaching and language acquisition: the communicative methodology, and the significance of input and interaction in relation to language learning. The assumptions and claims of Communicative Language Teaching, and theories and claims regarding the role of input and interaction in second language acquisition have been reviewed. Communicative Language Teaching sees meaningful language use and active participation of learners in classroom discourse as beneficial. The theoretical assumptions regarding Interaction Hypothesis and learner output also support classroom interaction and learners' engagement in classroom discourse as being beneficial for second language development. Therefore, the discussion in this chapter focused on various aspects of classroom discourse, including the specific roles of teachers and students. All these issues constitute the basis for understanding the complex issues related to classroom communication. For the purpose of fostering language development, interaction is considered an important factor that enables provision of input and learners' active participation in classroom discourse. Given the importance of classroom interaction, this study sets out to investigate the quality and quantity of interaction -focusing on the role of participants in English and Turkish foreign language classrooms, and make comparisons between the two contexts. The design and methodology for this research study are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter primarily attempts to discuss the research approach taken, in relation to the aim and research questions of this study. Firstly the research aim and questions are discussed. Secondly, a general review of case study is presented. Following this, information regarding participating schools and a review of the status of foreign languages in Britain and Turkey are provided. Classroom observation is reviewed as the main method of data collection and the scheme used in this study is discussed with specific reference to coding conventions and the changes that have been made. The final part of this chapter presents information regarding data analysis and teacher interviews.

3.2 The Aim of the Study and Research Questions

The main purpose of this study, as stated in the introductory section of this thesis, is to analyse and compare the spoken interaction between teachers and students in foreign language classrooms in England and Turkey at secondary school level in mainstream education.

As discussed in the Literature Review chapter, since the early 1980s recent approaches to language teaching have been shaped by the communicative approach which encourages teachers to give more initiative to learners and to find ways of actively involving students in the classroom processes. In addition, classroom interaction has been presented as a fundamental facet of classroom pedagogy, since oral communication both serves as the medium of learning and as an object of pedagogical attention in language classrooms. In view of the literature, teachers' target language use in classrooms has been considered necessary for learners' internalisation of the target language. Interaction between teachers and students is seen as a contributing factor to learners' language development. Students' interaction with peers, on the other hand, has been found to encourage the use of more complex language, better opportunities for meaning negotiation and the performance of a wider

range of acts compared to teacher-fronted interaction. These findings highlight the importance of classroom interaction with regard to learners' language development.

In 1999, the researcher had the privilege of observing FL lessons in a community college in Leicester. Coming from a Turkish EFL teaching background, this observation was particularly interesting and informative as there were recognisable differences between the English and Turkish language teaching contexts. First of all the size of classes in the English school was smaller than in Turkish state schools; the seating plan varied according to the rooms (rows, horse-shoe shape, group seating) whereas in Turkish state schools students generally sat in rows. In the English school, classes were grouped according to the ability level of the students, whereas in Turkey classes comprised mixed-ability students. British FL teachers mainly used self-prepared materials and rarely used course books (only for a specific activity). They provided students with opportunities for target language practice through contextualised role-plays. They relied heavily on the use of an OHP, and this coupled with self-prepared materials seemed to bring flexibility and control over the grading of classroom activities according to the purposes of teachers. In Turkish state schools, traditionally teachers used course books and followed the course book syllabus. Teachers supplemented course books with grammar drill handouts. They provided students with opportunities for target language practice through discussion activities based on course book texts. In terms of visual aids, teachers had blackboards in classrooms. British FL teachers also seemed to have the principle of explaining the purpose of every lesson and assessment criteria to the learners, which was not necessarily a traditional feature of the Turkish FL teachers' styles.

Observing such immediate differences motivated the researcher to investigate how differences in the English and Turkish language teaching contexts might shape the spoken interactions that occur in these contexts. This investigation is based on the assumption that spoken interaction between teachers and students is beneficial for learners' language development.

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 attempted to bring together the theories and research relevant to classroom language learning, and to highlight the importance of classroom interaction. It identified certain characteristics of 'communicative'

classrooms (such as the teaching of language in a context, the active involvement of learners in classroom processes, and the opportunities for learners to participate in meaningful interaction) that underpin the current developments in language teaching methodology. On the other hand, it presented studies that have attempted to explain the relationship between input, interaction and language acquisition, and how these studies have contributed to an understanding of classroom language learning. The review of the studies on foreign language classrooms suggested that teacher talk plays an important role in terms of providing the necessary TL input for learners, and that interaction between teachers and students contribute to learners' language development.

In view of the assumptions of the Literature and the above mentioned research interest, this study attempts to:

- compare English and Turkish language classrooms on the level of activities (language focus and materials) and classroom participant organisation styles
- investigate certain features of teacher talk to understand how teacher talk contributes to students' participation in classroom discourse
- investigate how students participate in classroom discourse

Based on these purposes, explicit research questions were formulated as follows:

1. How are lessons organised in terms of the proportions of teacher-fronted activities to pair, group and individual work?
2. What is the language focus of the lessons? How do teachers focus on different aspects of the target language?
3. What are the proportions and features of teachers' target language and mother tongue use?
4. What are the specific features of teachers' questions and feedback?
5. What are the features of students' target language production?
6. How do certain features of teacher questions and feedback affect student participation and language production?

The answers to these questions should help us to understand how teachers and students jointly construct classroom discourse within each context of study. It is

important for research, to visit classrooms at different intervals and collect data on what goes on in classrooms, both to inform and be informed by the actual processes.

3.3 Research Approach

This study is essentially quantitative in nature. In order to investigate the research questions listed in the previous section a case study method was used. The main source of data was gathered through the use of a systematic observation schedule. Overall, 63 language lessons were observed. In addition, all language lessons were audio-recorded for further analysis and detailed field-notes were taken during classroom observations. Of the 63 lessons, 21 were later subjected to further analysis of interaction. To crosscheck the data gathered through the observation schedule, and more importantly, to have a better understanding of teachers' views, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 5 participant teachers.

3.3.1 Case study

A case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of an instance in action. It provides a unique example of real people in real situations, which, according to Cohen et al (2000) is one of its strengths. Every case study is underlined by a method of observation. Depending on the research purposes and theoretical assumptions, researchers may choose to be participant or non-participant observers. The degree of structure may also vary, as researchers may use structured or unstructured observations to gather data.

The literature on research methods identifies several strengths and weaknesses of case studies. It is said they:

- capture unique features that may be lost in large-scale studies
- provide insights into other similar situations, thereby assisting interpretation of similar cases
- can be undertaken by a single researcher without needing a full research team
- present research data in a more publicly accessible form compared to other kinds of research report

but case study results:

- may not be generalisable except where the audience sees their application
- are prone to observer bias, selectivity and subjectivity

(Cohen et al 2000:184)

Despite its strengths, the most common objection to a case study is its limited validity and reliability. Although there are different kinds of validity, in general terms it can be said that validity refers to the demonstration that a particular instrument measures what it claims to measure. Validity takes different descriptions within the research approach that it is being used. Within a positivist approach validity implies controllability, appropriate sampling, instrumentation and statistical treatment. Whereas within an interpretivist approach validity implies undistorted, accurate accounts, the ability to grasp the meaning of events or participants, and generalisability within specific groups. LeCompte and Preissle (1993, in Cohen et al 2000:108) say in ethnographic research validity can be addressed in several ways, some of which are: using low-inference descriptors, multiple researchers and mechanical means to record and retrieve data. While these suggestions are related to internal validity, the question of external validity brings the problem of the generalisability of results in case studies. Generalisability refers to comparability and transferability of results. The response to the criticism regarding the generalisability of case studies is a commonly shared one, that, if cases provide clear and rich descriptions, the audience may decide what aspects of a particular study apply or do not apply to their own situations (Lincoln and Guba 2000, Walker 1993). Cohen et al (2000:115-7) suggest various ways in which all researchers may maximise validity, such as:

- selecting an appropriate methodology for answering the research questions
- selecting appropriate instrumentation for gathering data
- using an appropriate sample
- ensuring standardised procedures for gathering data
- ensuring inter-rater reliability
- using appropriate statistical treatments for the level of data
- avoiding making inferences beyond the capability of data to support such statements
- avoiding using data very selectively and unrepresentatively
- presenting the data without misrepresenting their message

A case study also needs to demonstrate reliability. Reliability is concerned with the relation between events and representations. It also refers to replicability. Reliability may be achieved by using equivalent forms of a test or data gathering instrument. Another way of ensuring this is through inter-rater reliability, where each researcher enters data in the same way. Reliability as replicability is associated with quantitative research in which the assumption follows that if the same methods are used with the same sample then the results should be the same. Whereas in qualitative research, reliability may be regarded as the agreement between what researchers record as data and what actually occurs in an observed setting. Educational situations are rarely replicable, nevertheless, a certain degree of reliability can be achieved if research procedures are clear and explicit.

As stated before, this study used a case study approach. This subsection has so far attempted to briefly present a case study as a research approach and discuss its strengths and weaknesses. On the basis of this, it is now appropriate to discuss the reasons for and implications of using a case study approach within the context of this specific study. Subsequently, a subsection on the participating schools will follow.

The main aim of this study, as stated in the introductory section of this thesis, is to analyse and compare the spoken interaction between teachers and students in foreign language classrooms in England and Turkey at secondary school level. The formulation of this aim and research questions led the researcher to focus on language classrooms. The nature of research questions and identification of language classrooms as the research context have been crucial factors in deciding to use natural observation as the appropriate approach. In addition to observation, the focus on teacher and student speech meant that observed lessons needed to be audio-recorded. For the purposes of gathering detailed information regarding the similarities and differences between English and Turkish language teaching contexts and collecting spoken language data, the researcher decided to select one secondary school from each context. The definition of a case study as the study of the particularity and complexity of an instance in action, and the suggested opportunity that it provides researchers with the opportunity to investigate the complex and dynamic instances,

fitted appropriately with the researcher's aims and hence determined the selection of a case study as the appropriate approach.

Following the decision to use a case study approach, the researcher reviewed literature on comparative research, classroom research and observation (Anderson and Burns 1989, Cohen and Manion 2000, Hammersley 1993, Alexander et al 1999, Bassey 1999). The fact that the researcher comes from a Turkish educational background brought the possibility that her higher level of familiarity with the Turkish educational context might subject the research to observer bias and subjectivity. Therefore, in view of the literature on classroom observation, a decision was made to use systematic observation as the research method. The details regarding systematic observation are presented under subsections 3.3.3.2 and 3.3.3.3. Following the discussion on choosing the research approach, it is now appropriate to look at the participating schools of this study.

3.3.2 The Participating Schools

There were several reasons for the selection of the school in England. In the initial observation period in 1999, the researcher experienced difficulty in gaining access to schools for observational purposes. Access to the particular community college was arranged through its connections with Leicester University. The observer spent two days a week for three months in the school, observing language lessons, and familiarising herself with the school and the educational culture. During this period, the observer was able to establish a positive rapport with the teachers in the language department. After the observations, the researcher compared her impressions of the educational context and language classrooms with fellow research students who also came from Turkish educational background and were in the process of conducting observations in other community colleges. These discussions suggested that although each context may be unique in some ways, there was a certain standard among schools and recurring themes (like the types of activities, the materials used, the size of classes, syllabuses) which suggested that what happened in one community college could be applicable to another. The researcher also checked the GCSE results and the OFSTED inspection report of the school to determine whether the school could be considered 'successful' in terms of national standards. The GCSE results of the

school, the specific results of the Modern Languages subject area and the inspection report have indicated that this particular school provided a good standard of education.

Following the identification of the research aim and questions, the researcher contacted the Head of the Modern Foreign Languages department, and arranged a meeting. In that meeting, the researcher explained the purposes of her study, and asked if the teachers would be willing to participate in the research, and if they were, what procedures needed to be followed in order to gain access to the school. The researcher was informed that a departmental agreement would be sufficient to grant access to the school. The researcher left a letter for the Head explaining the purposes of the research and requesting the help of teachers, and was informed that the Head would discuss access with other teachers in the next departmental meeting. The Head later contacted the researcher, informing her that access was granted.

The selection of the Turkish school was mainly determined by accessibility. In the Turkish context, in terms of educational research, the use of classroom research is limited and therefore it has not become a widely accepted part of the school culture. In general, the only external observers in classrooms are government inspectors and other trainee teachers. The presence of government inspectors is associated with assessment and is generally a cause of concern among teachers and students. In view of this, the researcher decided that in order to gain access to a school personal contacts might be useful. She contacted a teacher working in a selective state school and explained the research aims and asked for help in gaining access to that school. Following the teacher's agreement to help, the researcher wrote a letter addressed to the Head of the school, explaining the research purposes and the role of the researcher, asking for access and requesting the teachers' permission. The Head of the school confirmed that the school was willing to allow the research to be done and an appropriate period was agreed upon for the researcher to go to Turkey for data collection.

The school in Turkey was a selective school, Anadolu Lisesi, where students were previously required to sit a national exam on the last year of primary school to be accepted in such a school. However, the changes in the educational system and the decision taken to increase compulsory education to eight years, meant that students no

longer had to sit the national exam to be able to apply to selective schools. Also students could change schools relatively easily. This resulted in a wider range of ability levels of students in selective schools. Selective state schools are free with only a certain amount of financial contribution from parents. This means that students from a wide range of socio-economic backgrounds have access to this type of school and these schools are perceived to provide good education. This specific school could be considered typical of state schools from the total number of students enrolled, its class sizes, the teaching resources available, and the success rate of the school in terms of the number of students who are offered places in Turkish universities each year.

As agreed, the researcher visited the school for the first time in April 2000 and was denied access. The Head of the school said that unless each teacher in the languages department agreed to the presence of the researcher in the school, she would not grant access. The researcher then contacted the Head of the languages department first and then all other language teachers and explained the research purposes. They all agreed to be observed, on the basis of which, the researcher re-requested access to the school from the Head. This time the Head stated that unless the researcher had an approval letter from the local educational authority she would not be able to gain access. The researcher wrote a detailed letter of request to the local educational authority and was informed that they require a letter of approval from the local governor in order to provide the researcher with a letter of approval. Providing the required permissions, the researcher was finally granted access to the Turkish school.

It seems fair to say that there is a positive correlation between students' proficiency level, and the quality and quantity of the language produced. Slimani (1987) argued that the more proficient learners in her class, the more willing they seemed to interact. Since this study aimed to investigate the interaction between teachers and students, it seemed more appropriate to focus on students with relatively higher proficiency levels. For this purpose Year 9-10 from the English school (3-4 years of instruction, ages 14-15), Years 7-8-9 (2-4 years of instruction, ages 13-16) from the Turkish school were observed. A total number of 11 teachers and 63 lessons were observed. All of these lessons were audio recorded. Further details of the research contexts are presented in the Analysis and Discussion chapter (see 4.2 The Corpus).

3.3.2.1 The Status of Foreign Languages in Britain and Turkey

Since this study attempts to compare two different educational settings, it is necessary to acknowledge the wider context of learning languages in these two countries. Therefore, this subsection aims to present an overview of what learning foreign languages means in Britain and Turkey.

- *Language Learning in Britain:*

According to The National Languages Strategy report (2002), currently there are more 16 year olds learning languages to higher levels than ever in British history, nevertheless, the number of young people studying for language qualifications post-16 continues to decline and there are issues of pupil motivation and relative lack of success of lower income groups and boys. The government sets out to further their wider social, economic and political agenda, in which emphasising the importance of languages plays a key role. With the National Languages Strategy (2002) report, the importance of communicating in other languages has been highlighted and several reasons have been given for the need to transform the country's capability in languages:

- global economy
- commercial success and international trade
- global citizenship
- cultural, linguistic richness and mutual understanding
- personal fulfilment

The review of policy documents and critiques suggest that although in Britain there is more language learning compared to before, there is still a certain lack of interest in taking language learning to higher levels. Identifying this situation as a problem, policy papers point to the importance of language teaching and learning, and set targets -such as inspiring children from an early age to take an interest in languages or increasing the number of specialist language colleges, which underline what needs to be done to ensure economic success in international trade, access to global citizenship and for mutual understanding among cultures.

- *Language Learning in Turkey:*

Tollefson (1991 in Doğançay-Aktuna 1998:27) says ‘the penetration of English into major political and economic institutions on every continent of the globe is the result of the economic and military power of English-speaking countries and the expansion of the integrated global economic market which they have dominated’. On a parallel level the spread of English in Turkey started in the 1950s, motivated by the country’s need to open up Turkish society to technological development, international trade and communication.

In Turkey, English is mainly learned through formal schooling and it is currently the most preferred foreign language. For the majority of learners, it is a must in the competitive recruitment market in urban Turkey. In a survey of job advertisements Doğançay-Aktuna (1998) found that among 419 advertisements, 22% were printed in English, and overall 68% of these advertisements required a good knowledge of English. This suggests that Turkish people have strong economic incentives to learn English.

In a recent study Kiziltepe (2000) investigated Turkish students’ attitudes to learning foreign languages, attitudes towards the British and Americans and family encouragement. The results indicated that overall Turkish students have positive attitudes towards British and American communities and show a high level of motivation toward learning English. Kiziltepe (2000:154) says ‘there is now a trend for speaking a third language as young people believe that only English is not sufficient for their future’.

The issues discussed by Kiziltepe (2000) and Doğançay-Aktuna (1998) highlight the strongly felt necessity of learning languages. In Turkey, there seems to be several major factors that trigger this necessity: the status of Turkish being a ‘non-global’ language, the requirements of international trade and the increasingly competitive job market, and the need to access other cultures, science and technology. When the two contexts are compared, it can be said that Turkish students can be expected to be more motivated in learning a foreign language for economic reasons and the advantages that speaking a global language brings (e.g. access to other cultures, media, technology).

On the other hand, in the English context the necessity of learning languages, as identified by the government and policy planners, does not seem to have found a corresponding level of enthusiasm among individuals.

Having presented the information regarding the participating schools, and attempted to portray the differences and similarities in the two contexts, the next subsection will look at classroom observation as a research method -with specific focus on the use of systematic observation in this study.

3.3.3 Classroom Observation

Through observation researchers are able to gather live data from live situations. Structured and unstructured observations can be placed at opposite ends of a continuum, and researchers decide what type of observation they will conduct depending on their agenda and research questions. For the reason stated previously under 3.3.1, the researcher decided to use systematic observation.

McIntyre and Macleod (1986) define systematic observation as follows:

By systematic observation procedures, we mean those procedures in which the observer, deliberately refraining from participation in classroom activities, analyses aspects of these activities through the use of a predetermined set of categories or signs. This analysis may take place during the observation, or may be based on selective records such as audio and video recordings, or on transcripts of classroom discourse (p.10).

The main qualities of systematic observation are that it is highly structured, its categories have to be explicit and well defined, and the results are expressed in quantitative terms. In classrooms, the purpose of systematic observation is to provide a relevant description of the selected features of the classroom.

The most commonly used procedure for systematic observation is live observation in which the researcher has a kind of schedule to fill in and a time-keeping device. The recording procedures can vary according to the aims of the observer (count coding, time sampling, rating scales). Reliability is a problem for all observations where the observer places his/her interpretations of the category definitions, which may cause

validity problems. In order to get reliable results, observers have to be trained carefully about the categories of the schedule they are going to be using.

The observation schedule must be practical to use in classrooms, in the sense that it has to be easy to carry, read and write on in order to enable the mechanical process of coding to be done quickly and efficiently so that it does not interfere with the observation. In addition, observers need to consider the possible difficulties concerned with access to the research situation and relationships with the subjects of the research. Observers must also be aware of the fact that their presence in the classroom may have an effect on the situation being studied. Where necessary, observers should assure the participants that the study does not aim to judge the individuals and that participants' names will be kept confidential.

Certain aspects of systematic observation have been criticised. One common criticism is its use of predetermined categories. These categories define what information is important and what is irrelevant. Delamont and Hamilton (1976, cited in McIntyre and Macleod 1986) argue that therefore the value of systematic observation is totally dependent on the descriptive power of the concepts inherent in the system used. Another criticism that has been directed at the use of predetermined categories is its risk of suggesting only partial description. Although one can agree with that to a certain point, there is a counter argument which McIntyre and Macleod (ibid) put well:

Certainly, however, detail is lost and only a partial description is provided, but that is the case whoever the observer is and however he observes. The issue is not one of whether information is neglected, but rather one of how it is determined what information will be neglected. The competent systematic observer can be confident that he has decided what information he wants to collect and that he has not neglected any of this information (p.12).

Another criticism is that systematic observation neither takes any account of the meanings which participants give to their interactions, nor provides any evidence on the mental activities of the participants. Again an opposing argument would be that there is an objective reality to classroom activity which does not depend on these meanings and the systematic observer is concerned with this objective reality of events (McIntyre and Macleod, 1986).

As mentioned under section 3.3.1, the researcher chose systematic observation as the appropriate research method considering that systematic approach has long been used in classroom research (Allwright 1988) and that the researcher's higher familiarity with the Turkish educational context might subject the research to observer bias and subjectivity. The researcher believed that an appropriate observation schedule that could be used in both contexts was needed. In view of this, she reviewed the observation schedules that were available in the literature. This revision involved evaluations of different observation schedules in terms of appropriateness for research aims, the details of category descriptions, and the discussions in the literature regarding the strengths and weaknesses associated with different schedules. In view of this evaluation, this study used the systematic observation scheme by Allen et al (1984) that had been developed to capture the differences between the communicative orientations of language classrooms in various settings by focusing on the instructional procedures. Before deciding on the use of any specific scheme, the researcher looked at the literature to understand what schemes were available and their purposes of use, particular strengths and weaknesses associated with each scheme. On the basis of this evaluation, Allen et al's (1984) COLT scheme (The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) was found to be the most appropriate to use within the context of this study.

Several factors have determined the selection of this instrument. First of all COLT is designed to examine the effects of second language instruction on the acquisition of the target language. It is used to describe essential features of the second language classrooms, which differentiate among various approaches to second language teaching. A review of the current theoretical positions concerning communicative language teaching, an analysis of existing observation schemes and visits to ESL and EFL classes formed the basis for the categories of the COLT scheme (Spada and Fröhlich 1995).

The observation scheme has two parts, Part A and Part B (see Appendices 2 and 3). Part A is used to give a macro-level description (classroom organisation, lesson content, and materials used) of classrooms, whereas Part B analyses the

communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students. Several qualities of the scheme have made it the most appropriate one to use:

- Its categories have been derived from naturalistic observation of language classrooms,
- It acknowledges the current theoretical positions regarding language teaching (there is congruence between the categories of the scheme and the features the researcher finds necessary to investigate),
- It offers a structured way of analysing spoken data, and that it has been successfully used in various educational contexts (Canada, Japan, Greece, Australia, Spain).

Designing a new observation instrument was considered unnecessary since the existing instrument was suitable for the researcher's purpose. Moreover, the researcher considered that through the use of an existing tool a degree of comparability might be achieved among similar studies.

3.3.3.1 Reliability and The Piloting Stage

After careful study of the COLT scheme, in order to familiarise herself with the coding procedures, the researcher used video-recorded language lessons that were available through Leicester University library. During this observation and coding period a fellow research student who intended to use the same instrument was also present. This provided a valuable opportunity for both researchers to compare and discuss coding decisions in detail. The coding practice with video recorded lessons continued until high levels of inter-rater reliability was achieved.

The following step involved the researcher's pilot study in the participating English school, which included the use of the observation tool and audio recording in two lessons. The piloting proved very useful in terms of assessing the scheme's practicality of use and the effect of the observer and an audio-recording device in classrooms. The way the scheme is coded allowed the researcher sufficient time to make detailed field notes and observe the events in the classroom. The presence of the researcher seemed not to have a disruptive effect on students, yet to minimise the effect the researcher avoided eye contact with students and used a very small recording device with a sensitive microphone, which was easy to carry around, set and

the recording quality was sufficient. The next subsection will attempt to briefly introduce the categories of Part A and will discuss the coding decisions taken.

3.3.3.2 Part A categories and coding decisions

The coding for Part A is done in real time during the classroom observation. Classroom activity is established as the main unit of analysis. There are six categories on the schedule:

1. activity type
2. participant organisation
3. content
4. content control
5. student modality
6. materials

Each category has its sub-categories.

Activity type: This category is open-ended. The observer has to write down the type of activity in the classroom (drill, discussion, reading aloud etc.) and also record the starting and finishing time of each activity. Generally activities have separate episodes which are to be coded under the same activity. This category suggests what types of activities are predominantly used in different classrooms.

Participant Organisation: This category describes how the students are organised in the classroom. The sub-categories are: 'whole class', 'group work' and 'individual work'. This category provides information on how much of the lesson is spent on group work, individual work or teacher interacting with the whole class. Although these categories differentiate between students' working on different tasks, there is not a specific category for pair-work. For this reason, the observer decided to code pair-work activities under the group category and place 'p' next to the tick to indicate pair-work.

Content: This category provides information about the subject matter of the activities 'what is being talked about, read, written about or listened to' (Allen et al 1984). It has three sub-categories: 'management', 'language focus', and 'other topics'. The

'management' category refers to both teachers' procedural directives (e.g. 'turn to page 10') and the disciplinary statements (e.g. That is enough!). In the 'language focus' category, 'form' refers to grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. For example if the teacher shows vocabulary cards to students and asks what each item means, or if students are filling in the appropriate prepositions, these are coded under form focus. 'Function' refers to illocutionary acts like requesting, explaining and apologising. For example teachers and students discuss what 'I'll be back at two' could mean in different situations. The definition of this category seemed narrow to the researcher as teachers used the term 'function' or 'functional' with reference to their aims and activities to indicate that a specific activity is designed to practice the 'functional' use of language (such as booking a hotel room -especially in role-play situations). Teachers' reference to function seemed to be in agreement with Webster dictionary's definition that function 'implies a definite end or purpose that the one in question serves or a particular kind of work it is intended to perform'. Thus, in the context of this study the 'function' category is used for the language that students learn to serve a function in real-life situations (e.g. buying a train ticket, making a reservation, talking about past job experiences), and to language functions and communicative acts such as requesting, expressing opinions and apologising. 'Discourse' refers to the way sentences combine into cohesive and coherent sequences. For example if students are asked to order paragraphs to achieve a coherent sequence, this is coded under discourse. Fröhlich and Spada (1995) acknowledge the criticisms that their definition of the 'discourse' category is too narrow, and that it focuses on features of cohesion and coherence, failing to recognise instances of discourse where the emphasis is on meaning (e.g. a focus on interpretation of a text). They suggest that the definition of the 'discourse' category may include a focus on meaning in oral discourse, which involves 'the expression of authentic messages in communicative interaction' (Fröhlich and Spada 1995:48). The 'discourse' category is used with its wider implication (spoken and written) in the context of this study. The 'sociolinguistics' category refers to forms or styles appropriate to different contexts or genres. For example, the differences in the use of French 'tu' and 'vous', or choosing the sociolinguistically appropriate sentence in different situations (e.g. would you mind closing the door? or close the door).

Content control: Content control is about who selects the topic that is the focus of instruction. Spada and Fröhlich (1995) suggest the categories under 'content' may co-occur, in which case the tick showing the primary focus can be circled. Three subcategories are identified in the scheme for content control: 'teacher/text', 'teacher/text/student', 'student'. If the activity is a reading activity from a course book then 'teacher/text' can be coded. If the teacher asks the students to write about a past holiday then 'teacher/text/student' can be coded since students have a certain degree of freedom within the set activity. If students make a presentation or initiate an activity then 'student' can be coded.

Student modality: Student modality is about what the students are involved in during each activity, like listening, speaking, reading, writing or any combination of these. The coding decisions regarding student modality have been made as follows: If students listen without interacting with the speaker then the 'listen' category is ticked (such as extended teacher explanation, audio-recording). When students focus individually on reading a text the 'read' category is ticked. Similarly, the 'writing' category indicates that students are individually engaged in writing. The 'other' category is ticked when students are engaged in an activity such as drawing, cutting or arranging displays. The combination of categories points to an equal use of these skills by students. For example, the 'listening and speaking' category suggests that there may be a question answer sequence, discussion or a role-play activity going on. 'Listening and reading' may be coded when students both listen to an audio-recorded version of a text and at the same time follow the text from a worksheet. 'Listening and writing' skills may be combined when students listen to an audio recording and at the same time write specific information, or if the teacher gives some information in the target language and students write the information down. 'Reading and writing' may be combined when students read a text and fill in a form accordingly or use a sample text to compose a similar text.

Materials: This category aims to describe the materials used in classroom activities in terms of whether:

- they are written, audio or visual
- they are minimal or extended

- they are originally intended for pedagogic, semi-pedagogic or non-pedagogic use (eg a dialogue in students' text books is intended for pedagogic use but a newspaper article intended for the general reader is non-pedagogic)
- the use of materials is highly controlled, semi-controlled or minimally controlled by the teacher

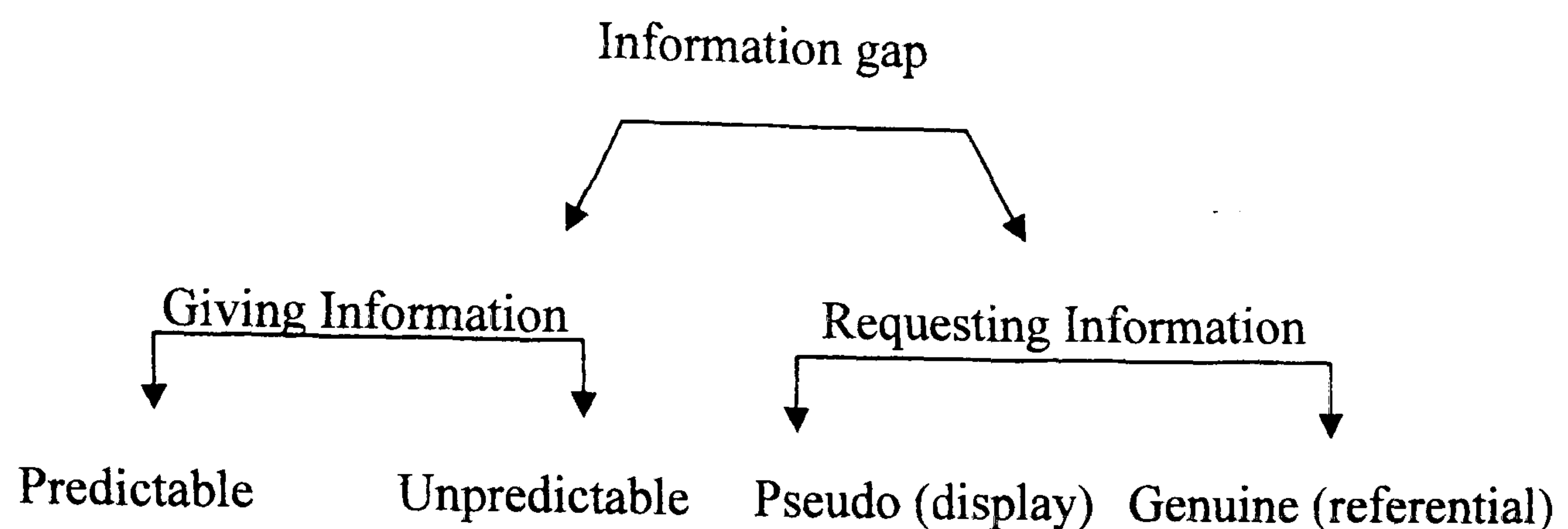
In order to have detailed information about the categories of Part A and the rationale behind them, the reader may wish to refer to Allen et al (1984) and/or Spada and Fröhlich (1995).

3.3.3.3 Part B categories

The B part of the observation scheme is designed to be used for making an analysis of the communicative features occurring within each activity. As Part B focuses on the verbal output of teachers and students, it is quite detailed compared to Part A, and therefore, the coding is done after the observation by using audio or visual recordings. The schedule is divided into two parts: 'teacher verbal interaction' and 'student verbal interaction'. The categories for both parts are the same (except for 'discourse initiation' and 'form restriction', which are coded only for students). Part B is designed around seven main communicative features which are as follows:

Use of target language: aims to determine the extent to which the students and teachers use the target language and the mother tongue. All verbal speech produced by teachers and students are coded as L1 (mother tongue) or L2 (target language). There are no further categories to code the details of L1 use. Spada and Fröhlich (1995) suggest observers may wish to add categories for the occurring themes of L1 use (such as disciplinary or managerial use).

Information gap: refers to the extent to which the information requested or exchanged in the classroom is unpredictable. This category has two subcategories: 'giving information' and 'requesting information'. These subcategories also have their subcategories as presented in the diagram:



If the given information is already known or anticipated by the listener then it is predictable information. If the information is not already known or easily anticipated then it is unpredictable. It is the same for requests. If the speaker already knows the information s/he requested then it is a pseudo request if not, then it is a genuine request. Genuine requests are ‘often elicitations of opinions or interpretive questions’ (Spada and Fröhlich 1995:71). Managerial and disciplinary directives are coded under the unpredictable information category. Reading aloud is considered unpredictable information if a text is new to the students and is considered predictable if the text is familiar. If the student responds to the teacher with ‘I do not know’ or ‘I cannot remember’ these kinds of responses are coded under unpredictable information. Questions that are repeated several times are coded only once unless there is a pause indicating that a response was expected. If no response is given and the question is repeated then it is coded again. The examples below further illustrate the categories under information gap:

T: What facilities are there at the campsite?	(Pseudo request)
S: Sports pitch	(Giving predictable information)
T: What did you do on the weekend?	(Genuine request)
S: I went to see a movie.	(Giving unpredictable information)

Sustained speech: This category aims to measure the extent of the speakers’ utterances. An utterance that consists of one or two words is coded as ultra-minimal (e.g. yes). If the utterance is more than two words, or consists of long phrases and one or two main clauses or sentences it is coded as minimal (e.g. yes, I like it too).

Utterances that are longer than one sentence, or consist of at least three main clauses are coded as sustained speech (e.g. yes I like it too. It is better than The Matrix. The effects are better). Turns are considered as ‘any and all speech which is produced by a speaker until another person begins speaking’ (Spada and Fröhlich 1995:62). A turn may consist of ultra-minimal, minimal or sustained speech and each turn is coded on a new line on the scheme.

Reaction to form or message: this category is related to the content category of Part A. It is about measuring whether teachers and/or students react to the linguistic form or the meaning of what the preceding speaker says. It is coded only when teachers or students react to the previous speaker’s turn.

S: The bee sting me.

T: The bee stung me. (reaction to form)

S: S: The bee sting me.

T: Oh, did it hurt? (reaction to message)

Incorporation of preceding utterances: refers to the various ways in which students and teachers react to each other’s utterances. The coding scheme defines seven types of reactions: correction, repetition, paraphrase, comment, expansion, clarification request and elaboration request. The ‘correction’ category is only used to code errors in form not meaning, and generally co-occurs with other categories under ‘incorporation of preceding utterances’. For example if the teacher corrects by repeating a student’s utterance with stress or rising intonation then correction and repetition are coded:

S: she goed with her friend.

T: She goed with her friend? (correct / repeat)

If the teacher corrects by commenting such as ‘no that is not quite right’ then correction and comment are ticked. If teachers provide the correct form by paraphrasing the student’s utterance then correction and paraphrase are ticked.

S: I go ski.

T: I went skiing. (correct / paraphrase)

Spada and Fröhlich (1995) say meaning related corrections can be incorporated into the scheme if desired. The 'comment' category indicates evaluative remarks that can be negative or positive responses to the message or the form of the previous speaker's turn:

S: I want to be a chocolate tester.

T: That sounds interesting. (comment)

The 'expansion' category includes any extensions of information to the preceding speaker's turn:

S: I want to be a chocolate tester.

T: You can eat chocolate all day and earn money at the same time. (expansion)

When an incomplete turn is completed by another speaker this is not coded under expansion.

T: What movie did you see?

S1: We saw (unpredictable information)

S2: Speed. (unpredictable information)

Clarification requests are coded when the preceding speaker is not understood and repetition or reformulation is required.

T: What did you do on the weekend?

S: I went to XX. (inaudible speech)

T: sorry, where did you go? (clarification request)

Elaboration requests are coded when the speaker requests further information from the preceding speaker:

S: I went to see a movie.

T: What did you see? (elaboration request)

Discourse initiation: aims to measure the frequency of self-initiated turns by students.

For any self-initiated requests for information and responses, this category is ticked.

S: I went to see a movie. (unpredictable information)

T: so did I. What did you see? (expansion / elaboration request)

S: Speed. What did you see? (unpredictable info/discourse initiation)

Form restriction: refers to the degree of linguistic restriction imposed upon students' language production. The content of students' language may also be restricted while the form remains unrestricted. In the following example the students are practicing

refusals in English. Although the content of what they say is not restricted, they are asked to use certain forms like 'I am sorry but...' or 'I am afraid...':

T: if your neighbour asks you to look after her cat while she is on holiday?

S: I'm sorry but I'm allergic to cats.

Examples of restricted language use are:

- transformation and substitution drills
- reading aloud by individual students
- identification of vocabulary items (giving synonyms, opposites, translations)
- singing
- rewriting a paragraph by changing present tense into the past

(Spada and Fröhlich 1995:88)

3.3.3.4 The Process of Classroom Observation

The researcher observed a total number of 27 language lessons (each 60 minutes) in the English school, and 36 lessons (each 40 minutes) in the Turkish school. All of these observations were recorded on Chart A and later analysed. Although teachers had agreed to be observed, before each lesson the researcher asked the permission of the teacher to observe the lesson. In addition, the researcher asked teachers' preference to explain the presence of an observer to students. British teachers generally stated that was not necessary or that might distract the students. Nevertheless, as the researcher wanted to record student-student interaction, she asked students' permission individually to use an audio-recorder to record their voices. Most of the students declined and the ones that gave permission were later observed to shy away from being recorded as they covered the recorder with their books, which rendered the recordings unusable. In the Turkish school, students' attitudes mirrored the students in the English school, and only in one lesson a clear recording of student-student interaction was made because the teacher placed the recorder.

The number of lessons observed from each teacher depended on the teachers' availability and willingness to have an observer in their classrooms for any particular day and lesson period. A determiner factor was teachers' lesson plans. If they intended

to do oral exams, have the class watch a video or focus on a certain aspect of language for revision purposes before an exam these lessons were considered atypical and teachers preferred not to have the observer in their atypical lessons. In addition, the observation of language lessons of the same teachers in the English school a year before the pilot study, gave a certain degree of confidence in the researcher's ability to differentiate between teachers' typical and atypical lessons. A similar degree of confidence may also be justifiable for the Turkish school, since the researcher comes from a Turkish educational background and taught in a similar school.

3.3.3.5 The Analysis of Audio-recorded lessons

The coding of Part B is based on the audio recording of each lesson observed (see Appendix 4). The coding can be done for the entire observation period or a time sampling procedure may be preferred (for the whole lesson or within activities). Spada and Fröhlich (1995) suggest transcribing lessons before any coding is done. The researcher decided to treat lessons as whole discourse units and therefore coded all interaction as it occurred in lessons. The researcher also decided that listening to the audio-recordings and coding at the same time may be preferable since what a speaker says may have different interpretations depending on the intonation and the context, and these differences may be captured better by listening rather than using transcriptions.

Based on these decisions, two randomly selected lessons from each school were treated to preliminary analysis to verify the appropriateness of the coding categories of the Part B scheme, and to see whether it is possible to code lessons without transcribing them first. During the coding, students were identified by their voices, direct teacher nominations and the content connections between the contributions of the same speaker over a stretch of talk. The analysis indicated that the details of teacher talk might be captured better if relevant categories are added to the scheme. For example, teachers' form related explanations, other talk related to the school (such as school trips) or talk for social purposes are all coded under the 'giving information' category as predictable or unpredictable information. In order to capture details in teacher talk the researcher added several categories, based on the audio-recorded data. The added categories for teachers' use of mother tongue were as follows:

- L1 instruction: teacher's instructions
- L1 form explanation: teachers' explicit reference to language forms
- L1 functional explanation: teachers' remarks regarding the physical environment or general explanations that provide information to students (e.g. test dates, course work)
- L1 question: teacher questions in the mother tongue, when this category is coded, a tick is placed under 'pseudo' or 'genuine' request categories to indicate the type of question asked.
- L1 accept/ praise/ criticise: teachers' feedback that indicates direct acceptance, refusal or praising of students' preceding turns.
- L1 other: teachers' giving information or linguistic clues that help students' language production, disciplinary remarks, and reactions to either form or message of students' language. When L1 other is coded in relation to a reaction to students' language production, the categories 'reaction to form' and 'reaction to message' are also coded. In order to determine the type of feedback reaction that is given, the appropriate category under 'incorporation of student utterances' is coded.

All categories described above are also used for L2. These categories are added under 'information gap', while the main structure of the scheme has been kept the same.

As the preliminary analysis showed, no other additions were necessary, and in order to keep a certain amount of comparability between studies that have used the COLT scheme it was considered useful to keep in line with the main structure of the scheme. For practical purposes, the coding was done using an Excel spreadsheet by creating the same structural framework. This was also necessary for the analysis stage in which the data in spreadsheets would be transferred to SPSS statistical software. In order to avoid any coding errors, one category was added to student speech: 'silent'. This category was coded when there was no response to teacher initiation.

The validity and reliability of observational features and of category analysis are essential issues in research. The researcher has used Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) coding manual in which detailed descriptions of categories and lesson extracts are provided. The researcher first used these lesson extracts and compared her coding decisions with Spada and Fröhlich (1995). This enabled the researcher to develop her confidence in the coding process. Analysis of data is based on the calculation of the

ticks in a particular category and dividing this number by the total number ticks placed under a particular feature. For example if the total number of teacher questions are 100 and the number of genuine questions are 35 it can be said that 35% of teacher questions were genuine (referential) and 65% were display questions. For the coding, '1' indicated occurrence (replacing the tick mark), '0' indicated non-occurrence. Following the coding, the analysis was made using SPSS software. The analysis included counts of the numbers of occurrences, and if statements such as 'if teachers react to form (independent variable) what kind of feedback reactions do they make (dependent variables constituting: correction, repetition, paraphrase, comment, expansion, elaboration request and clarification request)'. Then the proportions of each kind of feedback were calculated as described above. Based on the procedures described above, of the observed 63 lessons a total of 21 lessons of 6 teachers were subjected to analysis through the use of Chart B (see Appendix 5).

3.3.3.6 Analysis of Part A

Part A required live coding during classroom observations. The researcher observed each activity and placed ticks under appropriate categories. The duration of each activity was coded. This enabled the researcher to calculate the total amount of lesson time spent on-task. The percentages under each category were subsequently calculated on the basis of the total amount of time spent on task. For example if the total activity time is 55 minutes out of a 60 minute lesson and out of this 55 minutes 20 minutes is spent on teacher-fronted interaction, then the proportion of teacher-fronted interaction makes up 37% of the lesson (20/55). All 63 lessons were subjected to analysis through the use of Chart A (see Appendix 5).

3.3.3.7. Field Notes

In addition to the use of Part A in classroom observations, the researcher also made detailed notes on what happens in each activity, the classroom setting, materials used, non-verbal gestures or actions and how students interacted. It was intended that along with the audio-recordings of the lessons, the detailed notes could present a reasonably vivid picture of the lessons. In the analysis process, the results of systematic observations are checked with these field notes.

3.3.4. Teacher Interviews

Kvale (1996 in Cohen et al 2000) says an interview is an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, enabling participants to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live. Interviews may serve different purposes. It may be used as a major means of gathering information, to test or suggest a hypothesis, as a device for identifying variables and relationships or in combination with other methods for triangulation purposes, following up results and to gather detailed information from individuals regarding their attitudes, values, knowledge and beliefs (Cohen et al 2000).

Interviews vary from structured, semi-structured to non-structured. The degree of formality and power relations in interviews depend on research purposes, the type of information intended to be collected and researchers' theoretical assumptions. In this study, an interview was conducted to understand teachers' aims and perceptions of target language use in their classrooms. For this purpose a semi-structured interview was used. In semi-structured interviews, the general structure of the interview is set up before the interview; however, there is a certain amount of flexibility in the sense that a researcher may seek further information depending on the responses of the interviewees.

In this study five teachers were interviewed. The researcher prepared a set of questions to ask the teachers who agreed to be interviewed and interviews of the British FL teachers were audio-recorded with their permissions whereas Turkish teachers' were not (see Appendix 6 for interview questions). The researcher considered that establishing positive rapport with teachers before conducting interviews would be beneficial for the interviewing process, as teachers may feel more relaxed and more open to the interviewer, and also familiarity with the complexity of the research contexts may require additions to the interview questions. For these reasons, the interviews were conducted towards the end of the observation period spent in each school. The researcher started interviewing teachers informally by bringing up issues of interest following classroom observations to gather information and their perspectives informally. This interest seemed to encourage teachers to be more open to share their views, as what happened in their classrooms was of mutual

interest. In order to avoid bias, the researcher was careful in every step of the interviewing to underline that her intentions were to understand teachers' aims and views, not to impose any judgements upon them. Teacher interviews were conducted at a time preferred by teachers, and all teachers were mainly asked the same questions. However, depending on teacher responses further questions were asked to clarify meaning or to prompt further comments. The data from teacher interviews is used in this study as a way of representing their personal views and checking against the findings from quantitative analysis of their observed lessons.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter reported on the research design and the research instruments used for data collection. It also attempted to discuss the categories of the COLT scheme, procedures for coding and analysing quantitative data and how teacher interviews and field notes are used in relation to quantitative data. Field notes and teacher interviews are not used for triangulation but to provide a corroborated approach for this study. The use of systematic observation and the same instrument in both educational contexts is considered necessary to minimise observer bias, selectivity and subjectivity as the researcher comes from a Turkish educational background. In terms of achieving a certain degree of validity, the researcher used the same instrument - which has been tried before in different educational settings- in both schools, and has worked with a fellow researcher to achieve inter-rater reliability. The researcher does not intend to generalise the findings of this study. The intention is rather to study classrooms in a way that would capture the attention of possible audiences of this study (teachers, teacher trainers and fellow researchers). The schools selected in this study are likely to be as typical or atypical as any other school. Thus this study attempts to provide in depth detail about both contexts, in such a way that the audience might see which aspects may or may not apply to their own situation.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, results from the analyses of coded lesson charts and lesson transcripts are presented. The framework that constitutes the categories for analysing classroom-interaction was discussed in the Methodology Chapter, subsections (3.3.3.2; 3.3.3.3). The results presented in this chapter were obtained by means of quantitative analysis of patterns of classroom discourse on the level of speaker utterances and turns in the observed lessons, and qualitative analysis of lesson transcripts and audio-recordings. For the identification of utterances and turns Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) definition has been followed. Spada and Fröhlich (1995:62) define utterances as 'any relevant categories which occur within a teacher or student turn' and turns as 'any and all speech which is produced by a speaker until another person begins speaking'.

First of all a macro-view of the lessons is presented (in 4.3) in terms of the type of tasks that students engage in, the proportion of teacher-fronted activities to group, pair and individual work, the general language focus of the activities, who controls the activity content, and the type of materials that are used in the observed classrooms. This presentation includes a cross comparison between the Turkish school and the English school. This is followed by a discussion of the findings in the light of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. Thirdly, this discussion will be followed by subsection 4.4, presenting the amounts of teacher and student participation in general classroom interaction derived from the quantitative analysis of the Part B coding scheme. The results from the statistical treatment of data (descriptive frequencies and cross-tabulation) are reported regarding the interactional patterns as classified according to the discourse categories of the coding scheme (part B). As this research is essentially a case study and the sample size is quite small, the researcher has made a decision to leave the statistical treatment of research data at the level of frequency counts and cross-tabulation. Relevant extracts from transcribed lessons are also used for illustrative purposes. In addition, teachers' views are presented where relevant, for the purpose of representing their voices. Finally, the presentation of data regarding

classroom interaction is followed by a discussion of the findings in view of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

4.2. The Corpus

The data collected for this research project comes from foreign language lessons in two secondary schools: one in England and the other in Turkey. Table 1 summarises the total number of observed lessons and the number of participating teachers:

Table 1. The Corpus

Teacher	Research-type	Sex	Students' Year Group	Students' age	Number of observed lessons
T1	Obser/interv.	F	8	14-15	12
T2	Obser/interv.	F	9	15-16	5
T3	Obser/interv.	F	9	15-16	8
T4	Observation	F	7	13-14	10
T5	Observation	F	8	14-15	1
B1	Observation	F	9-10	14-15	3
B2	Observation	F	9-10	14-15	3
B3	Observation	F	9-10	14-15	3
B4	Obser/interv.	F	9-10	14-15	7
B5	Obser/interv.	F	9-10	14-15	5
B6	Observation	M	9-10	14-15	6

In the table above, teachers T1-T5 belong to the Turkish school (TS) and teachers B1-B6 belong to the English school (ES). In total, 36 lessons (each 40 minutes) of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) from the Turkish school, and 27 lessons (each 60 minutes) of French as a Foreign Language (FFL) and German as a Foreign Language (GFL) from the English school were observed. The classes observed in the English school were grouped according to their ability levels as ‘top set’ and ‘lower set’ and both levels were observed. In the Turkish school, classes comprised of mixed-ability students and the proficiency levels ranged from lower intermediate to intermediate. Class sizes in the ES varied between 17-30 students. This variation was between 36-42 students in the TS.

Each lesson was observed and certain features were recorded by real-time coding of the Chart A of the COLT scheme. The details regarding Chart A have been presented in the Methodology Chapter, subsection (3.3.3.2). First of all, the observer made a detailed note of each activity and its duration. Then, for each activity the observer coded under relevant categories. For the analysis, the total time of these activities were added up to see how much lesson time was spent on-task. It is not unusual to find that certain proportions of lessons are spent on students settling down, for general lesson management procedures such as distributing books or taking the register. In order to make precise calculations for the analyses, the set time frames for the lessons (60 minutes for the English school and 40 minutes for the Turkish school) were disregarded, in favour of the actual amount of time spent on-task. When making any calculations regarding the proportions of certain features of each lesson, the total amount of time spent on-task was taken into consideration. For example if a total of 5 minutes of a 40 minute lesson was spent on taking the register and students settling down, and then students were engaged in a writing activity for 15 minutes, and then a teacher-fronted activity for 20 minutes, this means that 42.9% ($15/35$) of the time was allocated to students' working individually, and 57.1% ($20/35$) of the time was allocated to general teacher-student interaction. This constituted the basis of percentage calculations.

This study aims to compare classroom interaction in two different contexts. Therefore, it is important to describe and compare the similarities and differences between the English and Turkish contexts in terms of the types of activities, the proportion of teacher-fronted activities to individual, group and pair work, and the types of materials used in these classrooms. Hence, the following subsection aims to present such descriptive data regarding the two contexts.

4.3 The Macro-view of the Observed Classrooms

For the purpose of collecting descriptive information of the research contexts, Chart A of the COLT scheme was used for each observed lesson. All coded-charts were later analysed as described above, to see the proportions of:

- teacher-fronted activities and group/pair/individual work
- the general language focus of the activities
- the skills that the students used during these lessons
- the type of materials that were used in the observed classrooms

It is intended that the investigation of these points will provide a descriptive picture of the general classroom processes. This is especially important for the contextualisation of the teaching and learning environments in both schools, as this study attempts to compare two different contexts and analyse the emerging classroom interactions. The following subsections deal with the analyses of the above-listed points. First of all, analysis results for each school are presented separately, then, the two contexts are compared and the results of the analyses are discussed in view of the Literature in Chapter 2.

4.3.1. English FFL/GFL Lessons

In the English school, a total of 27 lessons of 6 language teachers were observed and recorded. All the teachers observed were experienced teachers (11-18 years of teaching experience). The table below shows the average percentages for general classroom organisation of each teacher's lessons. The numbers in brackets in the 'Teacher' column indicate the number of observed lessons for each teacher:

Table 2. Participant organisation in English FL classrooms

Teacher	Teacher- Student	Student- Student	Choral	Group/ Same	Group/ Different	Individual/ same	Individual/ Different
B1 (3)	28	4.3	0	0	0	67.7	0
B2 (3)	40.7	3.8	0	8.1	0	47.4	0
B3 (3)	50.4	6	0	4	0	39.6	0
B4 (7)	69.4	0	0	1.1	0	29.5	0
B5 (5)	49	5.2	0	5.3	0	40.5	0
B6 (6)	65.2	0	4.8	8.9	0	21.1	0
<i>Mean</i>	<i>50.5</i>	<i>3.2</i>	<i>0.8</i>	<i>4.6</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>40.0</i>	<i>0</i>

In the table above, 'teacher-student' refers to teacher-fronted interaction; 'student-student' refers to a student or a group of students' replacing the teachers' role or playing a central role in determining classroom discourse for an extended period of time (e.g. students performing a role-play for the whole class, reading out loud, or giving presentations). 'Group/same' indicates that pairs or groups are working on the same task; 'group/different' indicates groups or pairs are working on different tasks; 'individual/same' refers to students' working individually on a set task and 'individual/different' refers to students' working individually on different tasks.

The data in Table 2 suggests that British FL teachers use two main classroom organisation types: teacher-fronted interaction and students' working on their own. When the 'teacher-student' column is looked at, the low percentage of teacher-fronted interaction in B1's lessons can be seen as untypical among the group. To find a possible explanation for that, the researcher looked at the types of activities that took place in the observed lessons of B1. This investigation pointed to the fact that, in B1's lessons students were engaged in writing tasks that took a considerable part of these lessons (34/43; 23/47; 21/48 minutes). The low-percentage values in the 'student-student' column indicate that students' replacing the teacher or performing for the whole-class were not common occurrences. There was not any recorded incident of a student presentation during the lessons. According to the researcher's field notes and audio-recordings of the lessons, the percentage values in the 'student-student' column come from students' performing role-plays for the whole-class.

According to Chart A, if pairs or groups were working on the same task then the 'group/same' category would be ticked. If pairs or groups were working on different tasks then the 'group/different' category would be ticked. The results show that teachers did not assign different tasks to pairs and groups. Although Chart A does not offer different columns for coding pair work and group work, whenever the 'group/same' category was ticked, the observer made a note to differentiate whether this was a pair work or a group work activity. According to these notes there was not any group work in the observed lessons. Therefore all the percentages in the 'group/same' category present the percentages of pair work activities. It can be seen from Table 2 that teachers used pair work with different proportions. B2 and B6 used more pair work compared to other teachers. In general it can be said that pair work activities took less than 9% of British FL teachers' lessons, with a group mean score of 4.6%. Based on the data that Table 2 presents, it may be appropriate to argue that in the English FL teaching context:

- general interaction between teachers and students dominate classroom interaction,
- teachers do not or rarely set tasks for groups (since there was no group work in any of the 27 lessons observed),
- teachers tend to use pair work activities with different proportions (the highest proportion being 8.9% of the total lesson time spent on-task).

The ongoing debate on form focus within a communicative methodology has been presented in the Literature Review, subsection 2.1.4. The categories in table 3 have been adapted from Chart A and aim to present the extent to which British teachers' lessons vary in their focus on language form and meaning:

Table 3 Language focus of the lessons in English FL classrooms

Teachers	Form	Function	Discourse	Sociolinguistics
B1	2.1	38.2	59.7	0
B2	0	66.8	33.2	0
B3	34.6	20	45.4	0
B4	23.4	56.5	20.1	0
B5	18.1	52.3	28.7	0.9
B6	23.3	36.6	40.1	0
<i>Mean</i>	<i>16.9</i>	<i>45.1</i>	<i>37.9</i>	<i>0.2</i>

The values presented are percentage values.

The detailed descriptions of the categories in Table 3 have been presented in the Methodology Chapter, subsection (3.3.3.2). 'Form' refers to formal language features such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling. The 'function' category refers to the language that students learn to use to serve a function in real-life situations -such as buying a train ticket, making a reservation or talking about past job experiences, and to language functions and communicative acts such as requesting, expressing opinions and apologising. The 'discourse' category refers to either spoken or written discourse. Spoken discourse involves the expression of messages in interaction (e.g. a discussion related to a text), while written discourse involves an extended text (e.g. writing a letter, organising paragraphs to make a coherent and cohesive text). The 'sociolinguistics' category indicates any reference to spoken or written forms of the target language appropriate to various contexts or genres (e.g. explaining the differences in the use of 'tu' and 'vous' in French).

According to the results, form focus of lessons varies between 0-35%, function focus varies between 20-67 % and discourse focus varies between 20-60%. This shows that, overall, the 'function' and 'discourse' categories represent the main language focus of the lessons, and there is a balance between the teaching of the functional use of the target language and focus on discourse. It can also be said that although the teaching of language form is stressed, it is less emphasised compared to the teaching of functional language use.

In order to gather a comprehensive view of how teachers focused on different aspects of the target language, the researcher re-examined field-notes and audio-recordings of the lessons. This further analysis consisted of looking for common patterns or differences among teachers, and revealed how British FL teachers focused on form, function, discourse and sociolinguistics. Regarding language form, it can be said that teachers contextualised any language forms that they were teaching. For example the future tense was taught through talking about future holiday plans, extended texts were given to help students practice past tense forms or vocabulary with certain words written in L1 (see Appendix 7). When teachers were introducing new forms or phrases it was common practice to use L1 for explanations, as the following extract exemplifies:

Transcript 1, B4, Year 10:

T: When you talk about the jobs that you do, it is je suis, I am. I am a waiter. I am a paper boy. Je suis. If you say I'm a waiter; I work Saturdays as a waiter, tout le samedi je suis serveur, je suis serveur dans un café. R, je suis server dans un café.

S: Je suis server dans un café.

T: Je suis vendeur not in a shop, Je suis vendeur dans une station-service.

S: Je suis vendeur

T: dans une station-service.

S: er

T: dans une station-service

S: dans une station-service.

T: OK. A delivery boy or girl. Je suis livrez. Deliver. Any sort of part-time jobs you say je suis and then the job. What about an answer to the next one? How do you get there? Je vais au travail en bus, en voiture, à pied, en velo. So C, Je vais au travail à pied.

S: Je vais au travail à pied.

As the extract illustrates, teachers contextualised the phrases they taught and made explanations in L1. The language to be taught was structured according to possible questions one might be asked in a given context. In the example, possible questions were 'what do you do?' and 'how do you travel to work?' and the teacher first presented possible student responses and then asked students to repeat the presented language.

Teachers did not use any drill-type grammar activities in their lessons. Although teaching of form was contextualised with higher sets some teachers occasionally made explicit reference to form and used L1 for such explanations. In the excerpt below, the teacher is focusing on how verbs change according to tenses:

Transcript 2, B5, Year 10:

T: I want you to be aware of the past tense; because to do this higher speaking you need good control over the past tense. So a lot of verbs take avoir the past participle, the bit in the middle, avoir yeah? So give me an example of one of the more common verbs in the past tense.

Ss: (*silence*)

T: give me an example of a past tense verb.T?

S1: J'ai acheté

T: J'ai acheté. Good. J'ai acheté. This 'ai' comes from the verb avoir. This is called past participle, all right? So j'ai acheté I bought. Can I have another example?

S2: mangé

T: Right, j'ai mangé. I ate. Now, a lot of verbs go XX at the end. Can I have an example?

S3: j'ai fait

T: J'ai fait. J'ai fait du revision. Now we've learned j'ai, what else? We're going to say j'ai but if we wanted to involve people, I did this, I did this with my friend, we did this

S4: nous avons

T: nous avons, yeah. Nous avons. And again avons comes from the verb avoir OK? Nous avons jouer. Nous avons mangé. Right. There are some verbs that take été and come from the verb être. Can you give me an example?

S5: je suis allé

T: je suis allé is one. Yes. What if this je is referring to a girl?

S5: e

S6: an s

T: What XX to a verb like that?

S6: Nous sommes

T: Right, you've gone straight into the nous. nous sommes allées. Ok? What happens at the end of allé?

S7: e

S7: s

T: s because it is more than one, it is plural. We, me and my friend, me and my sisters. Nous sommes allées.

For vocabulary focus teachers also commonly asked direct questions such as ‘what is a nursery in French?’ or ‘what facilities might you hear mentioned at a campsite?’. Re-examination of field-notes and audio-recordings suggested that B6 used a different approach to teaching and practicing of vocabulary. This teacher generally presented or revised vocabulary by presenting students with unexpected discourse or through games, so that students would focus on meaning rather than their attention being focused on form. The following transcription example is taken from one of B6’s lessons and is illustrative of this teacher’s technique. The teacher wants each student to repeat the previous items and then add an item to the list:

Transcript 3, B6, Year 10:

T: Qu’est ce que tu as fait ce week-end?

S1: je suis allé au supermarché.

T: je suis allé au supermarché. OK, ce week-end, je suis allé au supermarché, et j’ai acheté un paquet de chips. OK, allez continues.

S2: Good food!

T: Continues, continues, non, non, non, je suis allé au supermarché, et j’ai acheté un paquet de chips, K?

S3: Je suis allé au supermarché, et j’ai acheté un paquet de chips, et j’ai acheté deux chapati.

T: deux paquets de chapati. Je suis allé au supermarché, et j’ai acheté, M?

S4: Je suis allé au supermarché, et j’ai acheté un paquet de chips,

T: Oui, un paquet de chips, oui, deux paquets de chapatti

S4: et deux slice de halal.

T: Et deux tranches...deux tranches. Ok, répétez. Deux tranches.

Ss: Deux tranches.

T: Une tranche, deux tranches. Deux tranches de viande halal. Deux tranches de viande halal.OK, continues A?

S5: Je suis allé au supermarché, et j’ai acheté un paquet de chips, deux tranches

T: de viande halal

S5: deux tranches de viande halal et une paquet de omelette au fromage.

T: et un paquet de omelette au fromage?

S5: omelette deux fromages.

T: deux fromages, two cheeses! Du fromage, some cheese, du fromage.

S5: du fromage.

The students focused on the game and the content of other students' utterances while they practiced the language structure 'Je suis allé au supermarché, et j'ai acheté' and relevant vocabulary. Students were given the freedom to say any item they can think of appropriate to the given context, which encouraged them to try different strategies to get their meaning across, such as S4's L1 substituting of the word 'slice' or S5's modifying her output when the teacher repeated her utterance with an intonation that suggested 'what do you mean?'

For speaking practice of the functional use of target language the analyses show that the teaching and practice of transactional talk (information exchange, getting things done) and personal topics (talking about family, dis/likes, leisure time) were focused on. The functional use of the target language presented learners with the opportunity to practice speaking, most commonly, in role-play situations. According to the functional aim of the lesson (e.g. booking a place at a hotel, attending a job interview) teachers used role-plays where depending on the topic they would take the role of, for example, a receptionist or interviewer and interact with different students during the course of one role-play conversation. Then students were given the opportunity to practice the role-plays in pairs. Teachers generally determined what the students are expected to say through the use of cue-cards (see Appendix 8). For example if there was the drawing of a tent students were expected to say 'I would like a place for a tent' in the target language. This control was gradually decreased, as students were given freedom to answer questions as they wished. For example, students would have to follow the same interaction order in the conversation but perhaps say 'I would like a place for a caravan', instead of a 'tent', thus substituting words appropriately. This degree of freedom is open to different interpretations. The researcher would like to point out that, as the structure (question-answer order) of the role-play remains the same and students use the same language structures, this allows students to form a sound basis of understanding and using structures and vocabulary; but does not allow much space for the unpredictability element that would be inevitable in a natural conversation. Therefore, the researcher would like to argue that if speaking opportunities are limited to such practice, students may not be challenged enough to

develop their skills of processing information, dealing with the unexpected and constructing own sentences.

Regarding 'discourse', listening to an extended text, combining sentences or paragraphs to form cohesive and coherent texts, reading for information, matching pictures with descriptions, ordering conversations according to a sequence of pictures, filling in forms, writing letters and reports were activities that occurred in the English FL lessons, and were considered as discourse activities in the context of this study. When students were asked to listen for information, they were occasionally asked to take notes and note-taking was done mainly in L1. Mother tongue was also used in reading activities for comprehension checks. Teachers checked comprehension by asking students questions about a text using L1 (see Appendix 9). While these were common patterns for British FL teachers, analyses of field-notes and audio-recordings pointed out that certain instances coded as 'discourse' were quite unique to B6's lessons. B6 was observed to digress from the ongoing activity and tell a story or play games with the students using the target language, while students' attention was focused on the teacher's extended speech, as if opening brackets within the general flow of the lesson. The following extracts exemplify this comment:

Transcript 4, B6, Year 10:

T: Non, je ne fume pas –j'ai arrêté de fumer quand j'avais six ans. Quand j'avais six ans je fumais. Quand j'étais petit je fumais. Quand j'avais six ans, un petit bébé de six ans, j'ai piqué un paquet de cigarettes de mon papa. Je suis allé dans le jardin et j'ai fumé! J'ai fume une cigarette, deux cigarettes, trois cigarettes et puis j'ai vomi. Oui j'ai vomi, j'ai vomi comme un bébé, vomi, vomi, vomi. Terrible, et maintenant je ne fume pas. Je déteste les cigarettes.

Transcript 5, B6, Year 9:

T: fixes une personne, une personne dans la classe, choisis une personne dans la classe et écris le nom de la personne sur le papier, une personne dans la classe, OK? As tu fixé une personne.

S1: non

T: allez vite, vite, vite! Il y a beaucoup possibilités. Il ya a toute sorte de personnes ici. OK, prêt, c'est prêt? C'est un garçon?

S1: yeah, garçon

T: garçon, c'est un garçon. Il est dans la classe de monsieur P., ou de G., ou de S. Il est dans la classe de madame S?

S2: Non.

T: OK, c'est pas toi. Il est dans la classe de monsieur P?

Ss: Yes.

T: OK, il y a trois possibilités. Il a les cheveux noirs?

Ss: non.

T: Il porte un tee-shirt ou une chemise?

S2: un tee-shirt.

T: Alors ce m'est pas T. Il porte un sweat oir jaune et blanc?

S1: yes.

T: c'est R. Oh, je suis intelligent.

The first excerpt came from a lesson in which the focus was on refusals and giving reasons. Such a narration might be interesting to listen to and the teacher used the main structures like 'je ne fume pas' and 'Je déteste les cigarettes' within context. Target language input such as these provided students with unpredictable information, demonstrated how meaningful communication could be achieved with the target language they already know, and perhaps in the second extract motivated students more than a standard listening activity as they had a real purpose for listening as they were the information keepers.

Finally, the values under the 'sociolinguistics' category suggest, teachers rarely made reference to forms and styles appropriate for certain contexts. The observed instances were one teacher explaining the difference in the meaning of 'infant' in English and French and the other observed instance was a teacher explaining how a formal letter should be started and ended in French.

Within a communicative methodology, students are encouraged to integrate the practice of the four skills to reflect a more authentic use of the target language. Thus, the skills the students needed to use when participating in activities were also recorded. The percentages below show the average proportions of these skills for each teacher's lessons:

Table 4 Skills involved in classroom activities in the English FL classrooms

Teacher	Listen	Read	Write	Other	Listening & Speaking	Listening & Reading	Listening & Writing	Reading & Writing
B1	3.5	0	57.3	0	27.8	5	6.4	0
B2	0	0	36.5	6.3	44	0	13.2	0
B3	6	15	25.7	0	43.3	1.3	8.7	0
B4	6.9	4.2	26.2	4.3	54.1	3.2	1.1	0
B5	14.2	5.6	36.4	0	42.5	0	0	1.3
B6	3.8	3.8	22.1	0	56.6	0.6	13.1	0
<i>Mean</i>	<i>5.7</i>	<i>4.8</i>	<i>34.0</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>44.7</i>	<i>1.7</i>	<i>7.1</i>	<i>0.2</i>

Table 4 presents students' use of various skills in classroom activities. The categories above indicate which modalities were involved for the majority of students. The values above show mean percentages for each teacher's lessons. The 'listen' category was ticked when students were listening without interacting with the speaker (e.g. listening an audio-recording or teacher explanations). The 'read' category was ticked when students focused individually on reading a text. Similarly, the 'writing' category was ticked when students individually engaged in writing. The 'other' category was ticked when students engaged in an activity such as drawing, cutting or arranging displays. The combined categories point out that there was an equal use of these skills by students. For example, the 'listening and speaking' category may suggest that there was a question answer sequence, discussion or a role-play activity going on. The 'listening and reading' may have occurred when students were both listening to an audio-recorded version of a text and at the same time following the text from a worksheet. The 'listening and writing' skills may have been combined when students were listening to an audio recording and at the same time writing specific information, or when the teacher was giving some information in the target language and students were writing the information down. The 'reading and writing' may have been combined when students had to read a text and fill in a form accordingly or use a sample text to compose a similar text.

According to Table 4, the most commonly used skills were 'writing' and the combination of 'listening and speaking' skills. The 'listening and speaking' skill was

used more often than 'writing' except in B1's lessons. The 'other' category took only a limited part of the lessons, and did not occur frequently. In the light of the data in Table 4, it would be appropriate to say that in the English FL classrooms there were two dominant activity types. The first type was conversation activities where the students used their listening and speaking skills to take part in conversations. In these activities, teachers initially introduced vocabulary and set phrases for students and then modelled the conversation through interacting with different students. Although teachers provided considerable support in the beginning (e.g. phrases written on the board during interaction or projected on OHP), as students became increasingly confident, the amount of teacher support decreased. Teachers then switched from teacher-fronted interaction to pair-work, where students practiced the modelled conversation in turns. The second type of activity was 'writing', where students were mainly asked to put sentences or paragraphs in an order and then copy the coherent text into their books, or construct texts (e.g. letters) using a model. Based on the low percentages of the combined skills category 'listening and reading', it may be said that in general during listening activities students were not expected to follow a text simultaneously. The combined category 'listening and writing' shows how much activity time was spent on students' taking notes. The observer noticed that it was not common practice for students to initiate the taking down of notes during the course of a lesson.

The types of materials and audio-visual aids used in language lessons were also noted down in detail, as it is important to obtain information relevant to the FL teaching and learning contexts in the two schools. Based on the data gathered from the observation charts and the observer's field notes, it can be said that course books were rarely used in the English school –only when there was a suitable activity for the students to work on. Teachers relied heavily on OHPs during the lessons for presentation and practice purposes. The English school used the Oxford and Cambridge and RSA (OCR) syllabus. This syllabus provides sample sheets for teachers, and suggests activities they can be used with. Teachers used these sample sheets and also made their own sheets similar to these, to use in their classrooms. These sheets included cue words, sentence beginnings or symbol drawings. Teachers presented a role-play conversation on the OHP and then selected individual students for each turn of the conversation. Students replied according to the symbols on the OHP. For example, if there was a

symbol of a croissant with a question mark next to it, the students would then have to ask in French if breakfast was included in the price. Worksheets were also commonly used in the observed lessons. Overall the use of extended texts and short/minimal texts were balanced. Drill type grammar worksheets were never used in any of the observed lessons. Teachers also made use of tape-recorders. During a listening activity students were required to listen for specific information and make notes where necessary. The speech rate on recorded materials was slow compared to the normal rate of speech, with occasional pauses where appropriate. This indicated that the listening materials were intended for a non-native speaker audience. There was not any audio material specifically recorded for the purposes of practising pronunciation or intonation.

4.3.2 Turkish EFL Classrooms

In the Turkish school 6 language teachers were observed. One of the teachers later withdrew, informing the researcher that she was not comfortable with being observed and recorded. Therefore, any data regarding that teacher were not included in this study. The coding of a total of 36 lessons from 5 teachers were analysed to see the classroom organisation patterns. T1 and T4 had 1-2 years of teaching experience, and teachers T2, T3 and T5 had 15-21 years of teaching experience. The table below summarises the mean percentages for general classroom organisation of each teacher's lessons. The numbers in brackets under the 'teacher' column show the total number of observed lessons:

Table 5 Participant organisation in Turkish EFL classrooms

Teacher	Teacher -student	Student- Student	Choral	Group /same	Group /different	Individual /same	Individual /different
T1(12)	93.8	4	0	0	0	2.2	0
T2 (5)	93.2	3.7	0	0	0	3.1	0
T3 (8)	69.6	4.4	2.2	9	0	14.8	0
T4 (10)	75.2	14	0	5.1	0	5.7	0
T5 (1)	45.7	0	0	0	0	54.3	0
<i>Mean</i>	<i>75.5</i>	<i>5.2</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>2.8</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>16.0</i>	<i>0</i>

According to the data presented in Table 5, the main classroom organisation type that Turkish teachers used was teacher-fronted interaction. This was followed by students working on their own; but the lesson time allocated to these categories was imbalanced. The use of teacher-fronted interaction was between 70-94% of the time spent on-task except T5's lesson. It is necessary to point out that this teacher's classes focused explicitly on reading, where the main aim was to teach students how to approach different texts. These lessons also involved discussions. Thus, this teacher's lessons were atypical of the language lessons in general in terms of its aims, the materials used and the emerging classroom patterns. It should also be noted that this teacher was only observed once. The low percentage-values in the 'student-student' column suggest that students performing to the whole class did not constitute an important part of the general classroom organisation in the Turkish school. The observed instances were students' reading out loud and performing conversations for the class, which were similar to the instances observed in the English FL lessons. On the other hand, two other occurrences coded under this category were only observed in Turkish FL lessons: student presentations and student-prepared daily news. During the student presentations, the teacher also joined the audience, and after the presentation there was a question-answer sequence again led by the presenter. The other observed instance was one of the first lessons in the morning in which students read daily news in the classroom (translated by themselves into English from Turkish newspapers). Students who read the news controlled the topic. The students and the teacher made comments or asked further questions for more details. The spoken discourse was not controlled by the teacher and was open to contributions from all students. Such opportunities indicate that students' roles were not restricted to simply responding, and that they were provided with opportunities to contribute to or change the topic of lessons. The following excerpt comes from that lesson:

Transcript 6, T2, Year 9:

S1: XX and high tension. American Medical Association say that this illness affects middle aged and older people more. If these people don't sleep enough=

T: =Oh, I read it in the morning.

S1: High tension goes up forty-five percent.

T: All right. Can you all sleep well at night?

Ss: Yes.

S2: No. I can't. At five o'clock, the telephone.

T: The telephone rang this morning?

S2: Yes.

T: Why?

S2: I don't know. Sapik (*a psycho*).

S3: It was my clock false. In the morning first we suspected about the slowly movement of our time. Then when I checked it with my watch I discovered that it was 15 minutes slow.

T: You missed the school bus then.

S3: Yes.

The teacher's first comment was related to the content of the student's utterance and is similar to responses that interlocutors provide in natural conversations. In her second turn the teacher used the student's message for a social purpose and invited further contributions from other students. The teacher then paraphrased S2's message and asked for confirmation. When the student confirmed that the message was understood, the teacher responded with an elaboration request. Following S2's turn S3 nominated himself without waiting for the teacher to reply to S2 or initiate another move. S3 picked up on S2's experience in the morning and told the class about his experience; although the discourse revolved around S1's news. As the excerpt suggests, turn taking was quite open, and the discourse was jointly constructed by the teacher's and students' contributions. However, as in this example, in most cases the first feedback move came from the teacher.

Regarding group and pair work activities, it can be said that Turkish FL teachers did not assign different tasks to groups or individual students. Although all Turkish teachers used individual work, only two teachers out of five were observed using pair work (5% and 9% of the total time spent on task). According to the field-notes, pair-work instances occurred in 3 out of 36 lessons that were observed.

These results suggest that for Turkish EFL teachers' lessons:

-the general interaction between teachers and students dominate the classroom interaction pattern,

- teachers do not or rarely set tasks for groups (no group work was observed in any of the 36 lessons),
- the second most common organisation pattern is students working on their own on a set task.

The following table presents the extent to which Turkish EFL teachers' lessons varied in their focus on language form and meaning:

Table 6 Language focus of the lessons in Turkish EFL classrooms

Teachers	Form	Function	Discourse	Sociolinguistics
T1 (12)	83.7	0.3	16	0
T2 (5)	11.9	0.5	87.4	0.2
T3 (8)	12.5	20.1	67.4	0
T4 (10)	63.8	0	36.2	0
T5 (1)	0	37.1	62.8	0
<i>Mean</i>	<i>34.4</i>	<i>11.6</i>	<i>54.0</i>	<i>0</i>

The values presented are percentage values

When the mean values under each category are compared, it can be said that discourse type activities took a considerable proportion of Turkish FL lessons. This was followed by emphasis on language form, followed subsequently by activities that focused on the functional use of the target language. As the data in the 'sociolinguistics' category suggests, Turkish FL teachers rarely made explicit reference to form and styles appropriate to particular contexts when using the target language. When the percentage values under 'form' column are compared, it can be said that T1 and T4 focused to a greater extent on target language form compared to other Turkish EFL teachers. The audio-recorded data and researcher's field notes suggest that all Turkish teachers used uncontextualised grammar drills, however, the general proportion of such drill-type activities were found to be more common in T1 and T4's lessons. Another important point suggested by the data is under the 'discourse' category. According to the table, there is again a difference between T1-T4 and T2-T3-T5. As all teachers used the same course book and units, lesson structures were identical (except T5 who was not following a course book), all teachers based their lessons around a text. The differences in values under the

‘discourse’ and ‘form’ categories suggest that it is the teachers who determine whether the text will be used to emphasise language forms or whether it will be used to give opportunities for meaning focused target language use.

In order to gather a comprehensive view of the activities that constituted the percentages of the categories in Table 6, the researcher revisited field-notes and audio-recordings of the lessons. This further analysis revealed how Turkish FL teachers focused on target language form, function and discourse. Regarding form focus, evidence derived from observation charts, field-notes and audio-recordings suggests that grammar drills were commonly used in Turkish FL lessons. The frequency with which these drill-type worksheets were used depended on the teacher. While T2 and T3 used drill-type worksheets as a separate activity within a lesson, T1 and T4 were observed occasionally dedicating whole lessons to language form through the use of such worksheets (see Appendix 10). Teachers generally distributed these as homework, and later in the week checked the answers together. Teachers mostly used L2 for form explanations, but as they also said, for comprehension purposes they occasionally switched to L1:

Transcript 7, T1, Year 8:

T: This person gives the other one permission. So you are going to use ‘it is possible’, ‘it is allowed to’, ‘it is not possible’, ‘able to’. So instead of using ‘may’ how can you rewrite the sentence? You may have a cookie after dinner.

S1: You are allowed to have a cookie after dinner.

T: Ok. You are allowed to have a cookie after dinner. Because this person gives you permission. Ok? It might rain tomorrow. What is the meaning of might?

S2: It is possible to.

T: Yes. Might has possibility of a less degree. How can you rewrite this sentence?

S3: It is possible to rain tomorrow.

T: It is possible that...

S3: It will rain.

T: It will rain tomorrow. Çünkü burada yarın yağmur yağabilir diyorsun (*because here you say it is possible that it will rain tomorrow*). Ve yarın dediği için zaten future tense kullanmak zorundasın (*and because it says tomorrow you need to use*

future tense anyway). It is possible that it will rain tomorrow. Ok? He might be out of town. Might has again a possibility in it. So how do you rewrite it? M?

S4: It is possible that he is out of town.

Vocabulary activities were also quite common in Turkish FL lessons. Choosing appropriate words from a list to complete sentences, replacing underlined words with words from a list, matching words with meanings were common types of vocabulary activities (see Appendix 11). Teachers also focused on vocabulary through reading texts, which affected the amount of vocabulary focus prompted by course-book texts. The examination of data suggested that Turkish teachers had different approaches to texts. Although in all teachers' lessons students read a text in turns, T1 and T4 focused on vocabulary explicitly by going through the text once more on a sentence level and asking what certain words meant. Students were expected to give definitions in the TL and the observer noted that some of the students had worked on the text and prepared the vocabulary before the text was presented in class, as they were providing dictionary definitions. Other students were observed using dictionaries simultaneously during the vocabulary activity, which might be considered as actively involving students in the learning process. This vocabulary focus was followed by comprehension questions related to the text. On the other hand, T2 and T3 firstly focused on the main ideas of a text and gradually moved to details related to the content of the text and during content focus any vocabulary items that needed explaining for comprehension purposes were discussed. In other words, it can be said that in the Turkish context T1 and T4 used a bottom-up approach to texts and vocabulary, while T2 and T3 used a top-down approach. Finally, it has also been observed that for intonation and pronunciation purposes, teachers used taped materials for choral repetition of dialogues, underlining stressed words and choral repetition of the intonation patterns of sentences.

In Turkish classrooms, in most general terms, the course book determined the lesson content. The activities coded under the 'function' category were offered by the course books and practice was aimed at the functional use of language through set phrases and expressions that were contextualised in the course book text. These activities presented the learners with the chance to practice the TL, although the dominant pattern of interaction was teacher-fronted. It was through discourse activities that

Turkish FL learners got the most opportunities for classroom participation. The ‘discourse’ category was coded when the focus of the lesson was text comprehension through reading and discussion. Teachers used conversations or reading texts to prompt discussions related to the topic of a text such as relating the topics to the Turkish context, extracting main ideas, and encouraging the students to bring their views and experiences into the discussion; as the transcript below illustrates:

Transcript 8, T3, Year 9:

T: Let’s start with the reading passage on page 13. Before starting, let us answer the questions in the green box. In some countries unemployment is a big problem. Is this a problem in your country? Can we answer this question first? Is unemployment a problem in our country? B?

S1: Unemployment is a big problem in our country.

T: mmm, mmm. Is it a problem for educated people as well? Or is it a problem for only uneducated people? C?

S2: It is a problem for all people.

T: for all people (*agreement tone*). What happens to university graduates? Can they easily find a job?

S3: If their universities are not very good, they can’t find a job.

T: What does S mean by saying if their universities aren’t very good? Are there good universities and bad universities? Y?

S4: If the university is not a top university they can have problems.

...

S5: If they wanted to go to other regions they can work as a teacher or doctor.

T: they can work as a teacher or a doctor. Teachers and doctors are the luckiest, I understand this (*teacher smiles*). A?

S6: Teachers and doctors can have a job in the eastern part of Turkey, but if they want to have a job in Istanbul it is not as easy as other regions.

T: ok, thank you, this is a good answer. Then who wants to become a teacher in our class?

Ss: (*silence, students smile*)

T: You see finding a job is very easy if you become a teacher. Who wants to become a teacher?

(*students laugh*)

T: ok, only one student out of 37, at the moment, and who wants to become a doctor?

In the excerpt the first two teacher questions were taken from the course book. The teacher's third question relates specifically to the Turkish context, and she also uses students' ideas to prompt discussion (teacher's elaboration request following S3's comment), allows students to comment on each other's message (S6's response to S5), and comments on students' ideas. In addition, while keeping the focus on the exchange of ideas, the teacher acknowledges the fact that S6 uses the structure 'as...as', which they have been practicing in class by saying 'thank you, this is a good answer'.

Finally, in relation to written-discourse the observed activities included reading texts and identifying true/false statements, putting sentences in an order to form coherent texts, reading simplified books (Jane Eyre and My Fair Lady), listening for information, matching pictures with details and completing forms and questionnaires.

The explanations related to the categories in Table 6 have attempted to provide a comprehensive view of Turkish teaching and learning context on the level of activities. It is now appropriate to look at the skills that students needed to use when participating in these activities:

Table 7 Skills involved in classroom activities in the Turkish FL classrooms

Teacher	Listen	Read	Write	Other	Listening & Speaking	Listening & Reading	Listening & Writing	Reading & Writing
T1 (12)	8.1	0	5.4	0	75	9.2	0	2.3
T2 (5)	0.8	4.7	0	0	59.2	32.3	3	0
T3 (8)	2.5	0.6	0	0	73.2	11.4	8.3	4
T4 (10)	17.5	0	17.3	0	54	3.3	7.9	0
T5 (1)	8.5	17.1	37.2	0	37.2	0	0	0
<i>Mean</i>	<i>7.5</i>	<i>4.5</i>	<i>12.0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>59.7</i>	<i>11.2</i>	<i>3.8</i>	<i>1.3</i>

The values presented are percentage values

The mean values in Table 7 suggest that students used a combination of ‘listening and speaking’ skills noticeably more than other skills (60%). Reading (16%), as presented by the ‘read’ and the ‘listening and reading’ categories, and writing (16%) as presented by the ‘writing’ and the ‘listening and writing’ categories were the most commonly used skills.

Although in both FL learning contexts, the most commonly used skills were the combination of ‘listening and speaking’, the activities that required the use of these skills had their differences in the two contexts. These differences were examined in detail by selecting activities where the ‘listening and speaking’ category was ticked and then by examining field-notes related to these specific activities. This examination showed that in the English FL learning context ‘listening and speaking’ involved mainly taking part in conversations, where the aim of the conversation was to transmit information, ask and answer questions based on conversation cues:

Transcript 9, B4, Year 9:

S: Avez-vous des emplacements libres?

T: Oui, c’est pour une tente ou une caravane?

S: c’est pour une tente.

T: c’est pour une tente, d’accord. C’est pour une tente. Qu’est ce que vous voulez comme emplacement?

S: XX

T: Exactement, excellent. C’est pour combien de nuits?

S: C’est pour deux nuits.

T: C’est pour deux nuits, oui, très bien.

S: Il y a une laverie automatique au camping?

T: Oui, monsieur, il y en a.

S: Qu’est – ce qu’on peut faire au camping?

T: Qu’est – ce qu’on peut faire au camping? Bien, au camping on peut faire, on peut nager et on peut jouer au tennis. OK, bon cette fois, S, tu es le client et K qui est l’employé. Bon, tu peux commencer.

In this excerpt from the English school, students practiced asking for and giving information in a social context. The way the role-play was structured resembled a real-life situation and students practiced language they might need in the real world. As

such, the speaking practice reflects some of the main features that underline the communicative approach to language teaching. From another aspect, such practice does not reflect some of the important characteristics of the communicative approach as the interpretation, expression of ideas and negotiation of meaning opportunities are limited because of the way the role-play is structured.

It is important that any evaluation of classroom talk should consider teachers' pedagogic aims. The National Curriculum's attainment targets regarding the speaking skill can be found in Appendix 12. Level descriptions 4,5 and 6 apply to the year groups that participated in this study. In relation to the pedagogic aims, it can be said that teachers successfully work towards achieving the aims defined by the Curriculum. Nevertheless, individuals will have different purposes and needs for using the language in real life (such as visiting foreign countries, making business contacts, working abroad) and it is questionable whether limiting students' speaking practice to structured role-plays caters for individuals' future needs. It is also quite possible that in real-life, interaction may require information exchange not anticipated by teachers or planners of the schemes of work, and faced with such a situation learners may be discouraged from using the target language. The students who participated in this study have had 3-4 years of formal language learning; and the researcher would like to argue that speaking activities which involve the 'interactional' use of language (e.g. exchanging of ideas) could have been gradually integrated with speaking activities that involve 'transactional' use of language within that formal learning period. Perhaps, as B6 put it: 'the lessons are too much contextualised' so in a way this contextualisation stands in the way of creative language use in English FL classrooms.

In the Turkish FL learning context 'listening and speaking' mainly involved answering teacher or course book questions related to the content or vocabulary of a text, grammar related questions, and taking part in discussions. The following extracts exemplify how teachers and students interacted based on the course book text:

Transcript 10, T2, Year 9:

T: which job is the most interesting for you? V?

S1: I think the gossip columnist is the most interesting job.

T: Why?

S1: because you can learn famous persons' lives and you can learn how they live. And you can go to bars, discos and photograph them.

T: Ok, you can have a chance to visit those bars and discos and you can witness a lot of things. You can have a lot of information. You are in touch with those famous people.

S1: yes, you can see all famous people.

T: And you think it is the most interesting job. What is the most interesting job for you?

S2: Chocolate tester is the most interesting because you eat chocolate you earn money.

T: Yes, you eat chocolate and you earn a lot of money but it has a disadvantage F, I'm afraid you can put a lot of weight. Ok.

S2: you can do exercise.

T: You can do exercise. You can eat chocolate, you can earn money, and you can go to a gym and do a lot of exercise. Oh, what a sweet life it is. S?

S3: This job is very good for me because=

T: =Which job?

S: chocolate tester.

T: Chocolate tester. I see. Why?

S3: because I need weight.

T: You need some weight so it is very suitable for you (*smiles*).

Transcript 11, T1, Year 8:

T: OK, who are those people in the pictures? Who are they? The first one?

Ss: Charlie Chaplin.

T: The second?

Ss: Laurel, Hardy.

T: The third one?

Ss: Pink Panther, Sherlock Holmes.

T: Ok, what are the advantages of laughing according to this? K?

S1: (*pauses*) Türkçe söyliyim mi? (*shall say in Turkish?*)

T: E?

S1: söylüyordum tam. (*I was about to say*)

S2: It makes feel very healthy.

T: uhuh. OK. What else? Ö?

S3: Laughing helps us to relax and feel er com comf

Ss: Comfortable

T: Feel?

S3: comfortable.

T: uhuh, what else?

S4: makes our stomach muscles work.

T: good, what else? T?

S5: produce endorphines

T: Is that an advantage?

S5: (*pauses*)

S6: Yes, it is an advantage.

S7: No.

S6: Advantage, relieve pain.

T: what else?

Two excerpts are given as illustrative examples from the Turkish school. The reason for this is the analyses of classroom interaction and field-notes, which point to a key difference between T1-T4 and T2-T3 in the way these teachers used texts to promote classroom talk. In the first excerpt, students were practicing the use of superlatives; the course book offered various job descriptions and the students gave their opinions on ‘the most interesting’ job. The teacher encouraged students’ participation by commenting or adding ideas on what students had said. Also students shared the right to comment on what the teacher was saying as S1 displays her agreement by saying ‘yes’ followed by a supporting comment, while S2 disagrees with the teacher regarding the disadvantage of his ideal job.

In the second excerpt, students read a text about laughter and the teacher started by getting the students to identify the pictures in the course book. The teacher question was closed type -there was one possible answer and the teacher did not ask any further questions that would have prompted discussion such as the link between these pictures or how students knew these characters. The following teacher questions were also closed type and teacher initiated exchange by repeating the question ‘what else?’, but in her feedback move following a student response she did not repeat, comment on or expand student utterances. The teachers’ feedback moves were very brief through the use of ‘OK’, or ‘good’. In the last part of the excerpt although there was confusion

among students, the teacher did not clarify this point with a feedback move but initiated a question.

The two excerpts are different from three main aspects: teachers' questions, feedback and the length of student participation. While T2 asked open-ended questions and her feedback moves summarised what the student had said for the class and also included comments and expansion; T1 restricted students' contribution by asking closed-type questions and not acknowledging what the students had said in her feedback moves. The effects of these are reflected in the participation patterns and the length of students' turns, as students did not take consecutive turns and the length of their contribution was minimal.

For comparative purposes, detailed notes of the types of materials and audio-visual aids that were used in the Turkish school were taken. According to these notes, teachers and students used a course book and followed the units of the book. These units started with a text or a model conversation and this was followed by question-answer exercises regarding text comprehension. Then, generally some kind of vocabulary activity followed. It should be noted that not all lessons started with a text and were followed by activities related to the text. As one lesson was not enough to finish a whole unit, some lessons started off from where teachers and students left off in the previous lesson. The observer's field notes and audio-recordings of the lessons suggest that Turkish FL teachers did not spend time at the beginning of their lessons explaining the aims of each lesson to the learners. This could be due to the fact that both teachers and learners knew that they were following a course book and that lessons proceeded according to the sequence of activities in the relevant units. In that respect, it is quite different from British FL teachers, as British FL teachers explicitly stated the aim of each lesson in the beginning. The following extracts are typical of lesson beginnings in the two contexts:

Transcript 12, T3, Year 9:

T: Let's start from the beginning, the first paragraph. First of all I would like to ask you a question. Do you think, do you think there is a problem of losing your job because of machines?

Transcript 13, B5, Year 10:

T: Now today I want to sort of tidy up the world of work. We have looked at how to talk about your work experience, we have looked at how to write a letter of application, we've looked at how to write about your work experience. Now today I want to talk about Saturday jobs or part-time jobs; and they come up in role-play 2 in the exam.

While the Turkish teacher's introduction was very brief, the British teacher stated the purpose of the lesson, connected it to previous lessons and assessment.

As mentioned before, all activities that students participated in were determined by the course book with occasional changes by teachers. For example, the observer's field notes suggest that on one occasion T3 offered an alternative topic for a writing activity as she said she thought the course book offered a less suitable topic for the learners. Again, on another occasion T4 ignored the course book's instructions to make a pair-work activity and instead the activity was teacher-fronted. In addition to the course book, teachers prepared grammar and vocabulary handouts for classroom use, or for the students to take home and work on. Teachers spent a certain proportion of their lessons on these handouts. When working on the handouts, teachers selected a student to read out his/her answer and then the answer was either accepted or corrected by the teacher and/or other students, which was followed by the selection of another student by the teacher. In terms of audio-visual aids, OHP's were not available in the Turkish school. Teachers used black boards and tape recorders. For listening practice, teachers used the recorded material for the listening section of the units. Listening activities included listening for information, pronunciation and intonation practice.

4.3.3 Cross-comparison of the findings and discussion

In sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, the results of the macro analysis of language lessons in the two schools were presented as mean percentages for all the observed teachers. In the following subsections, the findings are compared and discussed in view of the Literature Review.

4.3.3.1. Classroom participant organisation in FL classrooms:

In order to compare the classroom organisation in the schools, data presented by tables 2 and 5 may be used. It has been found that in the English FL lessons, teacher-fronted interaction and students' working on their own were the two main classroom organisation types with mean values of 50.5% and 40.9% respectively. The percentage values also indicate a balance between these two categories in terms of the dedicated lesson time. Regarding the speaking opportunities provided to students, it can be said that it was through teacher-fronted interaction that students were given most opportunities to participate in discourse. In the Turkish FL classrooms, on the other hand, the dominant organisation type was teacher-fronted interaction with an average mean value of 76%. Similar to English FL classrooms, the second most commonly used organisation type in Turkish FL lessons was students' working individually, with a mean score of 16%. In spite of the balance in mean scores of the English context, the Turkish school's mean scores suggest an imbalance in favour of teacher-fronted interaction. In terms of the use of group and pair-work, it can be said that teachers regardless of the context, do not or rarely use group work as no instances were observed in any of the 63 lessons. Pair-work was used in both contexts to differing degrees. The data suggests that the use of pair-work was slightly more common in English FL lessons, compared to Turkish FL lessons, as pair-work took 3-5% of Turkish teachers' lessons where observed, but this ranged from 1-9% in English FL lessons. Overall, it may be said that time spent on pair-work did not take up a considerable proportion of the lessons in both contexts.

Recent approaches to language teaching emphasise that students take an active role in classrooms, and suggest that teachers should give more initiative to learners while they step back and take the monitor role. Since the early 1980s, activities, materials and techniques have focused on communication and authenticity, resembling situations that learners are likely to encounter in real life, in order to promote successful language learning. This brought a shift from teacher-fronted lessons that included explicit grammar instruction, and drill and pattern practice, towards group or pair-work oriented lessons that focus on meaningful language use. In contrast to the suggestions in the literature that an organisational shift from teacher-fronted classrooms to pair or group work is beneficial for learners, the data regarding the two

schools reveal that FL teaching is still organised around teacher-fronted interaction. In the observed lessons, although instances of pair-work were seen, the total amount of pair-work was fairly low compared to teacher-fronted interaction.

Teachers' control over classroom interaction is widely accepted as one of the main features of classroom discourse. The interaction sequence, defined as IRF by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), enables teachers to maintain control over classroom discourse through interaction with different students. This way, teachers get the chance to check students' learning and proceed with their lesson plans. As the findings of this study suggest, teacher-fronted interaction continues to constitute the main means of practicing the target language for learners. Therefore, although language teaching pedagogy encourages interaction between students for successful language acquisition, teacher-fronted interaction needs to be seen as an important feature of language classrooms. In this respect, any evaluation of the language classrooms' potential for students' language development needs to consider the findings of research that has investigated which features of teacher-fronted interaction may best promote learners' development. This study has also investigated interaction between teachers and students. Findings regarding certain features of teacher and student speech will be presented in the coming sections. Following the presentation of data, this discussion will be taken further.

4.3.3.2 Language Focus of FL lessons:

Data presented in tables 3 and 6 can be used to make a comparison of the language focus of the observed lessons. The mean scores regarding the 'form' category reveal that the time Turkish teachers allocated to form focus was twice the time that British FL teachers allocated to language form. While mean scores of form focus range between 0-35% in the English FL lessons, the mean scores are between 12-84% in the Turkish school. It is also interesting that the less experienced Turkish FL teachers focused more on language form (T1-T4 had 1-2 years of experience, T2, T3, T5 had 15-21 years of experience). While in English FL lessons the essential focus was on the functional use of language (mainly through role-play situations) followed by focus on written discourse activities, Turkish FL lessons allocated a notable proportion of lesson time to discourse activities (mainly spoken discourse through discussions),

followed by focus on language form. The comparison of mean values suggest that British teachers' focus on various aspects of language was slightly more balanced compared to Turkish teachers'. On the other hand, the Tables reveal a difference between the two contexts in terms of the speaking opportunities that students were given. An examination of coding charts and field notes suggests that in the English school activities coded as 'discourse' focused on written rather than spoken discourse. Thus the main speaking opportunities the students got are presented as percentage values under the function category (group mean 45.1%). A similar examination showed that in the Turkish school, students mainly got opportunities for spoken practice of the target language in activities coded as discourse and function (group mean 66%). This indicates that in general teacher-fronted interaction, Turkish FL learners got more speaking opportunities. Although this does not include the speaking opportunities that students got during pair work activities (4.6% for English FL lessons, 2.8% for Turkish FL lessons), as the amounts of time dedicated to pair work in the two contexts do not differ substantially, it may not be an over generalisation to say that Turkish students got more speaking opportunities in language lessons.

Communicative competence may be broken down into grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence (Canale and Swain 1980). Communicative approaches have underlined certain characteristics that language teaching should employ in classrooms for the realisation of the above competencies in students' actual production of the target language. These characteristics include making use of real-life situations, the teaching of language functions (e.g. apologising, describing) and of grammatical forms that enable students to express these functions. Teachers in both contexts have stated that they were following the communicative approach in their teaching. In order to have a better understanding of teachers' perspectives, the researcher asked the teachers to comment on the syllabus they were using and their general aims. British teachers said that the syllabus they were using was quite realistic in its expectations of students -particularly foundation students. According to the teachers, the syllabus was functional and topic based which was good for less able students. One of the teachers also said that for more able students there was a very comprehensive list of structures and grammar. In terms of teachers' general aims, the following comment of one of the British FL teachers is quite representative of other teachers' comments and encapsulates the general aims:

‘Our aims are numerous actually. To get students to communicate their own -you know- wishes, interests, requests to be able to work effectively in pairs and in groups, to be able to understand what is going on around them, so that they have got a passive knowledge of language...So yes communication of ideas and messages is our first fold aim but then after that a sort of understanding of the language as well. But in our syllabus we do try and get our students to communicate with the teacher, in pairs, in groups so it’s not just read and write. We do try and get a lot of speaking into the lesson and I know that our students speak fairly well. I know their pronunciation is not very good but I think in comparison to some schools where there are more white children where they perhaps work from a text-book, you know, our students are much more willing to speak, and to speak sentences...I think what we do does help our students to become more confident in speaking. That is our aim really. To get students to be able to communicate and understand what is going on, and for more able students to underpin that with a good knowledge of how the language works’.

The interview data suggests that for British FL teachers the main focus was on getting students to communicate in the target language and to build students’ confidence in using the target language. Teachers’ consistent reference to ability levels and the actual grouping of students according to their abilities indicate that British FL teachers emphasised individual learning differences –a feature which the communicative approach encourages. Teaching of form was considered appropriate for the more able students. The speaking activities aimed to enable students to ask for and transfer information, but also use the language for personal purposes such as talking about wishes and interests, and the teachers preferred to use a topic-based functional syllabus for that purpose. In view of this, it can be said that the teachers’ aims correspond to the identified characteristics that the communicative methodology emphasises language teaching should employ. It is also important to examine how these aims were reflected into practice. In the English context, students practiced speaking through role-plays. The following excerpt illustrates the interaction between a teacher and students, and is representative of role-play activities in the English context:

Transcript 14, B4, Year 9:

T: ...so let's go round the class. How do you start with have you any available places, G? Avez vous

S1: Avez vous de la place.

T: oui madame, monsieur. Quelle sorte de place voulez vous?

S2: une caravane.

T: Je voudrais un place

S2: Je voudrais un place pour caravane et une voiture au soleil

T: près de la plage

S2: près de la plage

T: oui monsieur, c'est possible. Un place au soleil près de la plage. R, c'est pour combien de nuits?

S3: Pour une nuit.

T: Pour une nuit. OK. Et c'est pour combien de personnes? B?

S4: trois.

T: c'est pour deux adultes et un enfant, OK? V, ask how much.

S5: C'est combien?

The student turns in the excerpt were highly predictable, and were mainly following the set structure of the role-play activity. This was common in all the observed lessons. Most of the time, the speaker turns in role-plays were structured in such a way that if participants did not pay any attention to the message of the preceding speaker and concentrated on what they were to say in their next turn, the conversation might have flowed without any communication breakdowns. Such speaking practice may form the necessary basis for confidence building in using the target language, enable learners to communicate basic information and equip learners with passive vocabulary but will not necessarily prepare learners for real-life situations. This is because communication outside the classroom is highly unpredictable. In terms of production it requires a learner to be creative in constructing sentences. In terms of comprehension learners need to have the necessary skills to deal with unpredictable elements in an interlocutor's speech and to use negotiation and repair strategies to avoid communication breakdown. In order for learners to have that creativity, they

may need to be provided with opportunities for such language and skill practice and have more explicit support in terms of learning the grammar of the target language. More explicit support does not mean a step back to isolated presentation and practises of grammar rules or moving along a continuum from form-based teaching to meaning-based instruction as Stern (1983) proposes; it rather suggests that separate attention to grammar may be -and needs to be- provided alongside communicative activities. The need for more explicit grammar focus for the English context has been deducted from various teacher comments. The following teacher comments are indicative of why such focus may be necessary:

‘They don’t think about things carefully enough, do they? One of the reasons I do translation is because I do want to force them to think about what words mean and how you build up sentences. You know they have learned to say *je voudrais* in a social way but they have not thought about the possibilities of exploring *je voudrais*. Once you have a structure, you have a key to anything. They don’t realise that. They learn it in one context and they don’t see that it is transferable language. *Je voudrais* is such an important structure when you’re in France. Not just for shopping but also say describing rooms in hotels, talking about future plans you know. If I said to them, you know, I’d like to come back to France next year, they would really struggle. All is *je voudrais retourner en France l’année prochaine*. But they don’t transfer their language. Lessons are too much contextualised in year 7, 8, and 9 but I try to escape from that. You learn a language in all kinds of ways. Teachers are frightened of losing control with their children –that’s why they don’t experiment’.

‘They don’t tend to think. They listen to blocks of language, and don’t tend to think about what individual words in a sentence mean’.

‘When you start to look at what they produce at the higher level, or when you start looking what they are producing at GCSE, some of them have no idea, how it (*the language*) works. It’s just words or all kinds of shapes on the page. So maybe, if they have that knowledge in Year 7, that will help them to use the language more

effectively, because what they do is, they open a dictionary and they just take a word and they don't know how to adopt the word to fit or to change its tense'.

With regard to the integration of language form and communicative focus, teachers commented as follows:

'Everybody is aware that if you're going to do it successfully you've got to know how to manipulate the language, but you have to weigh that up against the students who are interested enough to want to be able to that'

'There has to be a compromise between teaching grammar and communication but I'm not sure anyone's quite found the way of effectively delivering it. I think we always have a problem in this country that there is not a perception that this is something that they ought to do (*the teacher is referring to learning a language*). That this is a good and important skill for them and although that might be a little less in this school it is generally a perception in a lot of students' minds that a language is not something that is like a vital skill for them to learn, which it should be'.

'We still have a problem that for quite a long time they have not really learned the grammar terms in English. So when you refer to things like adjectives they are not always sure what you mean. So you have got to teach them that before you can teach them in another language what they mean. But they are getting better at them because they're spending more time at primary school working on those things'.

As the extracts reveal, teachers consider the teaching of form as a necessary component of language instruction, however, they are limited by two main aspects: learner motivation and national languages strategies. The way the policy makers see language education, the way they predict the future needs of the country are reflected in the language curriculum, and this reflection has a certain impact on pupils' motivation in learning a language. Currently, Modern Foreign Languages is not a core-subject area, even though DfES (2002:6) states that Britain has 'lagged behind as a nation in its capability to contribute fully as multi-lingual and culturally aware citizens'. In its strategy report, DfES say that:

‘For too long we have failed to value language skills or recognise the contribution they make to society, to the economy and to raising standards in schools. This has led to a cycle of national underperformance in languages, a shortage of teachers, low take up of languages beyond schooling and a work force unable to meet the demands of a globalised economy’.

This indicates the current problems that Britain faces and may continue facing in the future, regarding the recognition of the importance of teaching of foreign languages. The national strategies are mirrored in language classrooms and as the teachers in this study point out, they teach learners who do not necessarily see language learning as essential and lack motivation, which makes it difficult for teachers to determine the balance between communicative focus and form teaching.

Turkish FL teachers stated that they are following the communicative approach in their teaching. In order to have a better understanding of teachers’ perspectives, the researcher asked the teachers to comment on the course books they were using and their general aims. Teachers said that every teaching year they decide which course book to use as a department, based on the communicative methodology. They said they choose the course book that offers the most functional focus and contextualised communication, and also that has units that teachers consider students will find interesting. Although the communicative approach emphasises individual learning differences over lockstep teaching, Turkish classrooms comprise of mixed ability students. All students are expected to proceed through the same materials at the same pace. It has been found that in Turkish classrooms students mainly got opportunities to speak in the target language through discussion activities. The following excerpts are representative of the interactions that were observed and recorded in language lessons:

Transcript 15, T1, year 8:

T: Ok. What is it about? What is it talking about?

Ss: Irish Stew. A meal.

T: A meal. What is this meal?

Ss: Irish stew.

T: Who made this Irish stew?
 Ss: George.
 T: Is George alone?
 Ss: No. Harris. With friends.
 T: With his friends. Where are they?
 Ss: The ship deck.
 T: Ok, in the ship deck islands. What did they put in the Irish stew?
 Ss: Everything. Potatoes.
 T: One by one. Potatoes. Ok, potatoes, what else?
 S: Cabbage.
 T: Cabbage, what else?
 Ss: Peas, pork, eggs, rat
 T: A rat, yes, what else?
 Ss: Bacon, salmon.
 T: Ok, was it delicious?
 Ss: Yes.
 T: Let's look at the vocabulary now.

Transcript 16, T2, Year 9:

S1: Expressing yourself very well is the most important thing to have a good job
 X.

T: Yes. You can have many things in your mind. But if you don't, if you can not
 express those ideas to other people how can they understand that you have
 something in your mind!

S2: Express, what does it mean?

T: Ifade etmek. Yes V?

S3: Expressing your ideas is the most important thing. Er, for example, somebody
 asked you or our teacher, I'm taking some people to my factory, er how, how kind
 of people I can take? And our teacher said that everybody graduate from the
 university. Everybody know everything. And she said you can write er which -
 who is the -you can write them- yazdirmek neydi hocam? (*what is make them
 write, miss?*)

T: make them write.

S3: make them write a composition. Who is the er whose composition is the best
 they can choose it.

T: uhuh. But some people are good at writing, some people are good at speaking. Himm? Anyway, writing or speaking, you should know how to express your ideas. You should not be shy. Being shy is not good. At your age I was very very shy. Being shy is not a good thing.

S4: I am very shy.

S5: Yes, N is very shy.

S4: I don't like.

T: You don't feel like expressing yourself? M?

S5: Oh, M is very expressing!

The two excerpts are illustrative of two main interaction types that were observed in the Turkish school, prompted by reading texts of the course books. As previously discussed under subsection 4.3.3.2, the way T1, T4 and T2, T3 used these texts encouraged different degrees of student participation in classroom discourse. The main factor that may have affected this can be T1 and T4's relative inexperience (1-2 years of teaching experience) compared to T2 and T3's (18-21 years) experience. The former excerpt is typical of teacher and student interaction found in less experienced teachers' lessons, and the latter is representative of interaction in experienced teachers' lessons. Although in both interactions a text was used as a prompt, there was a difference between the way in which teachers approached the text and interaction, as revealed by their questions and feedback moves.

Although the findings regarding teacher questions and feedback will be presented and discussed in the coming sections, it is relevant to briefly attempt such discussion, as teacher views on classroom communication will follow hereon. T1 used closed type and display questions when initiating interaction, the question moves were direct and short, did not express any personal views regarding the text, did not invite any personal views from students, and her feedback merely consisted of repetition of student responses. As the participant and facilitator of the ongoing discourse, these features of teacher's talk were reflected in students' participation as brief responses to questions, no contribution of personal views, and not taking consecutive turns. On the other hand, following S1's reading of a sentence from the course book, T2 started by expressing her views. S3 did not wait for the teacher initiating with a question, but expressed his agreement and elaborated on the teacher's message. The teacher

disagreed with the student and explained why, in the following feedback response. The teacher's giving an example of herself also encouraged S4 to participate. Although the students' speech contained errors, the teacher did not correct these and only gave feedback on the content of what the students had said. The way T2 participated in classroom discourse seems to be reflected in the students' participation as they took consecutive turns, agreed/disagreed with each other and were willing to express themselves through the target language. Based on these excerpts, it may be appropriate to argue that teacher reactions to students' language production may have a direct effect on students' contribution to classroom discourse.

When teachers were asked about their students' attitudes to communicating in their lessons, teachers generally commented that students were highly focused on language form. The following teacher comments express their views regarding this point:

'Students approach language learning no different than learning any other subject, so that's why they focus on form, they feel comfortable. They do not think about skill getting or improving their skills. They consider skill based activities valueless or unnecessary and they say we have not done anything today. No matter how hard I tried, I could not change their perceptions on that'.

'As a society we are not used to questioning concepts and emotions. This is a continuing problem and as such is reflected in the way the students participate in lessons. It is to do with the cultural background'.

'Students are afraid to make mistakes, they think too much about the grammar when they are constructing sentences, also they fear that their friends might laugh if they made a mistake. They participate most when we do grammar work sheets, because the answers are short, and also when a discussion topic really interests them'.

These teacher comments point to a commonly identified problem for the Turkish context that students are highly focused on language form in lessons -something, which teachers were trying to discourage. Although teachers identified this as a problem, they also said that the main focus in exams was grammar. In addition, they described a 'communicative' student as a student who uses grammar accurately,

actively participates in classroom discourse, and understands and applies the new structures in language production. Teacher emphasis on grammatical accuracy, the time dedicated to form teaching with a group mean value of 34% of the total teaching time, form-focused assessment and the use of drill-type grammar exercises suggest the audiolingual learning theory still prevails in Turkish language classrooms. This suggests that there may be a two-way cause to the identified problem.

Experimental research studies have found that when learners focus on meaning they perform better in oral tests compared to groups who receive form-focused instruction (Ellis 1997, Beretta and Davies 1985). On the other hand, it was found that the control classes did better on traditional structure tests. Regarding the rate of acquisition and ultimate level of achievement, research studies found that learners who receive grammar instruction outperform learners who do not (Krashen et al. 1978, Weslander and Stephany 1983, Ellis and Rathbone 1987). These findings are relevant to the Turkish context in one key aspect. The assessment criteria of schools and the post-school assessments (such as the national university exam, required language tests for job applications) are all based on assessing candidates' grammar and vocabulary knowledge in the target language. Students are also required to provide proof of their proficiency in English in order to apply to universities abroad (which includes taking proficiency exams such as TOEFL and IELTS) or for employers who currently demand high levels of fluency in at least one foreign language and state that fluency in more than one language will be considered an advantage. With the high unemployment rates, high percentage of young people and the status of Turkish among other languages, the immediacy of Turkish students' learning a foreign language and in relation to that, the specific goals they need to achieve through learning English can be quite different to British students' motivations for learning a foreign language.

4.3.3.3 Skills involved in classrooms activities:

To practice more authentic language use, the communicative methodology encourages the integration of the four skills in language classrooms. The mean values related to students' use of the four skills were presented in Tables 4 and 7 respectively. The group mean values under each table show in both contexts the combination of

‘listening and speaking’ skills most commonly used. Nevertheless, consistent with the suggestions of Tables 3 and 6, the percentage values of ‘listening and speaking’ skills indicate that students in the Turkish school were given more speaking opportunities in lessons, compared to British students. On the other hand, British FL teachers dedicated a considerable proportion of their lessons on ‘writing’ (34% -which is notably higher than the mean values of the Turkish school).

Finding the balance between practicing of the four skills may depend on how teachers use materials. For example, one of the Turkish teachers (T1) said that in order to cover the units on time, sometimes she skipped the speaking and writing activities suggested in the course book. This indicates that although the course book may offer a balanced integration of the four skills, teachers’ decision making has the final say on this matter. The communicative approach also suggests materials should be used in a task-oriented way instead of an exercise-oriented one. As a result of teachers’ using self-prepared materials and the structuring of the lessons, it can be said that British FL teachers used materials in a task-oriented way. Turkish FL teachers’ reliance on course books and grammar and vocabulary work sheets, on the other hand, resulted in an exercise-oriented use of materials.

4.4 The Amounts of Teacher and Student Participation in Classroom Interaction

This chapter so far has aimed to present a portrait of the FL teaching and learning contexts in two secondary schools, by examining language lessons at the level of activities. The following subsections will attempt to present results of the investigation of verbal interaction between teachers and students as occurred in the observed lessons, and will discuss the implications of the results within the framework of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. It will be appropriate to point out that the analysis of verbal communication that will be presented in the following sections of this chapter is based on selected sample lessons.

For this study a total number of 63 lessons were observed in the two schools. This makes 3060 minutes of audio-recordings, which is 51 hours. Therefore for further

analysis lessons had to be selected. In the English school, during the observation period French FL and German FL lessons were working in parallel in terms of following the syllabus. As a result of this, lesson topics, material types and activities were similar. That meant that selecting either German or French lessons would be representative of both. The researcher's higher proficiency level in French compared to German resulted in the selection of French lessons for further analysis. In the Turkish school, two teachers' lessons were considered unrepresentative of the general EFL lessons. The first one was T4, whose lessons included student presentations during the observation period and these occurred only once during the year as students were required to write a term paper and present it to the class. These presentations took a considerable proportion of T4's lessons. The other teacher, T5, taught Reading classes, where the main purpose was to develop students' reading skills. In terms of activities and purposes it was different compared to mainstream language lessons. In addition, T5 was only observed once, and this raised concerns about the representativeness of the observed lesson. This meant that three teachers' lessons from the Turkish school were to be subjected to detailed analysis. In order to balance the number of teachers from the two schools, data regarding B2 was discarded as this teacher has the fewest number of observed lessons among FFL teachers and the recording quality of the lessons was poor. This meant that three teachers from each school were selected. Of these teachers' lessons, a choice was made as to which lessons would be treated to further analysis. This selection was made on the basis of activities and the difference between lesson times in both countries. Since the focus of this study is on spoken interaction, the lessons that had more speaking and discussion activities compared to individual reading and writing activities were selected. For timing purposes, 3 lessons from each teacher in the English school (180 minutes) and 4 lessons from the Turkish school (160 minutes) were selected. Overall, 21 lessons (9+12) were analysed. The only inexperienced teacher included in the analysis of interaction was T1 from the Turkish school. The list of the selected teachers for further analysis of interaction is as follows:

T1: Turkish EFL (the only teacher who is in the first year of her teaching career).

T2: Turkish EFL

T3: Turkish EFL

B4: British FFL

B5: British FFL

B6: British FFL (the only male teacher in the group)

Various aspects of FL lessons (including the proportion of use of mother tongue and target language, the length of teacher turns, teacher questions and feedback, the quantity and quality of student turns) were subjected to analysis. For a detailed list of the analysis questions, the reader may wish to refer to Methodology Chapter subsection 3.2.

The analyses of the lessons provided information and details about the teacher and student participation in the observed lessons and the quantity and quality of these interaction patterns. For the analysis, the audio-recorded lessons of all 6 teachers (21 lessons in total) were listened to and chart B of the COLT scheme was used for coding. Each coding was done on the level of utterances and turns. As mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, utterances are any relevant categories which occur within a teacher or student turn, and turns are any and all speech which is produced by a speaker until another person begins speaking. The data was coded on Excel spreadsheets and then was subjected to analysis by the use of SPSS software programme. For analysis, descriptive statistics and cross tabulation were used, to determine the frequencies of occurrence. As this research is essentially a case study and the sample size is quite small, the researcher has made a decision to leave the statistical treatment of research data at the level of frequency counts and cross-tabulation.

4.4.1 The proportion of teacher talk (TT) in the mother tongue (L1) to TT in the target language (L2)

Lessons were analysed to see the total amount of TT and how TT was distributed between L1 and L2. For this purpose, the frequency counts of teacher utterances in L1 and L2 were taken. As previously pointed out, utterances were coded at sentence level. Therefore, the number of utterances presented below does not indicate the length of teacher turns. The length of teacher turns was coded as a separate category and will be presented following this subsection.

Table 8

Teachers' Utterances

	T1	T2	T3	B4	B5	B6
L1	32 (4.3%)	6 (0.8%)	4 (0.6%)	1052 (54.5%)	420 (50.8%)	518 (35.2%)
L2	716 (95.7%)	759 (99.2%)	636 (99.4%)	877 (45.5%)	407 (49.2%)	899 (64.8%)
Total	748 (100%)	765 (100%)	640 (100%)	1929 (100%)	827 (100%)	1417 (100%)

The numbers above are the actual numbers of occurrence of utterances and the values in brackets are the percentage values of the proportions of L1 and L2 in TT.

According to the table above, the first three teachers from the TS used substantially less L1 (Turkish) during the lessons than the teachers in the ES. Among the three teachers in the ES, B6 was the only teacher who used L2 more than L1. Of all the 1929 utterances of B4, 1052 of them were in L1 (English) which made almost 55% of the total utterances. The high proportion of L1 use by British teachers B4 and B5 could be due to the fact that these teachers used translation as an important aspect of their teaching. Audio-recordings show that teacher initiations such as 'how do you say is there a sports pitch?' or 'tell me you are going to visit your uncle in Florida' were quite common in these teachers' lessons. In addition, these teachers tended to give extended information regarding the aim of their lessons, for general management purposes (e.g. giving homework, talking about school trips, arranging seating plan) and language related explanations. Another interesting point about the results is the total values. The total numbers of utterances the teachers made in the ES are higher than teachers' in the TS, especially in B4 and B6's lessons. This could be due to the 20-minute difference between the analysed lessons (Turkish 160 minutes per teacher, English 180 minutes per teacher). However, in order to interpret this difference, the total number of student utterances for each teacher also has to be compared. If the total numbers of student utterances are also notably higher in B4 and B6's lessons, then it may be said that there was more spoken interaction in these teachers' lessons due to the time difference. Alternatively, if the total numbers are at the same level or even lower than other teachers' lessons then it may be said that these teachers took longer turns and had a more dominant position in classroom interaction compared to

their students. The values for the proportions of TT and student talk are provided in section 4.4.7 and such comparison is made after the presentation of students' results.

4.4.2 The length of teacher turns

The total numbers of teacher utterances were presented above. These utterances together form the turns taken by the teachers. It is logical to assume that if a speaker takes more frequent and extended turns, other speaker(s) will have less chance to participate in discourse. In order to determine the extent of teacher turns 'Minimal' and 'Sustained Speech' categories were coded. 'Minimal' refers to teacher turns which consist of one or two words, long phrases, and one or two main clauses or sentences. 'Sustained' refers to turns that consist of at least three main clauses.

Table 9 The Length of Teacher Turns

Length of Turns	T1	T2	T3	B4	B5	B6
Minimal	105 (33.4%)	161 (51.4%)	95 (42.2%)	115 (26.8%)	39 (26.2%)	322 (50.1%)
Sustained	209 (66.6%)	152 (48.6%)	130 (57.8%)	315 (73.2%)	110 (73.8%)	321 (49.9%)
Total	314	313	225	429	149	643

The results suggest that the two groups' results are mixed and therefore there is no distinguishable pattern between the Turkish and English contexts. Nevertheless, on an individual level, it can be said that the proportions of minimal and sustained speech are balanced in T2, T3 and B6's lessons, compared to T1, B4 and B5's lessons.

4.4.3 The purposes of teachers' use of L1 and L2

Table 8 showed the total numbers of L1 and L2 use for all teachers. This subsection aims to present the findings of analysis regarding certain aspects of teachers' language use. 'Instruct' refers to teachers' giving instructions, 'form explain' refers to teachers' explicit reference to language forms, and 'functional explain' refers to teachers' remarks regarding the physical environment or general explanations that provide

information to students (e.g. explanations on how students are expected to perform on a speaking test). ‘Question’ indicates teachers’ questions, ‘praise/accept’ refers to teacher feedback that indicates acceptance, refusal or praising of students’ preceding turns. The ‘example’ category shows the instances where teachers provide examples of correct target language use (e.g. vocabulary, structures). Finally, the ‘other’ category includes teachers’ giving information or linguistic clues that help students’ language production, disciplinary remarks, and reactions to either the form or message of the student utterance. Having briefly reviewed the descriptions of the categories, the purposes of teachers’ use of L1 and L2 are presented in Table 10 and Table 11 respectively:

Table 10 Teachers’ L1 use

	Instruct	Form explan.	Functional explan.	Question	Accept	Other	Total
T1	3	9	3	0	0	17	32
T2	0	2	0	0	0	4	6
T3	0	2	0	1	0	1	4
B4	260	161	130	267	55	178	1051
B5	107	35	145	37	3	91	418
B6	145	52	21	109	16	175	518

Table 11 Teachers’ L2 use

	Instruct	Form explan.	Functional Explan.	Question	Example	Accept	Other	Total
T1	48	37	0	264	15	30	323	717
T2	130	25	5	145	10	60	382	757
T3	95	8	0	136	4	22	367	632
B4	32	0	0	102	154	26	563	877
B5	64	0	3	83	42	47	167	406
B6	117	2	0	145	25	15	595	899

The values in the tables above represent the actual number of occurrences. The total number of teachers' utterances in L1 point to a difference between Turkish and British teachers, in the sense that the use of mother tongue in English FL classrooms is more common than in Turkish classrooms. If the categories are looked at in detail, the total number of 'instruction' utterances (L1 and L2) that Turkish teachers make range between 51-130 whereas British teachers' vary between 171-292. These results are in line with and may be explained by the researcher's field-notes pointing out that British teachers were quite explicit about the purpose of each lesson and linked activities to the general aims of the lessons, gave clear and detailed instructions before each activity, and they mainly used L1 for this purpose. 89% of B4's, 63% of B5's and 55% of B6's instructions were in L1. It can be said that among British FL teachers only B6 balanced the proportions of L1 and L2 when giving instructions. In terms of teachers' form-related explanations, the data suggests that B4 made the most form-related explanations, while other teachers' results are similar regardless of the country. Another point revealed by the data is that Turkish teachers tended to use L2 when making form-related explanations, while British FL teachers used L1. B6 was the only teacher among British teachers to use any L2 to make form-related explanations. Similar to the suggestions regarding the 'instruction' category, the 'functional explanation' category reveals that Turkish teachers rarely made reference to the physical environment or provided functional information (e.g. explaining homework or exam content), while British FL teachers -especially B4 and B5- informed students frequently about the assessment criteria and what was expected of the learners in the exam. This is also consistent with the findings related to the extent of teacher turns (Table 9), as the data points to an imbalance between 'minimal' and 'extended' turns that these two teachers took within classroom discourse. British teachers used L1 for functional explanations.

In terms of teacher questions, according to the results in tables 10 and 11, it can be said that Turkish teachers used L2 when asking questions. For British teachers, the results point to a considerable amount of L1 use when asking questions. Questions asked in L1 make up 72% of the total number of questions asked by B4, 30% of those asked by B5 and 43% of those asked by B6. In order to find a possible explanation for this, the frequency of questions asked in L1 were cross tabulated with two variables: 'pseudo request' and 'genuine request'. Further analysis revealed that

teachers mainly used L1 to ask display questions some examples of which can be presented as follows:

- What is the answer to the next one?
- How do you say is there a tennis court?
- Tell me you want to book a double room (such directive sentences were also coded as requests).

That indicates that mother tongue constituted an important aspect of British teachers' initiations.

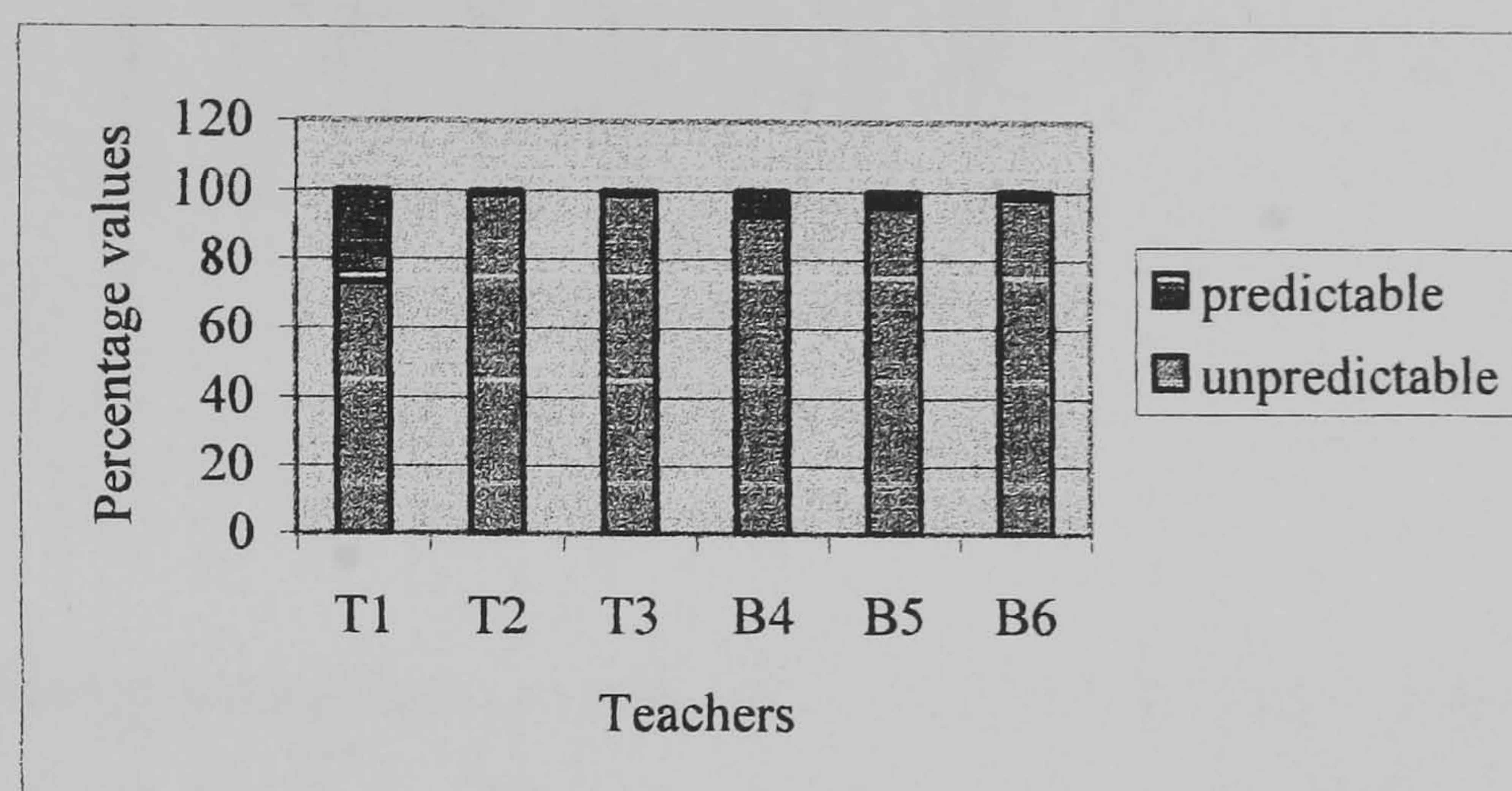
Regarding Turkish teachers, another point of interest is the total number of questions asked by T1 compared to T2 and T3. There may be various explanations for this, one of which could be this teacher's having less experience compared to other Turkish teachers; and as a result she may have found it difficult to find ways of encouraging student participation and contribution to the classroom discourse and therefore made more question moves. This explanation could be likely because this teacher mentioned during one of the discussions with the researcher that she wanted the classroom discourse to be jointly constructed by herself and her students. She said she was not pleased with the amount of student participation in her lessons and wanted the students to participate more actively than they did. When she was asked why the students were reluctant, she said either because that might be the way students were in all teachers' lessons or because she did not quite know the proper strategies to achieve this.

In response to students' utterances teachers make evaluative remarks that could be both positive and negative. Any direct remarks for praising, accepting or refusing the student utterance (such as: well-done, good, excellent or that is not quite true) were coded under the 'accept' category. It can be expected that teachers have routines in using these remarks and because they are used frequently in the language classroom it may be reasonable to expect the use of L2 for such remarks. The results in the 'accept' column reveal no common pattern as to the frequency of use of such remarks. However, it can be said that Turkish teachers always used L2, and T2 was the one who most frequently made such remarks among the Turkish teachers. On the other hand, the highest number of utterances was made by B4. However, 68% of these were made in L1.

Because the 'other' category is a combination of various features, the proportions of these features are presented separately below:

Chart 12

Information given by teachers



'Predictable information' was coded when teachers were giving information such as reading from a text which was already available to the students. The 'predictable information' column reveals that except T1, teachers almost never made such utterances. Since there were separate categories for teachers' instructions, questions and explanations, other utterances that provided some kind of information or a personal view from the teacher were coded under the 'unpredictable information' category.

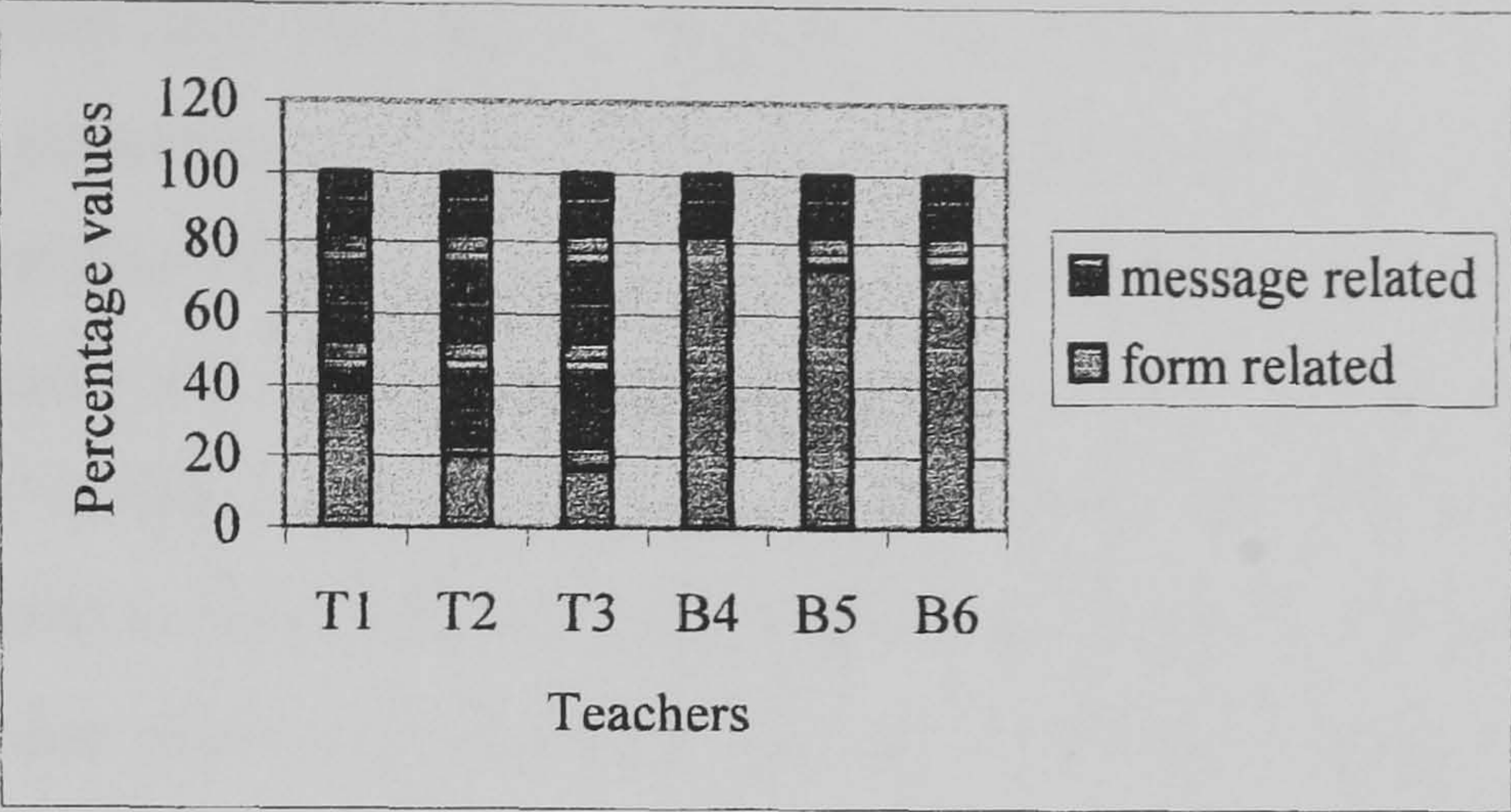
'Reaction to form' and 'reaction to message' categories reveal how teachers responded to the language students produced. While form-related teacher responses indicate teachers' emphasis on the accuracy of students' language production, message related responses may indicate interaction as found in natural discourse. These categories are looked at in more detail in the following section.

4.4.4 Teachers' reactions to the language that students produce

The reaction moves teachers made to the language that students' produced were coded under two main categories –reaction to form and reaction to message.

Chart 13

Teachers' Reactions to Students' Language Production



The table presents percentage proportions of teachers' form-related and message related feedback to students. The data suggests a striking difference between the teachers of the two schools in the sense that Turkish teachers focused more on students' messages when they were giving feedback, compared to British teachers' feedback focus on the form of students' utterances. In order to be able to provide more detailed information on teachers' form and message related feedback, teachers' responses were coded under several categories. Seven types of feedback reaction categories were used. The results of the cross-tabulated analysis of these categories are as below:

Table 14 Details of Teacher Responses to Student Utterances

T	Reaction	Correct	Repeat	Paraph	Comme	Expand	Elab R	Clari R
T1	Form	4	49	13	15	7	7	1
	Message	2	76	21	25	11	17	7
T2	Form	16	13	2	32	1	6	0
	Message	7	58	14	57	108	34	6
T3	Form	9	14	8	10	4	1	0
	Message	0	71	25	51	78	25	9
B4	Form	52	196	49	79	31	6	2
	Message	0	6	2	11	59	13	3
B5	Form	17	52	13	36	2	2	4
	Message	0	11	5	15	7	5	3
B6	Form	41	95	46	55	6	12	1
	Message	0	28	4	31	17	21	2

The response categories are: correction, repetition, paraphrase, comment, expansion, elaboration request and clarification request. The details of these categories were presented with examples in the Methodology Chapter (subsection 3.3.3.3). When all teachers' form related responses are looked at, the most commonly used reaction type was repetition only except T2. In order to confirm that a student had provided the correct answer teachers repeated the linguistic form of students' response. T2, however, preferred to comment on the utterance rather than repeating the correct form. It may be said that there was a common pattern in teachers' reactions to the form of students' utterances regardless of the country. 'Repetition', 'comment' and 'correct' (in this order) were the most commonly used response types. The second pattern was to use 'repetition', 'comment' and 'paraphrase' (T1 and B6). Overall, B4 gave the most form-related feedback among the 6 teachers. The following extract is an example of how teachers gave feedback responses through repetition. It is from a role-play activity in which the teacher was the campsite receptionist and the students were the customers:

Transcript 17, B4, Year 9:

S1: Il y a un restaurant au camping? (*is there a restaurant at the campsite?*)

T: Il y a un restaurant au camping? Oui madame, en face de la réception. (*yes, opposite the reception*)

S2: où sont les poubelles? (*where are the dustbins?*)

T: les poubelles. Tres bien! Les poubelles sont à côté des toilettes. (*the dustbins! Very good! The dustbins are next to the toilets*)

S3: On peut jouer au tennis au camping? (*can I play tennis at the campsite?*)

T: On peut jouer au tennis au camping? Oui monsieur, il y a deux cours de tennis au camping. (*yes, there are two tennis courts at the campsite*).

The teacher first repeated the student's utterance to acknowledge that it was the correct form and then attended to the message and replied according to the role. As mentioned in section 4.3.1, during the role-play the content of the turns were indicated by symbols, the questions that students were expected to ask and the answers to be given by the teacher were visible on the OHP. Repetitions, as demonstrated in the example, were commonly observed in all teachers' responses to the form of student utterances.

In both contexts when teachers gave message-related reactions they mainly used expansion, repetition and comment type responses. As these types of responses were mainly used by T2, T3, B5 and B6, no differences were found among the groups:

T1:	-repeat	T2:	-expansion	T3:	-expansion
	-comment		-repeat		-repeat
	-paraphrase		-comment		-comment
B4:	-expansion	B5:	-comment	B6:	-comment
	-elaboration request		-repeat		-repeat
	-comment		-expand		-expand

Message-related expansion moves suggest that teachers acknowledged students' contributions to the classroom discourse and made responsive contributions to expand the message by providing more details or adding their own opinions. The number of expansion utterances that T2 made was strikingly high compared to other teachers. T3 and B4 also made notably higher numbers of expansion utterances compared to the other three teachers. On the other hand, message related elaboration requests suggest that teachers requested further details related to the content of students' preceding turns. Again such requests were most commonly used by T2, followed by T3 and B6. The following extract comes from T2's lesson to illustrate how this teacher made use of elaboration requests and as a result, what kind of interaction occurred between this teacher and the student:

Transcript 18, T2, Year 9:

T: ...Don't you have your book with you?

S1: I can't read it because of the face drop teacher, er, eye drop.

T: Oh, can't you see anything?

S1: I can see but not clearly.

T: But it is dangerous to come to school on your own. Why did you come to school?

S1: I just can't read the small writings but I can read the numbers of busses. Because they are so big and it is impossible to confuse them.

T: But you won't be able to do anything in class today so what's the use of coming to school?

S1: I can listen, teacher.

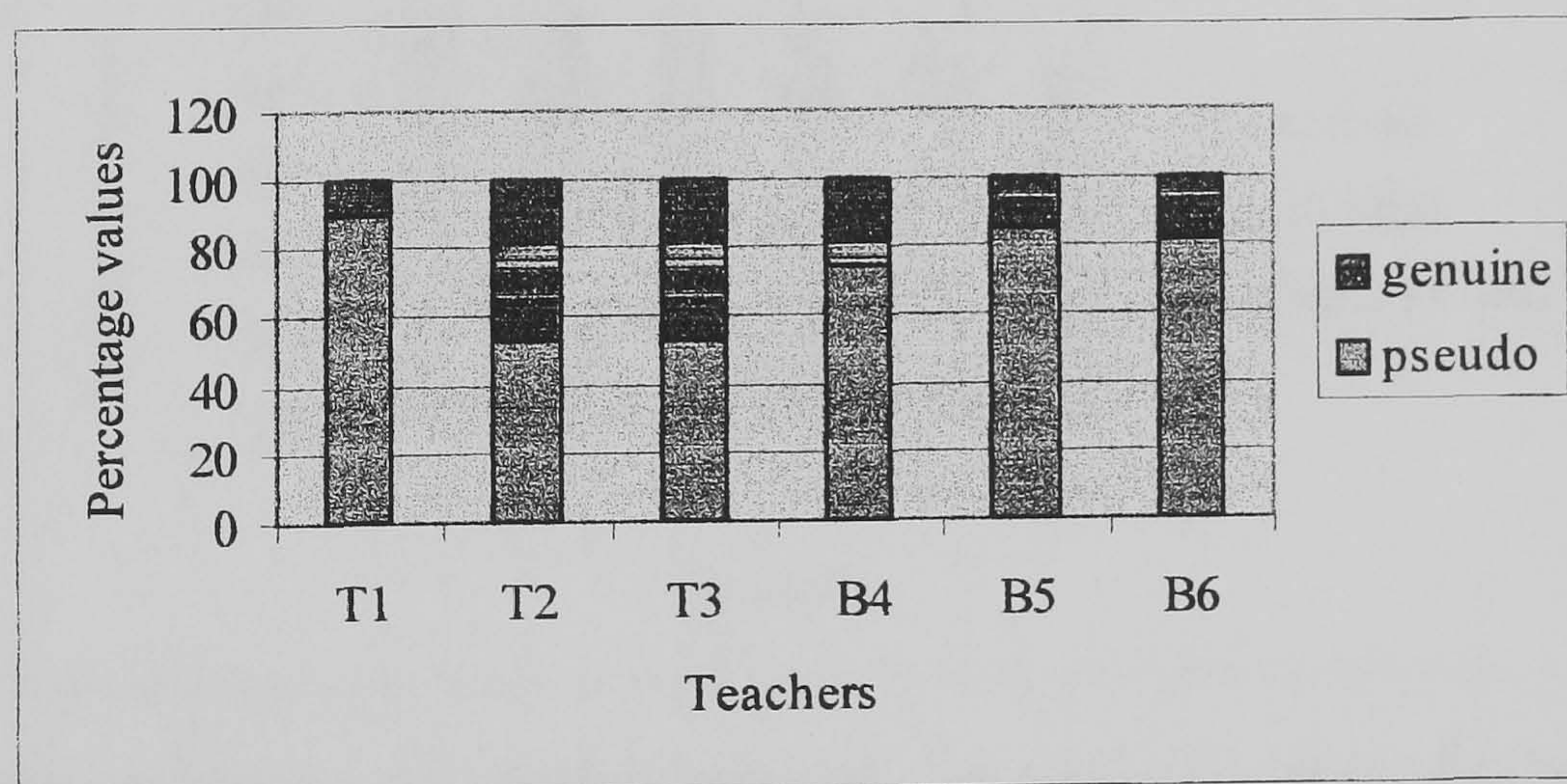
In the example above, the teacher's first question was management related because she had instructed all students to open their books but this student was talking to the student sitting next to him. However, the student's answer caused concern and therefore the teacher made various elaboration requests. It is also interesting that although the interaction was not task oriented, the teacher allowed extended interaction with a single student. Finally on clarification requests, it may be said that there were not many occurrences in any of the teachers' lessons.

4.4.5 The proportion of teachers' pseudo questions to genuine questions

The relevancy of investigating question types is based on the literature reviewed in subsection 2.3.3.3 in the Literature Review. Pseudo (display) requests are those to which the speaker already knows the answer, while genuine (referential) requests are actually information seeking. The results of the investigation of teacher questions are presented in chart 15:

Chart 15

Teachers' Request Types

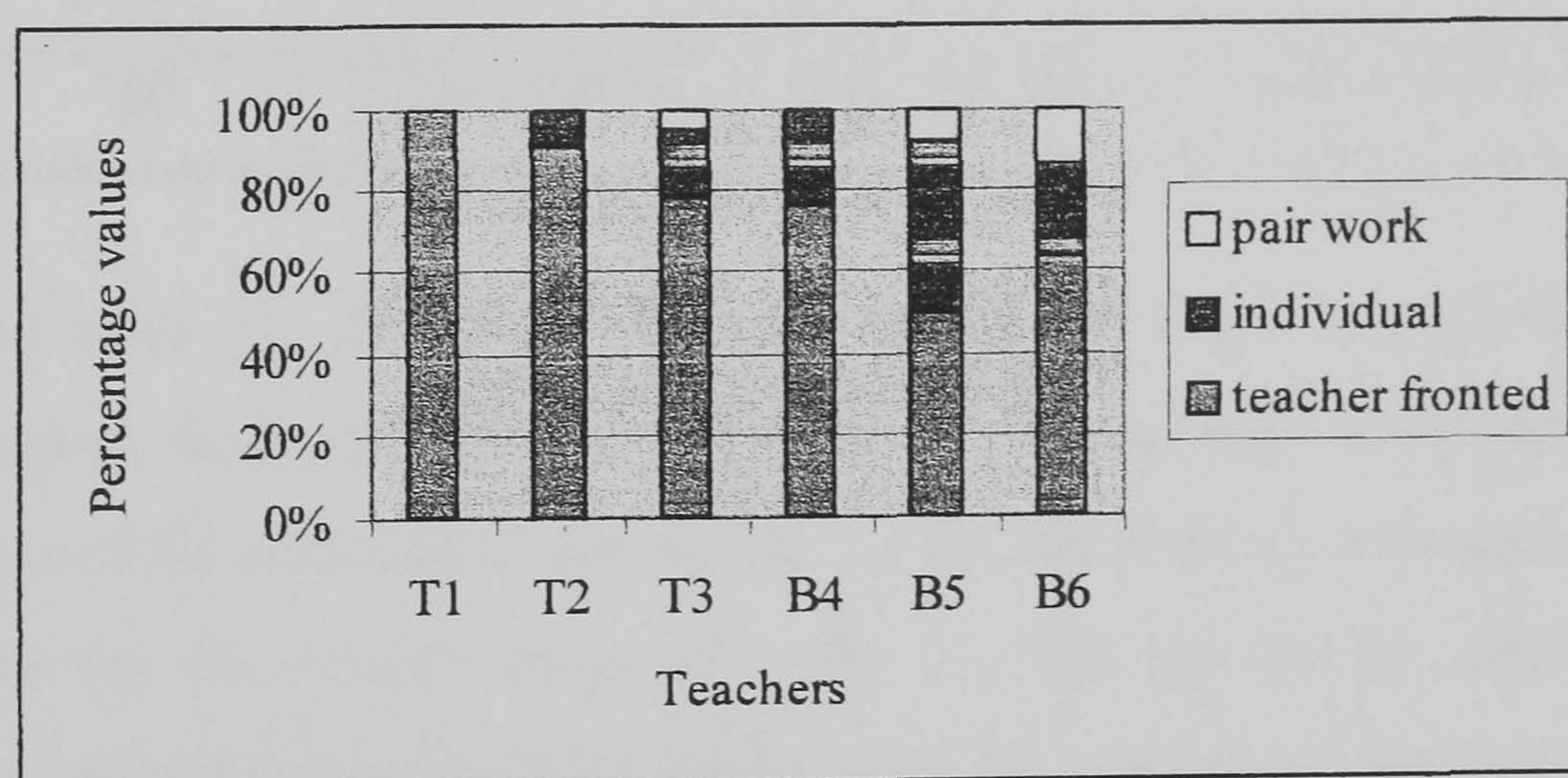


In the chart above, the common pattern is that all teachers used pseudo questions more than genuine questions. However, T2 and T3 made notably more genuine requests compared to other teachers and there was a reasonable balance between these teachers' genuine and pseudo requests.

4.4.6. The quantity of students' speech and the proportions of L1 and L2 use

The speech that students produced during the lessons was also analysed in order to investigate certain features such as the proportion of teacher talk to students' talk, the proportion of L2 and L1 in students' speech, the length of student turns and whether students' language production was limited in any way. It is important to point out that, it was not possible to record student-student interaction every time it occurred during the pair work activities. The reasons for this were explained in the Methodology Chapter (subsection 3.3.3.4). As a result of this, the coding of the lessons included only the general classroom interaction as occurred between teachers and students. Therefore in this section, unless otherwise stated, students' utterances mean the utterances that were picked up by the audio-recorder as part of the general whole-class interaction. Before moving on to the findings related to students' language production, it may be useful to focus on the proportion of time students spent on pair-work and individual work where they did not interact with peers in relation to teacher-fronted interaction within the analysed lessons:

Chart 16 The proportion of teacher-fronted interaction to pair and individual work



The percentage values in the chart present the amount of teacher-fronted interaction, pair-work where students interacted with peers, and individual work where students worked on their own. Students get speaking opportunities during teacher-fronted activities and through interacting with peers. In this context, it can be said that the recorder picked up a major proportion of student speech, as students contributed to classroom discourse essentially through teacher-fronted interaction and since pair work was only rarely used in three teachers' lessons.

Although the interaction between pairs could not be recorded every time it occurred, the observer made notes on the focus of these activities to provide some detail regarding the observed pair-work instances. According to these notes, the pair-work activities in T3's lesson focused on students' getting each other's opinions. In British FL teachers' lessons students practised role-plays according to the cue cards as was modelled previously by the teacher. Having presented the proportion of general teacher-student interaction in the analysed lessons (chart 16), the table below shows the number of student utterances as they occurred in each teacher's lessons along with their percentage values:

Table 17 Students' language use

Teachers	Utterances in L1	Utterances in L2	Total number of utterances
T1	22 (5%)	416 (95%)	438 (100%)
T2	23 (4.4%)	499 (95.6%)	522 (100%)
T3	16 (3.3%)	466 (96.7%)	482 (100%)
B4	53 (10%)	477 (90%)	530 (100%)
B5	53 (18.9%)	228 (81.1%)	281 (100%)
B6	128 (19.8%)	518 (80.2%)	646 (100%)

According to table 17, the percentages of students' L2 use are notably high in all teachers' lessons. However, there is a difference between the Turkish school (TS) and English school (ES) in the sense that in the TS the proportion of students' L1 use does not go above the 5% range, whereas in the ES this can rise to almost 20%. This difference in the percentages might suggest that the amount of teachers' L1 use may have an effect on the amount of student language use. Nevertheless, the results do not support a direct link between teachers' L1 use and students' L1 use, as the highest proportion of L1 use was found in B4's lessons, whereas among the British teachers students have the highest proportion of L2 use in this teacher's lessons. During the interviews English FL teachers were asked to comment on their students' use of L2 and L1:

‘I think it is important because in fact it comes in the National Curriculum that they should use target language as their normal means of communication in the classrooms and that means for everything in the classroom not just for the bit of language they are practicing’

“They are not very good at, and they need to be encouraged to use the target language for other purposes in the classroom. So they need to be pushed if you want them to say ‘I need a pen’...They would automatically go to English to do those things, which is something they should not be doing, but you need to make extra effort to make them do that...I think you have to keep insisting on it because if you do not keep insisting on it, it is easy. You keep preoccupied with wanting to get on with the lesson and not spending time on those other things. So that tends to go into the background a little bit. But they need encouraging to do that”.

These extracts indicate that teachers acknowledge the need for students’ using target language for a variety of purposes, but perhaps teachers get preoccupied with following their lesson plans and prefer not to interrupt the lesson flow to draw students’ attention to L2 use for a wider-range of purposes. As the second extract points out, unless the use of L2 is emphasised frequently enough, it may not be possible to see a change in the habits of students in terms of language preference.

Turkish teachers were also asked to comment on the use of L1 and L2 in their classrooms. Their interviews were not audio-recorded but detailed notes were taken regarding their comments. A common feature of these comments is that teachers say they make it clear to the students from early year groups that they are expected to communicate in L2 in their lessons. Teachers said they warn the students where necessary, to form a habit. T1 said she tries to use L2 extensively, however, she switches to L1 for some grammar explanations. T1 also commented that students should never use L1 unless they find no other way of expressing their message. T1 thought this is very important because her students cannot practice the target language except in the classroom, and they have to make the most of the opportunity in the classroom by practising and learning ways of expressing themselves. T2 made similar comments, emphasising the importance of students’ using L2. This teacher also commented on her own practice and said that she does not use direct translation and only uses L1 when there are cultural differences in the meaning of a word, or when

there is a complex grammar point -in order to ensure that all students understand her explanation. Researcher's field notes also suggest that Turkish teachers only occasionally accepted a student reply in L1. The common observed patterns were teachers' reminding students to use TL, and in some instances ignoring students' replies in L1 even though the replies were correct. This could be why in general students used less L1 in Turkish teachers' lessons.

The data presented in Table 17 and teachers' views provide important information regarding L1 and L2 use in the observed lessons. Although the data comes from the analyses of general verbal interaction picked up by an audio-recorder, as chart 16 demonstrates only a small proportion of student talk was missed out in the analyses. Student-student interaction was recorded on most occasions; unfortunately the recordings are of poor quality due to general background noise and students' low voice level. The researcher made detailed notes regarding students' interaction with peers. According to these notes, when students were exchanging information or helping each other in order to complete the given task successfully, they frequently used L1. In terms of sound quality only one lesson recording permitted transcription of students' interaction. Although it does not indicate that other pairs interacted in the same way, the following extracts may demonstrate how students collaborated:

Transcript 19, T3, Year 9:

S1: Bir dakika, ben yapmadım. (*wait a minute, I have not finished*)

S2: Most interesting'den baslayip (*starting from the most interesting*)

T: Try to speak in English.

S2: Ben basliyim, sen de bana gore yaparsin. (*I will start, and then you can do according to my answers*). I think the most interesting job is gossip columnist and second interesting job is personal shopper and third one chocolate tester. Fourth one is toy tester.

S1: Five one? Yeah. For me the least interesting job is gossip columnist. I think the most interesting job is er chocolate tester, er then second interesting is personal shopper.

S2: Yes?

S1: The third interesting job in -is menu writer.

S2: Yes?

S1: And the fourth one is toy tester.

S2: And the least interesting?

S1: the least interesting is gossip columnist.

In the first excerpt students needed to grade jobs from the most interesting to the least interesting. Students used L1 to manage the organisation of their turns. It is interesting that although students had equal discourse rights, S2 took on a teacher role explaining the purpose of the task and by asking prompting questions when S1 paused. Similarly in the extract below, following teacher instructions S2 explained teacher instructions using the target language. S1's speech was inaudible, however, it is clear that S1 did not quite understand the task requirements and therefore in her consecutive turn S2 switched to L1 to help S1:

Transcript 20, T3, Year 9:

....

T: What are three jobs in your culture that might seem unusual to a person from another culture? What do you think about that? Maybe two minutes to think about it with your partner. You can talk with your partner, in English please.

S2: I can explain. Three jobs, three jobs in our culture that unusual. Like unique jobs. Er, for us it is not unique jobs but er to another person from another culture it is a unique job.

S1: XX

S2: Hayir, joblari sey yapiyoruz, nadir. (*No, we're doing the jobs, unique*).

The following excerpt demonstrates how these students interacted when the teacher instructed pairs to collaboratively construct a dialogue:

Transcript 21, T3, Year 9:

...

T: Now I want you to write down a dialogue with your partner, like the one given in the book. And then you are going to perform your dialogue.

S2: sen kendi cümlelerini yaz (*you write your own sentences*).

T: You can use the expressions given in the box.

S1: In my opinion teaching disabled children must be pretty difficult.

S2: For me –bu agree mi? (*do I agree?*)

S1: tekrar söyleyicem ben (*I will say again*).

S2: daha bitmedi cümlem (*I have not finished writing yet*).

S1: Yaz o zaman. Cabuk ol. (*Write then. Be quick*).

S2: Patient nasıl yazılıyor? (*How do you spell patient?*)

S1: Pa-ti-ent. Çabuk yaz. (*Write quickly*).

S2: In my opinion teaching disabled children must be very difficult.

S1: I agree, you must be very patient.

S2: I could not do it. For me working as an archaeologist sounds fantastic.

S1: I agree with you. I wanted to be archaeologist.

S2: Niye 'an' demiyorsun? (*why don't you say 'an'*)

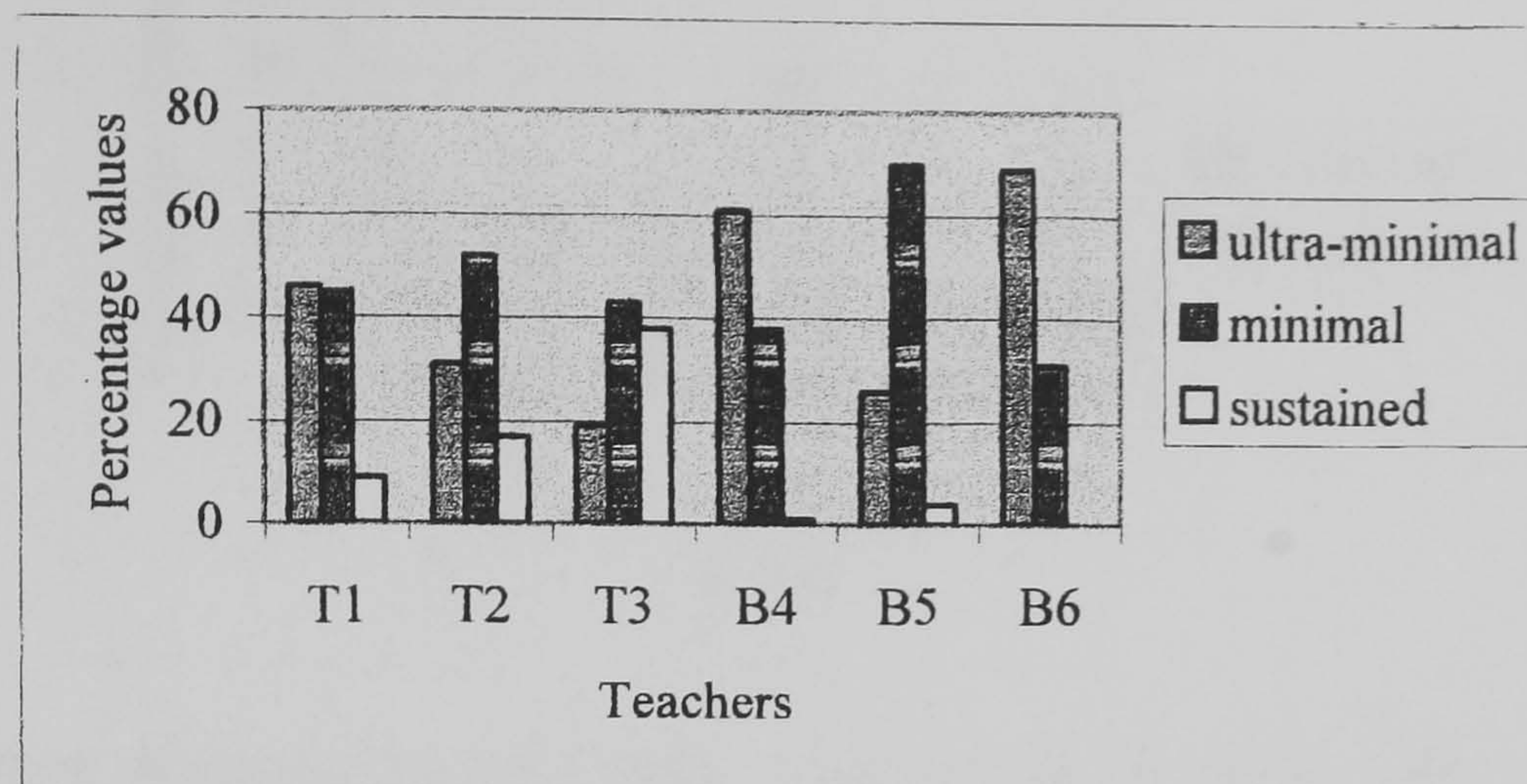
Students mainly used L1 to manage the task. Despite the teacher's instruction to work collaboratively, S2 instructed the pair to work separately. In addition, S2 finished her part of the conversation earlier than S1 and pressurised S1 to finish the task. In her last turn S2 also made explicit form correction when S1 left out an article. These excerpts indicate that the interaction between students may not fulfil teachers' pedagogic intentions as students may use L1 and their practical strategies to manage and complete a given task. In addition, as these extracts show, some learners may tend to dominate interaction and shape other participants' contributions. Teachers need to be aware of the limitations described above when they are setting pair-work activities.

4.4.7. The length of students' turns

For the length of students' turns three different categories were coded: ultra-minimal, minimal and sustained. Student turns that consisted of only one or two words were coded under the 'ultra-minimal' category (e.g. article plus noun). If the students' turns consisted of long phrases, one or two main clauses or sentences then these were coded under the 'minimal' category. For the 'sustained' category, students' turns had to consist of at least three main clauses. Summaries of the frequency of occurrence of the variables above are presented in chart 18:

Chart 18

The length of student turns

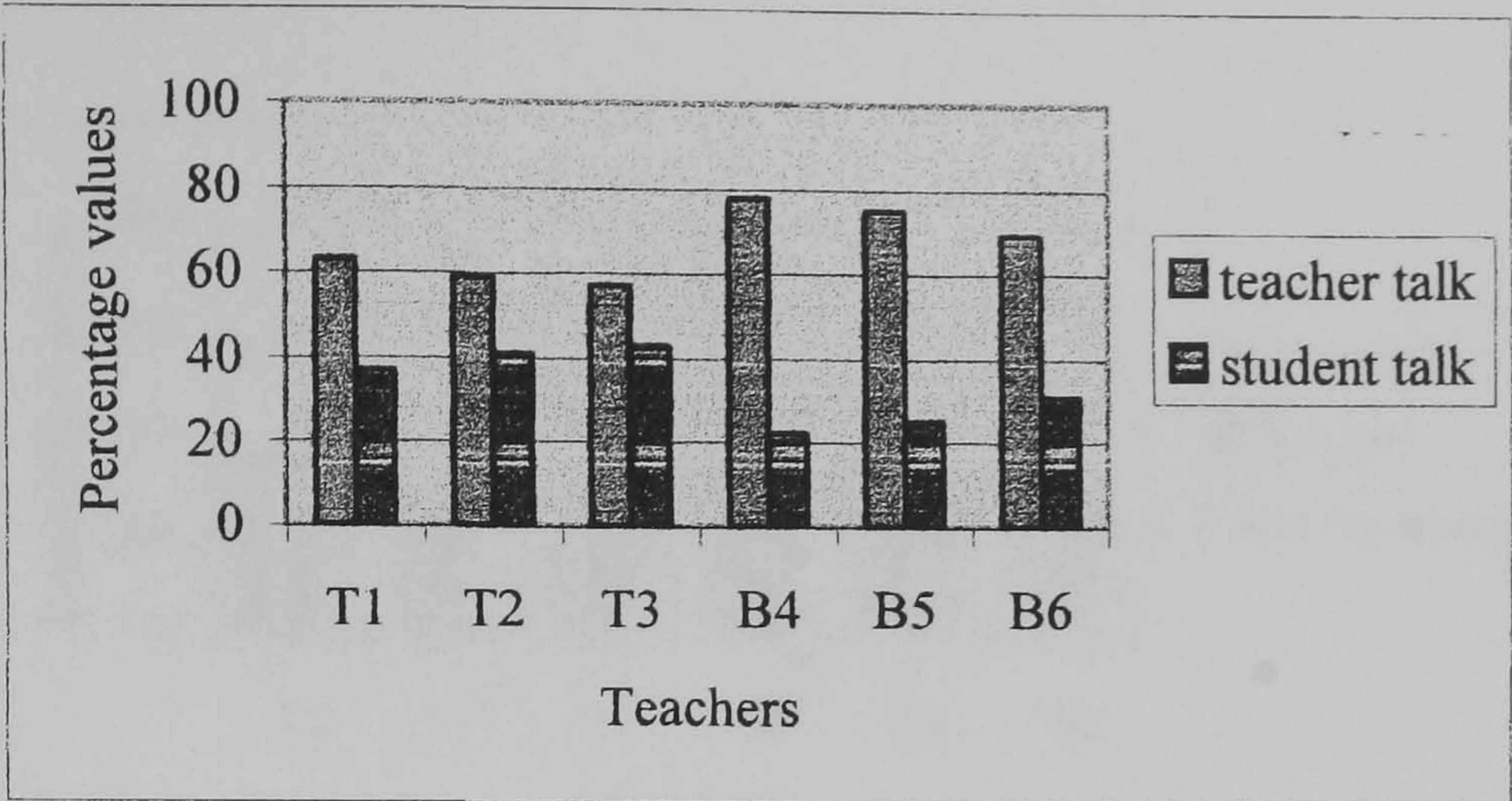


According to the results, it can be said that generally in the Turkish school students got more chances to engage in longer turns. As T2 and T3 were teaching the same year groups and the lessons were similar in terms of the activities and topics since both teachers were following the same course book, these results may also indicate that teacher strategies determined the amount of student participation more than activities, tasks and topics did. In the English school, lessons were similar in terms of topics, activities and the total number of students per class. For all British FL teachers' lessons it can be said that students did not get 'extended' turns. When the proportions of 'ultra-minimal' and 'minimal' speech are compared, the categories do not suggest any patterns. This may indicate that, in the English school it was essentially teacher strategies that determined the amount of student participation rather than activities and topics that were tackled in classrooms. Both schools are similar in this respect.

Finally, as suggested in subsection 4.4.1, the amount of student turns and teacher turns were examined in terms of the proportions of teacher talk to student talk in general classroom discourse:

Chart 19

Proportion of teacher talk to student talk



The table above presents the percentage proportions of teacher talk and student talk within the general classroom discourse. The proportions point to a difference between Turkish teachers and British teachers, in the sense that there is a more balanced distribution of teacher and student talk in Turkish FL classrooms compared to English FL classrooms. While the proportions of student talk ranges between 37-43% in Turkish FL classrooms, this variation is between 22-31% in the English FL classrooms. Among British teachers B6 provides more opportunities for student talk. However, it should be noted that the calculations presented in Chart 19 are based on general teacher-student interaction, excluding pair-work interaction among students. In order to check the proportion of pair-work in these lessons the reader may wish to refer to Chart 16.

4.4.8. The issue of form restriction on students' turns

In order to investigate whether students' turns are restricted linguistically, three variables were used for coding: 'restricted', 'limited' and 'unrestricted'. If the form or the content of the language that a student produced was restricted then the 'restricted' category was coded. Reading aloud by students was also coded under this category. The 'limited' category was coded when students had to use certain forms but had some linguistic freedom (e.g. if students were practising the conditional form: I would call a doctor). 'Unrestricted' was coded when there was no restriction on the form and the content of the language students produced. The results of the comparative analysis of restriction as occurred in each teacher's lessons are as follows:

Chart 20

Restrictions on students' language production

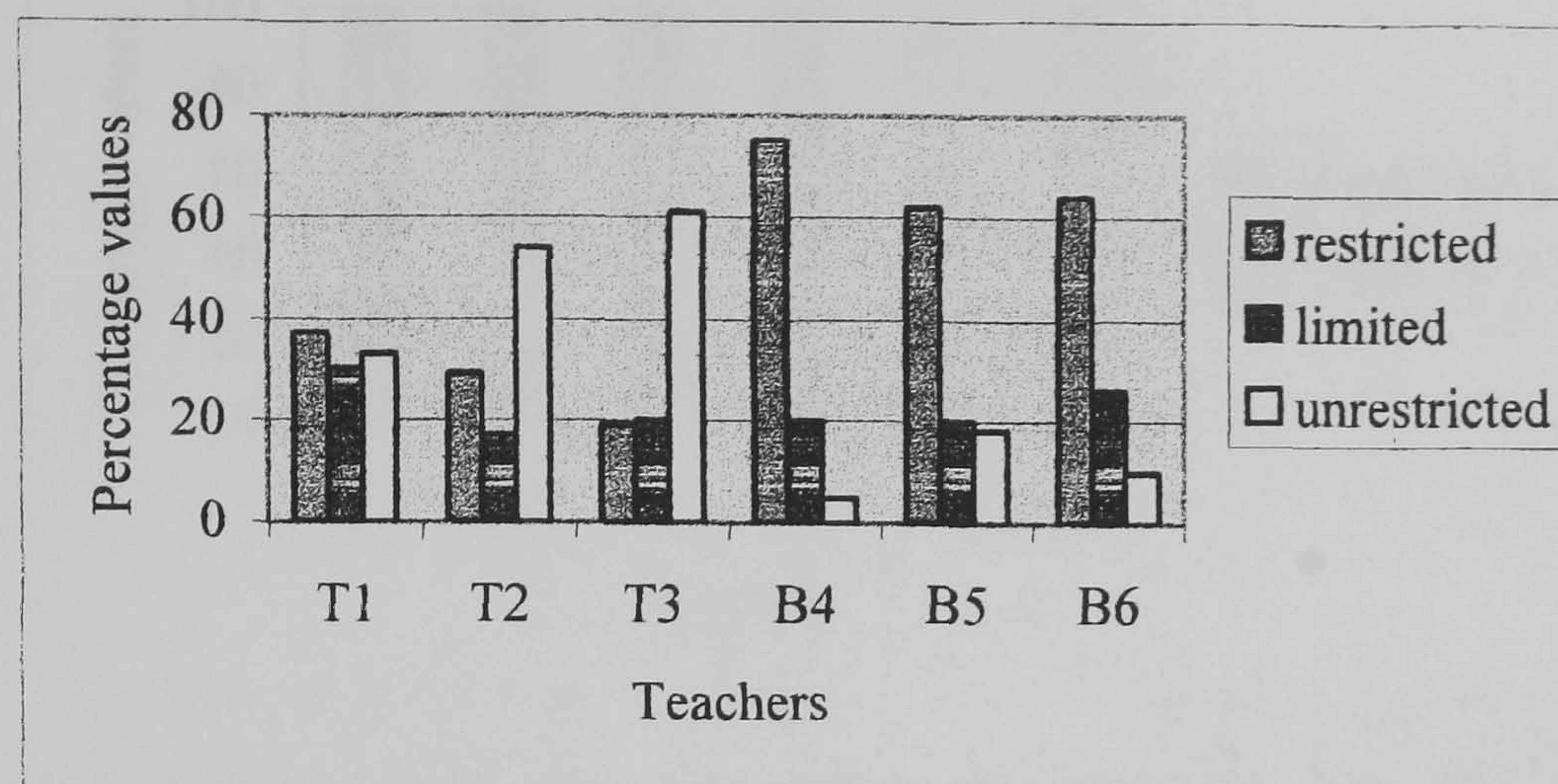
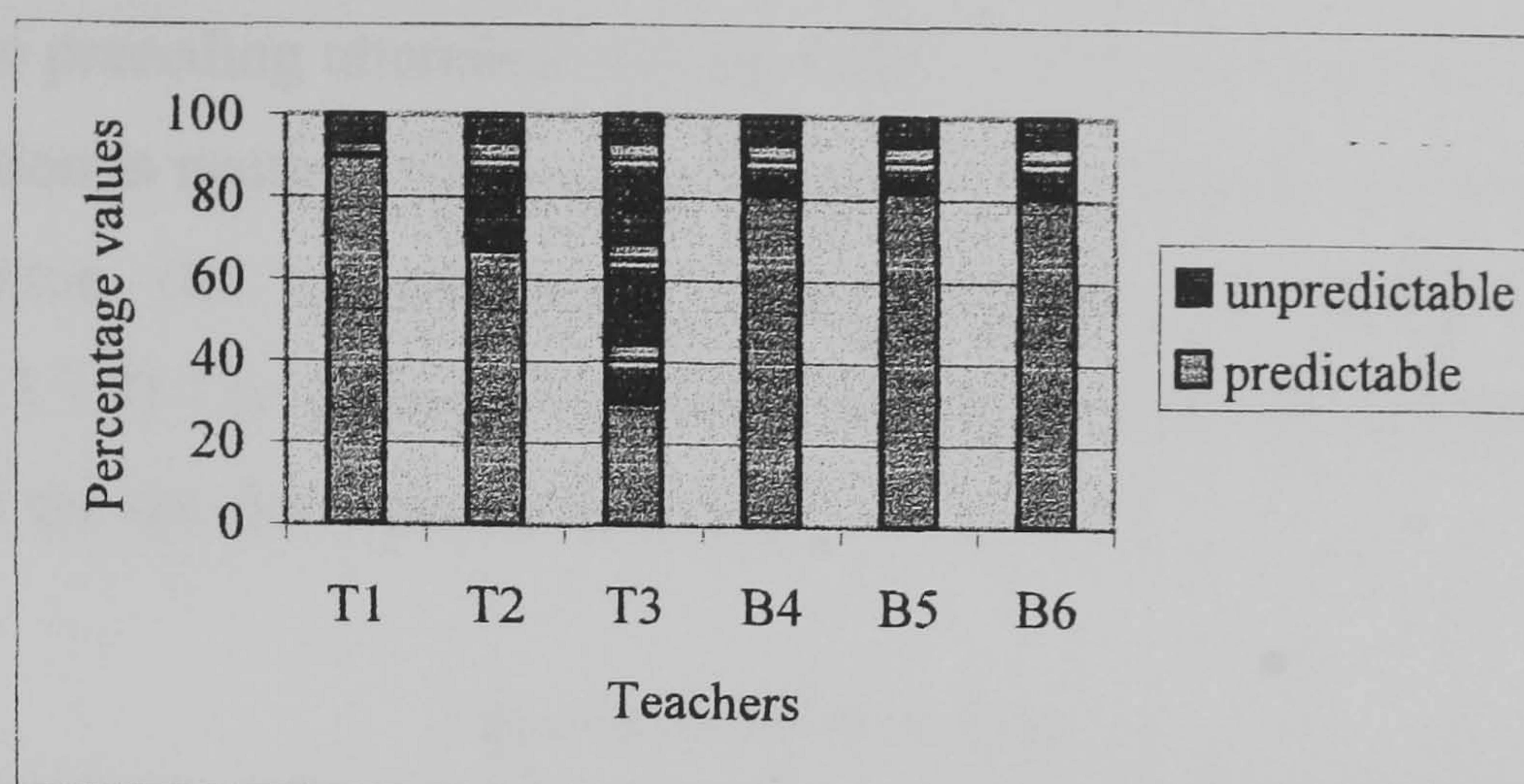


Chart 20 reveals a striking difference between Turkish FL lessons and English FL lessons regarding students' 'restricted' and 'unrestricted' language. The amount of restriction on how the students should produce the target language was notably less in Turkish FL lessons compared to English FL lessons. Because within each school the type of activities, tasks and topics were very similar, for the English context the considerably high proportions of form restriction on students' language production (compared to limited or unrestricted turns) may indicate that activity type could be the main determinant in this restriction.

4.4.9 The issue of the predictability of students' turns

Within the 'predictable information' category the information given often follows a request, and is already known to the questioner. If the given information is not easily predictable and there is a wide range of information that can be provided, then the 'unpredictable information' category is ticked. The unpredictability of students' turns point to the freedom of production they have.

Chart 21 the unpredictability element in students' language



Two main points emerge from the data shown in chart 21. The first point is, in all teachers' lessons (except T3) what the students were going to say was highly predictable (with an average of 80%). The second point is, if the teachers are compared within their own groups, British teachers' lessons show almost an identical pattern while there are notable differences among Turkish teachers' lessons. In addition to T3, students also produced slightly more unpredictable language in T2's lessons compared to other teachers.

4.4.10 Students' reactions to the form or content of the language that other speakers' produce

During the course of the lesson not only teachers but also students react to the form and content of the language that the preceding speaker produces. This speaker can be the teacher or another student. The various ways in which students react to other speakers have been coded under different categories. Students' reactions have been mainly grouped as 'form-related' reactions and 'message-related' reactions. Before moving on to presenting the analysis results for students' reactions to other speakers utterances, it is necessary to briefly present the categories according to which these reactions were coded. The 'correct' category refers to any linguistic correction of a previous utterance or indication of incorrectness. 'Repeat' refers to full or partial repetition of a previous utterance. When teachers correct the form of the language that a student produces, this correction move is sometimes followed by the 'repetition' of the correct form by the same student. Such moves were coded under the 'repeat' category. 'Paraphrase' indicates reformulation of a previous utterance. 'Comment' suggests a positive or negative response to a previous utterance. 'Expansion' refers to

addition of information related to the preceding utterance. ‘Clarification requests’ signal that the preceding utterance was not clearly understood and indicate a repetition or reformulation is needed. ‘Elaboration requests’ are requests for further information and explanation (for examples of these categories see Methodology Chapter subsection 3.3.3.3) The table below presents the occurrence of students’ form-related reactions and the details of these reactions:

Table 22 Students’ reaction to form

	Correct	Self-correct	Repeat	Paraphrase	Comment	Expand	Elaboration Request	Clarification Request
T1	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
T2	7	2	4	0	2	3	0	0
T3	0	0	21	0	0	0	0	0
B4	7	0	69	0	0	2	0	1
B5	0	0	6	2	1	1	0	3
B6	0	1	202	0	4	1	1	1

According to the results above, it may be said that overall students reacted to form more in the English school than students did in the Turkish school, but there were variations according to the teachers’ lessons. Repetition of a previous utterance was the most common student reaction to form in both contexts. Student repetition generally depended on verbal or non-verbal signals from the teacher indicating that the student(s) were expected to repeat the correct form. During the general classroom interaction students corrected other students’ errors related to language form, as presented in the ‘correct’ category. However, these correction moves were very rare and were not observed in any of the three teachers’ lessons.

Having presented students’ form-related reactions, the following table will show the details of students’ message related reactions:

Table 23 Students' reaction to message

	Correct	Self- correct	Repeat	Paraphrase	Comment	Expand	Elaboration Request	Clarification Request
T1	2	0	2	0	5	10	0	1
T2	13	1	1	3	21	81	1	2
T3	1	0	2	1	36	62	0	0
B4	1	2	4	0	4	1	1	2
B5	0	1	1	0	1	2	2	2
B6	0	0	0	1	9	1	4	4

In T2 and T3s' lessons, the number of meaning related student comments and expansion reactions were notably higher than other teachers'. In order to understand why such a big difference may have occurred, the results of table 14 were reviewed. According to that table, T2 made the highest number of message-related utterances and elaboration requests among participant teachers. This meant that, this teacher focused on students' messages and made follow-up comments or asked for further details relating to students' messages more than other teachers did. The following excerpt illustrates how this teacher facilitated interaction by commenting and adding to students' messages and how teacher talk maintained solidarity:

Transcript 22, T2, Year 9:

T: All right, first let's talk about Carlos. Yes, G?

S1: Carlos is a teacher and he enjoys it- his job because working with the kids so much.

T: He likes his job because he likes working with kids. What's he teaching there?

Ss: Maths and English.

T: But students are mostly?

S2: Working with computers.

T: Working with computers, so it is not difficult.

S3: It is er 8am 9pm.

T: So time is flexible for him. That is also nice. He can arrange his working time that is also good.

S4: Teacher, he said kids but there are not any kids. There are young men and young girls.

T: uhuh, university kids maybe (*smiles*). Yes, they look quite old here in the picture. Maybe those are the other teachers. All right, who is going to talk about Paul? Yes?

S5: He is working restaurant, in kitchen. He don't like his job –he doesn't like his job.

T: Why?

S5: because he washes the dishes.

T: And it is really very difficult.

S6: But he needs money.

T: Yes, because he needs money he has to go on working there. All right. What about Julia? Who is going to talk about Julia? O, you tell us about Julia.

S7: No.

The teacher who made the second highest number of message-related utterances and elaboration requests was T3. If these results are compared with the 'expansion' category of table 23, it can be seen that students in T2's lessons made the most message-related expansion utterances, followed by students' expansion utterances in T3's lessons. This might indicate a positive relationship between teachers' message focus and the amount of student participation and message-related language production.

4.5. Discussion of Findings on Teacher and Student Participation in Classroom Interaction

This study set out to investigate the current language teaching and learning in two contexts in relation to activities that are tackled in classrooms with special focus on spoken interaction that occurred between teachers and students. The comparison and evaluation of the two contexts in terms of activities have been made under section 4.3. The findings related to the analyses of verbal interaction between teachers and students have been presented by the subsections under section 4.4. This section deals with the evaluation and discussion of the findings in view of the Literature Review. As will be mentioned further, teachers' use of target language for a wide range of purposes is considered to be beneficial for learners' language development. Hence, the amount of target language use has been a variable for investigation in this study. The

results regarding teachers' L2 use are discussed in subsection 4.5.1. Teachers' initiation and feedback have been considered as two crucial factors that facilitate classroom spoken interaction. For this reason teacher questions and feedback occurrences have also been analysed. In view of the findings, subsections 4.5.3 and 4.5.4 present the discussions related to teacher questions and feedback. Finally, students' language production is discussed and connections are made between teachers' and students' participation patterns of spoken interaction. These connections highlight certain features of TT and lessons that may contribute to classroom interaction and consequently facilitate students' language development.

4.5.1 Teacher talk as target language input

Teachers' use of target language has a contributing effect on learners' acquisition of the language. The studies of various theorists and researchers have supported this comment (Krashen 1981, Allwright 1984, Neil 1996). Teachers' target language use in the classroom serves as a linguistic model through input provision, which is necessary for the learners' internalisation of the target language. Teachers have been encouraged to provide a rich target language environment not only through activities but also by carrying out instructions and disciplinary and management procedures through the use of target language. It has also been found that students preferred teacher talk in the target language to input provided by tape and video because of the possibility of interaction and feedback (Neil 1996). While teachers' target language use has been considered to promote language acquisition, the use of mother tongue has been considered to undermine this process by diverting attention from the object of pupils' learning. This study has found 98% of teachers' target language use in Turkish FL lessons and 53% of teachers' target language use in English FL lessons. Several factors have been observed to contribute to the high proportion of L1 use in English FL classrooms: teachers' use of translation, and preference for L1 for giving instructions, extended and complex explanations and for management purposes (the details of L1 use can be found in Table 10). One teacher's comment may offer an explanation for this preference:

'I think in your observations, it is sort of general but quite often you'll find that mostly in Key Stage 3 with young year groups you tend to keep in target language

much more of the time. So it is illogical because you would think you would start less and grow more but it is much easier because you tend to give simple instructions and you can demonstrate what you want them to do quite easily in target language. When you get to Key Stage 4 and you try and talk about grammar points and things like that it sometimes seems more effective and quicker to do it in English.'

As displayed by Tables 10 and 11, British teachers' instruction and functional explanation utterances were considerably higher than Turkish teachers', indicating that British teachers had a more explicit approach to informing students about the purposes of activities, general management issues and the assessment criteria of tests.

Teachers' views may differ on the issue of target language use. While on one end of a continuum some teachers might see using target language for managerial or organisational purposes as a time wasting intrusion, on the other end of the continuum other teachers may be strongly committed to it. Even though the proportion of L1 to L2 may not be the critical variable that determines second language acquisition, it is necessary for teachers to minimize the role of L1 in language classrooms in order to provide learners with as much linguistic input as possible and also to set an example to learners that it is possible to function socially within the classroom context through the medium of the target language. The results show that this target is successfully achieved in the Turkish FL teaching context. For the English context the results point out that despite the National Curriculum's advice that target language should be used as a normal means of communication in the classrooms, this has not yet been achieved within the classroom culture. In addition to this, for the English context it may be argued that the use of translation may limit the amount of target language input provided by teachers.

4.5.2 Teachers' discourse management

Everything that happens in a classroom happens through a process of interaction between classroom participants. In language classrooms, verbal communication both serves as the medium of learning, and as an object of pedagogical attention in second and foreign language classrooms. As such, verbal communication in language

classrooms is especially important. The process of interaction in these classrooms enables the maintenance of social relationships, and realises the activities that determine the form and the content of target language used.

It is reasonably safe to assume that teachers have control over classroom discourse, which makes it essentially different from natural discourse. Teachers control the turn-taking process by deciding who speaks to whom, when, and how. Current approaches to language teaching have underlined the importance of teachers relinquishing the amount of this control, and have advised teachers moving towards empowering students in playing a more active role in the construction of classroom discourse. Regarding the amount of teacher talk, Chaudron (1988) reports that studies consistently show that teachers typically do between one half and three quarters of the talking done in classrooms. This study found that in Turkish FL lessons, the proportion of teacher talk was 60%, and this proportion was 74% for the English FL lessons. Although the results indicate a more balanced distribution of talk between teachers and students in the Turkish context, overall the results show that teachers continue to dominate classroom discourse.

4.5.3 Teachers' questions

Teachers use questions as a primary means of engaging learners in classroom interaction. Teachers initiate discourse through questions (IRF sequence) and shape classroom discourse by maintaining control over who is going to speak and for how long. Various studies have confirmed the high numbers of questioning (Johnston 1990, Long and Sato 1983, in Ellis 1994). The results presented in Tables 10, 11 ('question' categories) and 14 (for teachers' elaboration and clarification requests) show that in both contexts of this study, teacher questions also constituted the main means of engaging learners in classroom interaction.

Perhaps more importantly than the amount of questions, the types of questions have been investigated in terms of the interaction opportunities they create. Different types of teacher questions have been identified such as display (pseudo) and referential (genuine) questions, and open and closed type questions. The definitions for the question types have been provided in the Literature review, subsection 2.3.3.3. Studies

that have examined the types of questions that teachers ask, have found that display/closed type questions are far more common than referential/open type questions (Barnes 1969, Long and Sato 1983, White and Lightbown 1984, Pica and Long 1986, White 1992). Researchers have also studied how different types of questions may contribute to learners' interlanguage development in terms of the kinds of output production they lead to. It has been found that students respond with significantly longer and more syntactically complex utterances to referential questions than to display questions (Brock 1986). In addition, the use of more deep comprehension questions and fewer superficial rote questions have been found to result in improved comprehension (Koivukari 1987).

This study has found that in the English FL teaching context the proportion of teachers' display questions was high when compared to referential questions. In relation to teachers' questions the content of British students' responses were highly predictable (Chart 21). This was consistent for all three teachers in the English context. This consistency might indicate that the way the activities generated interaction among discourse participants was the major cause of teachers' asking display questions and students' giving predictable answers. In other words, activity types may have been limiting the contributions of the participants. In the Turkish context, while the proportion of display questions were quite high for T1 (92% of the total number of questions), T2 and T3 balanced the amount of display and referential questions (59% display, 41% referential for both teachers).

When these results are looked at in relation to students' language production, Chart 21 shows that the content of students' turns was highly predictable in T1's lessons, whereas in T2 and T3's lessons the proportions of unpredictability of students' turns were considerably high. In the Turkish context, the course book units and activities were very similar. On the basis of this, it is possible that the high proportion of T1's display questions may be resulting from this teacher's lack of experience as discussed previously under subsection 4.4.3.

Overall, this study's findings regarding question types are consistent with the recurring theme in the literature that display/pseudo questions are more commonly used than referential/ genuine questions. Teachers' use of referential questions has

been found to provide opportunities whereby students get the chances to contribute to classroom discourse more freely. It is not intended to imply that questions that are not referential are purposeless and that there is a problem with teachers' methodology because the proportion of display questions is greater than referential questions. All questions elicit verbal responses from students. In evaluation of question types it is necessary to consider how different types of teacher questions set different tasks or place commitments on the students as the answerers. The extracts used in this paper show that if teachers allow interactional space for learners to express personal meanings through the use of referential questions and elaboration requests, then the organisation of interaction becomes less rigid and teachers can be displaced from their central position to a participant position. The use of referential questions allows for meaning-focused interaction, which involves the exchanging of ideas through the medium of the target language and provides students with the opportunities to produce unconstrained language. Based on transcriptions, the findings related to student participation and observer's field impressions it can also be said that the exchange of ideas contributes to establishing a positive social atmosphere in classrooms, which may motivate learners to continue their participation in classroom discourse. To sum up, although all questions elicit verbal responses from students, it may be necessary for teachers to increase the proportion of referential questions because of the reasons discussed above.

4.5.4 Teachers' feedback

Feedback has been defined as the final step of the IRF exchange sequence in classrooms. Although in social interactions participants do not have the automatic right to evaluate others' linguistic behaviour, in classrooms teachers have the right to evaluate or correct student behaviour. One of the ways that teachers provide feedback is through error correction. It has been found that teachers are more likely to correct errors when they are related to the pedagogical focus of the lesson or when they significantly constrain communication (Yoneyama 1981, Salica 1981, Chaudron 1986, Courchéne 1980). This study found that explicit correction of the form of student speech occurred in both contexts, but the main types of teacher feedback on the form of students' language production were repetition of the students' utterance and commenting on the correct or incorrect use of linguistic forms. As Comprehensible

Output Hypothesis suggests, learners need such feedback in order to modify their hypotheses about the linguistic forms they use. Schmidt and Frota (1986) also argue that in order to change an incorrect form, learners need to become consciously aware of the difference between the language they produce and what other speakers produce, before they can alter their output.

The amount of correction, repetition, comment and paraphrase moves in Table 14 show that in both contexts teachers provided substantial feedback on the form of students' language production, which may help learners notice the gap between correct linguistic forms and what they produce. Thus it can be said that in both contexts teachers provided the necessary first step in contributing to learners' language development by helping learners notice a gap. However, although error correction has been considered a useful way of aiding learners' interlanguage development, within a communicative approach to language teaching, teachers are advised to balance the amount of error correction, as over-emphasis of forms and constant correction might discourage learners from using the target language and participating in classroom discourse. Vigil and Oller (1976) argue that although correction of linguistic forms is necessary, teachers also need to provide positive affective feedback to ensure continued communication and encourage student efforts to interact in the target language. Positive affective feedback relates to teachers' emotional reactions in response to students' utterances and signals as to the interlocutor's desire or willingness to continue communicating. It has been suggested that teachers' confirmation and expansion upon learners' comments seem to foster learners' continued willingness to participate. Also teachers' use of meaning-related repetitions and recasts links individual student utterances into the classroom discourse, affirms students' contributions and makes these contributions available to the full class for their consideration and in this way ensures continued communication (Johnson 1995, Hall 2000, Duff 2000).

In the context of this study, it has been found that when teachers were providing some kind of feedback, Turkish FL teachers mainly focused on the message of students' utterances, while British FL teachers mainly provided feedback related to the form of students' language (see Table 14). When teachers provided message-related feedback they mainly used expansion, comment and repetition. The number of meaning-related

expansion moves of T2 and T3 were notably higher than other teachers. Turkish teachers also used paraphrasing, repetition of, and commenting on student utterances more than British FL teachers did. The findings of this study regarding teacher feedback corroborate the suggestions of Johnson (1995) and Hall (2000). As the transcript extracts of T2 and T3 illustrate, when teachers ask socially relevant questions and display an interest in students' expressed thoughts, these seem to foster students' willingness to participate and encourage students to improvise and be creative with the target language. This deduction is also supported by quantitative analyses of several features of student talk (length of turns, unpredictability, expansion and comment utterances).

Other types of feedback to student responses included teachers' clarification and expansion requests. A clarification request is a strategy of meaning negotiation since it helps learners to notice a gap between the expected output and output that contains errors. Consequently, negotiation of meaning results in comprehensible input, and is beneficial for learners based on the assumption that comprehensible input leads to acquisition (Long 1985). In both contexts, the occurrence of clarification requests was not high. This may point to the limited opportunities for meaning negotiation in teacher-fronted interaction. The observer's field notes also point out that when miscommunication arose in student-student interaction, students switched to L1 to repair discourse and helped each other. The limited opportunities for meaning negotiation may suggest that the main source of comprehensible input for students was non-interactive teacher input.

4.5.5 Students' language production

Several factors have been investigated to develop an understanding of students' participation in classroom interaction and TL use in the two contexts of this study. One of the important factors in students' target language production is the proportions of students' target language and mother tongue use in language classrooms. In order to work towards the real-life use of language in classrooms, it is important that students use the target language not only to participate in activities but also to achieve social goals.

This study has examined two language-teaching contexts and found students' high uses of target language in both contexts (average of 84% in the English school and 96% in the Turkish school). Students in the English school mainly preferred to use L1 for social purposes (such as requesting a book from the teacher, asking about homework) as found in the examination of field notes and lesson recordings. As discussed under 4.4.6, one of the main reasons for this could be the amount of teachers' L1 use and teachers' not insisting on students' use of the target language outside activity-based talk. Although British teachers have been found to use L2 for responding to such utterances, it was less common than the use of L1. This inconsistency may be a barrier to changing students' attitude and widening the use of L2 in English FL classrooms.

In Turkish FL classrooms the use of L1 was below 4%. Audio recordings and field notes show that Turkish students did not display a consistent language preference to achieve social functions, and they code switched when they did not know or remember a specific vocabulary item or when miscommunication arose as their communication attempts failed. Turkish teachers were observed to be very discouraging regarding students' use of L1 in classrooms, to the degree that they occasionally ignored correct student utterances when the mother tongue was used. In view of the findings, it may be appropriate to say that teachers' use of the target language for a range of purposes and insistence on students' TL use in non activity-based talk affects students' language choice. If British FL teachers think it is necessary or useful to widen the uses of TL within their classrooms, they may need to systematically insist on students' TL use from early year groups.

Other important factors in students' classroom participation are the proportions of teacher talk to student talk, and the length of student turns. In communicative classrooms, teachers are advised to step back and take on a monitoring role, hence, to provide wider opportunities for students to use the target language. This study has found that the proportions of student talk in general classroom interaction ranged between 37-43% in the Turkish school and 22-31% in the English school. This indicates that Turkish students were given more chances to participate in classroom discourse compared to British students. Nevertheless, students' contribution to general classroom interaction was less than 45% of the total amount of talk in both contexts.

In relation to student participation, it is important to consider the results of studies that have focused on learner participation and learning (Seliger 1977, Day 1984, Slimani 1987). Two different types of learners have been identified: learners who initiate and sustain conversations through taking turns and cause other people to use language with them, and learners who do not actively use language to get more exposure to the target language and speak only when called upon. Although there is no conclusive evidence to suggest a positive relationship between the frequencies with which learners participate in class and their achievement, the identification of two types of learners indicate that especially in large classrooms, teachers need to be aware that more willing students may tend to take more turns than others, thus limiting the production opportunities of students who prefer to speak when called upon.

One way of enabling student participation and production is through the use of pair and group work. Nevertheless, this study found that in both the Turkish and English contexts teachers did not use any group work, and pair-work use was limited (average of 4.6% in English school, and 2.8% in Turkish school of the total proportion of activities). This indicates that, for both contexts teachers' use of pair and group work, and relinquishing their domination of classroom talk may need to be encouraged. Nevertheless, when setting pair-work activities teachers need to be aware that the interaction between students may not fulfil teachers' pedagogic intentions as illustrated by the transcript excerpts (under transcript 19) that students may use L1 and their practical strategies to manage and complete a given task.

Teacher domination of classroom talk was also evident in the length of student turns. Research suggests that teachers' control of the patterns of communication influences the extent to which students use target language during the lessons. Johnson (1995) found that when teachers exercise a significant amount of control over the interaction pattern, students' language is limited to one or two-word responses. Yet when there is less teacher control, students' language tends to be in the form of phrases or sentences that express ideas not previously initiated by the teacher. Johnson argues that students need to be given more flexibility in terms of what they can produce using the target language. The average scores for students' turns (based on Chart 18)

Table 24

Percentage values for the length of student turns

Schools	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Total
English school	52 %	46 %	2 %	100 %
Turkish school	32 %	46 %	22 %	100 %

show that students in the English FL learning context got very limited opportunities to take extended turns, while the proportion of students' ultra-minimal speech was quite high. In terms of restrictions that teachers or activities impose on students' language production, this study has found that British students' language production was highly restricted in terms of the linguistic forms they were required to use, whereas Turkish teachers imposed notably less linguistic restriction on students' language (especially in T2 and T3's lessons). Similarly, the language that British students produced was highly predictable, while in the Turkish context students were given more opportunities to produce language with unpredictable content. Hence, it can be said that the findings of this study support the findings of Johnson (1995).

The purpose of an interaction clearly influences the type of interaction that takes place. In this regard, it is mainly teachers who decide how much control they will exercise; and depending on their decision the participation structure may vary from highly ritualised to highly spontaneous speech events. When tasks are teacher-controlled and are focused on the transmission and reception of information, the emphasis is on knowledge and accuracy. It has been suggested that teachers can actively involve learners if they can provide opportunities for students to contribute to what is being discussed and, acknowledge and build on what students say (Nystrand and Gamoran 1991, Johnson 1995).

In the English school it was mainly role-play activities that contributed to students' verbal ability to use the TL. As discussed previously under 4.3.2 and illustrated by transcript 9, the observed role-play activities mainly consisted of rehearsing particular structures and limited degrees of unpredictability. As such, although role-play activities can be considered useful for language practice and confidence building; the gradual levelling of role-plays did not reach the high end of the continuum where students could be given opportunities for creative use of language and developing their interactive skills. In addition to the way role-plays were structured, teachers

focused mainly on the linguistic form of students' language when they were providing feedback (Table 14). This could be another factor that restricted students' participation. In the Turkish school, it was mainly through talk generated by course book texts that students practiced their verbal use of TL. Especially when students expressed thoughts, they seemed more willing to continue their participation in classroom discourse. Turkish teachers achieved such participation to varying degrees.

As Swain (1985, p.248) argues, 'one learns to speak by speaking'. Speaking in the target language is important because through speaking in the target language, learners may check their hypotheses regarding the language, notice gaps between their interlanguage and target language forms, and develop their interlanguages towards a more coherent and appropriate target language use. Yet as Kumaravadivelu (1993) says, only when a communicative classroom promotes opportunities for learners to go beyond memorised patterns and monitored repetitions can this be achieved. In line with the Literature, the analyses of teacher and student talk suggest a relationship between students' classroom participation and certain features of teacher talk. When teachers balance the proportion of their minimal and extended speech, discourse participation seems more balanced between teachers and students. When teachers impose less or no restriction on students' language, allow unpredictability, facilitate students' expression of ideas by increasing the amount of referential questions they ask, and display a genuine interest in students' contributions by acknowledging or adding to what they have said or by asking for elaboration; students seem to take more sustained turns, make more expansion utterances, agree or disagree with or comment on what other speakers say. Moreover, the fostering of such discourse participation seems to create a motivating learning environment and a sense of community, which is in keeping with the conclusions of Duff (2000) and Hall (2000).

4.6 Summary of Findings

This study aimed to analyse and compare the spoken interaction between teachers and students in FL classrooms in England and Turkey. In relation to this aim, several research questions were formulated:

1. How are lessons organised in terms of the proportions of teacher-fronted activities to pair, group and individual work?
2. What is the language focus of the lessons? How do teachers focus on different aspects of the target language?
3. What are the proportions and features of teachers' target language and mother tongue use?
4. What are the specific features of teachers' questions and feedback?
5. What are the features of students' target language production?
6. How do certain features of teacher questions and feedback affect student participation and language production?

This chapter attempted to present and discuss the findings related to classroom participant organisation styles, the amount of TT and teachers' L1 and TL use, teachers' question and feedback styles, and how these affect student participation. In addition, findings regarding the quality and quantity of students' language were presented and discussed.

This study has found that in both contexts a significant proportion of language lessons was dedicated to teacher-fronted interaction, while the use of pair work was limited. There were not any group work activities in the observed 63 lessons. Regarding language focus, it has been found that in English FL classrooms 'function' and 'discourse' represented the main focus of the lessons. Although form focus was stressed, it was contextualised and less emphasised compared to the teaching of functional language use. In terms of speaking opportunities, it was found that British students mainly took part in role-plays to practise the target language. The 'discourse' focus essentially involved written discourse activities. In Turkish FL classrooms, 'discourse' and 'form' focused activities took a considerable proportion of the lessons. The data suggests that grammar drills were commonly used in classrooms. In the Turkish context the 'discourse' category mainly involved spoken discourse (discussions related to a text).

In terms of using target language and mother tongue in classrooms, it can be said that teachers' use of TL is considered to have a beneficial effect on learners' acquisition of

the language since it provides the necessary TL input. The findings of this study indicate 98% TL use in Turkish FL lessons and 53% in English FL lessons.

Another focus of attention has been the types of questions teachers ask and feedback they provide to students. It has been found that display questions were more commonly used than referential questions in both contexts. In terms of feedback provision, Turkish teachers were found to mainly focus on the message of students' utterances, while British teachers' feedback mainly focused on the form of students' language. It may not be wrong to say that this study has been able to suggest a positive relationship between teachers' message-focused questions, acknowledgements of and comments on students' contributions, and the quality and quantity of student participation in classroom discourse.

In relation to students' language production, it has been found that students in the English context got limited opportunities to take extended turns and their language production was highly restricted in terms of content and the linguistic form they were required to use. In the Turkish context it has been found that Turkish teachers imposed notably less restriction on students' language in terms of form and content. Regarding Turkish teachers, the data also indicated to possible differences between experienced and less experienced teachers in the way they facilitated classroom interaction through their questioning and feedback styles. In view of the questions listed above and the findings of this research, the researcher would like to argue that this study has been able to address the research questions satisfactorily.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

This research study was carried out to analyse and compare the spoken interaction between teachers and students in foreign language classrooms in England and Turkey. It aimed at comparing English and Turkish FL classrooms on a macro-level, in terms of the types of activities, how participants are organised, what skills students practice during each activity and what types of materials are used, and at focusing on the spoken interaction between teachers and students that occurred in lessons. Underpinned by the assumption that classroom interaction provides learners with the necessary language input and opportunity for language development, this study also aimed at finding out how language can be used to promote classroom communication by drawing on two different educational settings.

Based on the research purpose, classroom data was collected through systematic observation, audio-recording of lessons, detailed field notes and teacher interviews. Data collection and analysis processes involved the use of a revised model of Allen et al's (1984) COLT scheme. For the macro-level analysis of lessons, classroom activity was established as the main unit of analysis. The interaction analysis pursued in this study focused on participants' language at the level of utterances and turns. For the identification of utterances and turns, Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) definition has been followed.

This research study involved the investigation of English and Turkish FL teaching contexts at secondary school level in mainstream education. The English school was a community college, with the majority of its students being fourth generation British Asians. The Ofsted inspection report, the GCSE results of the school and the specific results of the Modern Languages subject area indicated that the school provided a good standard of education in terms of the national standards. The Turkish school was a state school (anadolu lisesi) that was perceived to provide a good level of education based on the number of students offered places at universities. Students from different socio-economic backgrounds had access to the school, as it was free. In both schools, a total number of 63 lessons of 11 teachers were observed. 27 lessons (each 60

minutes) of French as a Foreign Language (FFL) and German as a Foreign Language (GFL) in the English secondary school, and 36 lessons (each 40 minutes) of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the Turkish secondary school were observed. The observed year groups ranged between 7-10. In addition to the systematic observation and quantitative analysis of 63 lessons, 21 lessons of 6 teachers were subjected to further analysis of spoken interaction. Of the participating 11 teachers, 5 teachers were interviewed. Although both educational contexts followed the communicative approach, the recognisable differences between the settings such as the size of classes, the seating plan, differentiation between ability levels, activities and materials used, indicated the different characteristics of these classrooms and suggested that these variations might result in different types of target language use by teachers and students. Based on that recognition, the investigation of the two settings in detail provided information regarding the differences between the two settings and suggested ways in which teachers may facilitate learners' spoken language use.

5.1 MAIN FINDINGS

In language classrooms, target language has both social and pedagogical functions as teachers and students communicate information and maintain verbal interaction through the use of spoken language. Since the early 1980s, communicative ability has been a common goal of foreign language learning. The language teaching view that is associated with the emphasis on communicative ability has been known as the Communicative Approach. Certain characteristics identified within this approach are the use of real-life situations, teaching of the use of contextually appropriate language, communicative functions (e.g. apologising, inviting) and particular grammatical forms that may be used to express these functions, actively involving students to play a major role in the classroom, and providing the learners with the skills to go beyond memorised patterns and to engage in creative use of the language. In this study, teachers in both educational settings said they followed the communicative approach. In view of the characteristics of the communicative approach, certain features of English and Turkish language classrooms and interactions between teachers and students were investigated, and evaluated.

5.1.1 Classroom organisation and amount of teacher talk

Earlier studies that compared student-student interaction with teacher-fronted interaction have found that group work provides better opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, and perform a wider range of acts such as comprehension checks, confirmation requests, and clarification requests (Pica and Doughty 1985a, Rulon and McCreary 1986). These findings and the emphasis of the communicative approach on active involvement of learners suggest that teachers need to integrate the use of pair and group work in classrooms while they decrease the proportion of teacher-fronted activities. Nevertheless, Chaudron (1988) has reported that research on the amount of teacher talk showed that teachers tend to dominate classroom discourse. In this study, the analysis of classroom data indicates that the use of pair work and group work does not constitute a notable part of language lessons in both the English and the Turkish context (4.6% and 2.8% respectively), while -especially in the Turkish context- teacher-fronted interaction is the main type of participant organisation. Also, in line with the earlier findings, teacher talk seems to continue to dominate classroom discourse with 60% teacher talk in Turkish FL lessons and 74% teacher talk found in English FL lessons.

5.1.2 Teacher talk as input provision

Input is the target language data that learners are exposed to. The provision of input is considered a necessary condition for second language acquisition. Krashen (1982) proposed the Input Hypothesis, claiming that learners progress along the natural order by being exposed to input that contains structures slightly beyond their current level of competence ($i+1$). This type of input has been referred to as comprehensible input. Non-interactive input can be made comprehensible through simplification and with the help of contextual and extra linguistic clues. Long (1985) argued that interactive input is more important in terms of providing comprehensible input compared to non-interactive input and underlined the importance of the interactional modifications that occur in negotiating meaning when a communication problem arises. Other researchers also emphasised that learners should be provided with as much comprehensible input as possible (Netten and Planchot-Ferguson 1995).

Studies that investigated the relation between negotiation of meaning and comprehension found that interactionally-modified input, where the learners were given the opportunity to seek clarification resulted in the highest levels of comprehension (Pica, Young and Doughty 1986, Li 1989, Loschky 1989, Tanaka 1991, Yamazaki 1991). In addition to the role of input, Swain (1985) claimed that learner output also contributes to interlanguage development. According to Swain (1985) learners' language production enables them to try out rules or items in production and then use the feedback they receive from their interlocutors to confirm or reject their hypotheses about the target language. When learners experience a communicative failure, they may try alternative ways of making their output more precise, coherent, and appropriate, and this may encourage them to move from semantic (top-down) to syntactic (bottom-up) processing.

These findings indicate that language learning should be an interactive process between teachers and learners. According to this study, the limited opportunities for group and pair work suggest that the main source of comprehensible input is teachers' target language use. Teachers' language has long been considered an important source of input, and therefore teachers have been encouraged to provide a rich target language environment by using language for a variety of purposes in classrooms. This study found that teachers in the Turkish school strongly believe that the use of L1 in their classrooms should be minimal, which is reflected in the data regarding their high uses of target language (98%). Whereas, although teachers in the English school seem to acknowledge the relevancy of extending the use of target language beyond activities, they seem inconsistent in emphasising this in their lessons and the use of translation contributes to a high proportion of L1 use found in their lessons (47%).

5.1.3 Teacher questions and feedback

In terms of the types of questions, this study differentiated between teachers' display (pseudo) and referential (genuine) questions, and investigated the proportions of these questions used in teachers' initiations. It was found that in the English school, a considerable proportion of teacher questions was display type. In the Turkish school, among the three teachers two teachers (T2, T3) were found to balance the number of

display and referential questions they ask. The other teacher (T1) was less experienced compared to the other Turkish teachers and the total number of questions she asked was higher than the other Turkish teachers'. She stated that she found facilitating student contributions to classroom discourse difficult and she added that either she did not know how to encourage students' participation or the students were reluctant in all teachers' lessons. The results regarding teacher questions and students' language production revealed that British students' language production was highly restricted in terms of the linguistic forms they are required to use, and 53% of their turns were ultra-minimal. The analysis revealed that British FL learners did not get opportunities for extended language production. In the Turkish school, data analysis indicated that especially in T2 and T3's lessons a considerable proportion of students' turns were unrestricted and students were given the opportunities to engage in extended language production. These results indicate a relation between display / referential questions and the quantity and quality of students' language production.

In terms of teachers' feedback, this study found that teachers provide explicit correction of the form of students' language. It is discussed that this is a necessary step in helping learners to notice the gap between the target language norm and the language students are producing. In addition, certain features of two teachers' (T2, T3) feedback indicated a possible link between teacher feedback and the quality and quantity of students' language production. These features are:

- teachers' message related repetitions: signals understanding or acceptance of message
- teachers' paraphrasing of what the students have said: acknowledges student's contribution, offers a linguistically 'better' way of structuring the message without drawing explicit attention to form, captures and opens up the student's message for further comments from other students
- teachers' own message-related comments and expansions: displaces the teacher from a higher position to an equal participant in discourse, contributes to forming a social atmosphere within the classroom where ideas and experiences are shared
- teachers' message-related elaboration requests: displays an interest into what a student has said by asking for further information or explanation, gives the

student the chance to take another turn and engage in meaningful conversation through the medium of the target language.

The above described features of teacher feedback seem to encourage students to comment on and expand on own or others' messages, to take more extended turns, and use language in a creative way.

5.1.4 Speaking opportunities in language classrooms

It is important for a language classroom to be an encouraging setting for students' target language production. This study investigated the amount of student target language production and whether the participating students used TL for a wide range of purposes. Although the results show high uses of TL in both contexts, students in the English school displayed a preference for L1 to achieve social goals while Turkish students tend to code-switch when faced with difficulty in expressing their messages. In pair work, the observations indicate that students generally switch to L1 when they need to negotiate meaning. When the proportions of teacher talk and student talk in general classroom interaction are compared, the results show that in the English school student talk ranges between 22-31%, and this variation is 37-43% in the Turkish school. These values indicate that although in Turkish FL classrooms students are given more opportunities for TL production compared to English classrooms, overall student contributions seem to be limited. The analysis of student-student interaction, although limited, combined with field observations suggests that teachers' pedagogical intentions may not be fulfilled, as students may develop their practical strategies and use L1 to complete a given task, and certain students may dominate talk among pairs. In terms of the length of students' turns, this study found that in the English school 52% of student turns are ultra-minimal and only 2% of student turns are extended, and their turns are highly predictable and restricted in terms of the linguistic forms they are required to use. In the Turkish school, the proportions of ultra-minimal turns are 32% and sustained turns are 22%, while, in terms of linguistic forms and unpredictable content teachers impose notably less restriction on students' language compared to the English school.

In terms of speaking opportunities, in the English school students mainly practice language through role-plays. These role-plays are highly structured in the sense that

teachers generally determine what the students are expected to say. The main focus is on the teaching of transactional language where students learn set phrases and essential vocabulary to function in a given context. The observation and data analysis suggested that although students learn essential vocabulary and set phrases they may need in real life, the activities they engage in do not challenge students to make a further step and encourage the creative use of target language. Student output is minimal, and restricted in terms of content and linguistic form. It seems that these lessons involve language learning but very limited ‘communication’ through the target language, if communication is regarded as the meaningful exchange of ideas and information.

In the Turkish school, lessons mainly comprised of language focused activities and discussion activities based on texts in course books. In terms of speaking opportunities, teachers’ use of display questions served to reconstruct text discourse, but also the balanced proportion of the use of referential questions and meaning related comments by two participating teachers (T2, T3) seemed to facilitate opportunities for students to engage in discussions, and the interest in contributing to classroom discourse. In that sense, it seemed that the use of target language was a tool for conversation –for the sharing of ideas and experiences, not an explicit aim in itself.

5.2. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING AND TEACHER TRAINING

Recent approaches to language teaching are underpinned by the communicative approach. This study aimed to investigate interactional features of language classrooms and how teachers facilitate students’ verbal use of the target language in two different educational settings. The findings indicate that although students are given more opportunities in the Turkish school compared to the English school, teacher talk seems to continue to dominate classroom talk. One of the contributing factors to this is the limited use of pair or group work, which are essentially considered beneficial in classrooms for the purpose of maximising students’ language production. In the English context, given the analysis results showing that students’ output is minimal and restricted in terms of content and linguistic form, it was argued that students were mainly taught transactional and contextualised language they may

need in real life, however, they were not involved in genuine exchange of information and ideas through the target language. The following quotes from Neil's (1996) study of pupil perceptions in grammar schools in Belfast highlight the possible limitations of such an approach from learners' perspectives:

'I would be able to do the basic things such as directions, but I would not be able to have an extended conversation'

'When in Germany I was in situations not covered in the textbooks, and I was totally lost'

"For example in phrases like 'Haben sie noch Plätze frei?', I couldn't use another phrase like it because I don't know what 'noch' means"

(p.11)

If the aim of communicative teaching is to empower learners and equip them with the skills to become independent users of the language, these quotes indicate that there may be certain problems with the current approach in UK, as the quotes and the results of this study suggest students may be dependent on contextualised language and they may find it difficult to transfer knowledge to different situations.

The researcher's observations, data analysis, and study of the National Curriculum for the UK and schemes of work for French and German indicate that the participating British teachers in this study seems to be successful in achieving a consistently good standard in terms of following the schemes of work and applying the requirements of the language curriculum in their teaching. The researcher would like to argue that the findings related to the limited creative use of the target language might be a result of language planning and policies. The Government states the need for transforming the country's capability in languages to ensure economic success in international trade, access to global citizenship and for mutual understanding among cultures. It is also pointed out that young people from the UK are disadvantaged in the recruitment market, as companies increasingly need personnel with language skills and their major option is to recruit native speakers of other languages. Nevertheless, there seems to be a mismatch between these targets and the targets set in classrooms for learning. Currently from year 7 to 11 students are mainly taught basic language skills

and it seems questionable that at the end of these five years, they would reach a satisfactory level that would equip them with the necessary language competence to be able to function as targeted by the government's global agenda. Therefore, if the government is sincere about its targets, it may need to raise awareness of students and parents through the medium of schools and teachers, and may consider revising the curriculum content, for example, by examining the rich source of EFL teaching materials of well-established publishing companies.

This study found that students in both contexts engage in speaking in the target language mostly through teacher-student interaction. It is therefore important to identify which features of teacher talk foster student language use and active involvement in classroom discourse. It has previously been discussed that if teachers ask questions that encourage students expressing their opinions, ideas or experiences, and when they provide feedback they acknowledge students' contributions as conversation participants would normally do, and build on what has been said by adding their own comments it seems that students are more interested in participating in classroom discourse. This motivation to participate seems to encourage students to try using the language in a creative way and also gives opportunities for making mistakes so that students are forced to try different strategies to convey their message. In this study, among the teachers whose lessons were analysed for the features of interaction, in two teachers' lessons (T2, T3) students were found to participate more, take extended turns, and make more meaning related comments and expansion moves.

The features of these teachers' talk indicate that the way these teachers share their opinions, bring personal experiences into the classroom and the way they acknowledge students' contributions by (dis)agreeing or challenging students, may make speaking in the target language more meaningful for students. The less experienced teacher's concerns (T1) about facilitating students' participation, and the comments she made during an informal discussion about not knowing what happens in other teachers' lessons indicate that in the Turkish context what may be needed is more departmental support and more openness towards classroom teaching and learning so that teachers may feel confident in discussing their weak and strong points and observe each others' lessons to be better informed about what works best in the educational setting they share.

From a pedagogical standpoint, a further implication of this study for teachers and teacher trainers is that it provides suggestions regarding features of teachers' speech that effectively involves students in classroom discourse.

5.3 FINAL REMARKS

As discussed in the Methodology chapter, systematic observation, audio recordings of lessons, field notes and teacher interviews were the main means of data collection in this study. Nevertheless, the researcher would like to comment that if data regarding students' views on language learning and participating in the classroom were gathered, then this study would be able to provide a more in depth understanding of the studied contexts. Such data would have enabled the researcher to make comparisons between learners' perceptions in this study and in Neil's study as presented in subsection 5.2. This may be an area of further research, to understand how students feel about their learning, communicate in the classroom context and in real-life, what their expectations are and whether they feel these expectations are being met.

For the Turkish context, this research highlighted that newly qualified teachers might need more support from their experienced colleagues. Further investigation into identifying the issues related to the problems newly qualified teachers might be experiencing, peer or external training support they might need and the experienced teachers' perspectives on providing support is worthwhile. The results of such an investigation may suggest the ways in which a certain quality of teaching can be achieved consistently.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alexander, R., Broadfoot, P. and Phillips, D. (1999), *Learning from Comparing: new directions in comparative educational research – contexts, classrooms and outcomes*, Vol.1, Oxford: Symposium Books.
- Allen, P., Fröhlich, M. and Spada, N. (1984), 'The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching: An Observation Scheme', in Hanscombe, J. and Taylor, B.P. (eds.), *The Question of Control*, Washington DC, Tesol, pp.231-252.
- Allen, P., Spada, N. and Fröhlich, M. (1985), 'Differences in the Communicative Orientation of L2 Classrooms', *TESOL Quartely*, 19/1, pp.27-57.
- Allen, P., Swain, M., Harley, B. and Cummins J. (1990), 'Aspects of Classroom Treatment: toward a more comprehensive view of second language education', in Allen, P., Swain, M., Harley, B. and Cummins, J. (eds.) (1990), *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 57-81.
- Allen, P. (1983), 'A Three-level Curriculum Model for Second Language Education', *Canadian Modern Language Review*, vol. 40, pp. 23-43.
- Allwright, R. L. (1984) 'The Importance of Interaction in Classroom Language Learning', *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 5/2, pp. 156-171.
- Anderson, J. R. (1976), *Language, Memory and Thought*, Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Anderson, J. R. (1983), *The Architecture of Cognition*, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Anderson, L.W. and Burns, R.B. (1989), *Research in Classrooms: the study of teachers, teaching and instruction*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Anton, M. (1999), 'The Discourse of a Learner-Centered Classroom: sociocultural perspectives on teacher-learner interaction in the second-language classroom', *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. 83, pp.303-318.
- Barnes, D. (1969) 'Language in the Secondary Classroom', in Barnes, D., Britton, J., and Torbe, M. (eds.) (1969), *Language, the Learner and the School*, Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Barnes, S., Gutfreund, M., Satterly, S. and Wells, G. (1983), 'Characteristics of Adult Speech which Predict Children's Language Development', *Journal of Child Language*, vol. 10/1, pp. 65-84.
- Bassey, M. (1999), *Case Study Research in Educational Settings*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

- Beretta, A. and Davies, A. (1985), 'Evaluation of the Bangalore Project', *ELT Journal*, vol. 39, pp. 121-127.
- Bigge, M.L. (1982), *Learning Theories for Teachers*, London: Harper and Row.
- Blau, E. K. (1982), 'The Effect of Syntax on Readability for ESL Students in Puerto Rico', *TESOL Quarterly*, 16, pp. 517-527.
- Brock, C. (1986), 'The Effects of Referential Questions on ESL Classroom Discourse', *TESOL Quarterly*, no: 20, pp.47-59.
- Brooks, N. (1960), *Language and Language Learning*, New York: Harcourt Brace and World.
- Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980), 'Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing', *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 1/1, pp.1-47.
- Cervantes, R. (1983), Say It Again Sam: the effect of exact repetition on listening comprehension, Department of ESL, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu. (ms.)
- Chaudron, C. and Richards, J. C. (1986), 'The Effect of Discourse Markers on the Comprehension of Lectures', *Applied Linguistics*, 7, pp. 113-127.
- Chaudron, C. (1986), 'Teachers' Priorities in Correcting Learners' Errors in French Immersion Classes', in Day, R.R. (ed.) (1986) *Taking to Learn: conversation in second language acquisition*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, pp.64-84.
- Chaudron, C. (1988), *Second Language Classrooms: research on teaching and learning*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1965), *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, London: M.I.T. Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2000), *Research Methods in Education*, 5th edition, London: Routledge Falmer.
- Cook, V. (1993), *Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition*, London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.
- Courchène, R. (1980), 'The Error Analysis Hypothesis, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and the Correction of Error in the Second Language Classroom', *TESL Talk*, 11/2, pp. 3-13, 11/3, pp. 10-29.
- Cross, T. (1978), 'Mothers' Speech and Its Association with Rate of Linguistic Development in Young Children', in Waterson, N. and Snow, C. (eds.) (1978) *The Development of Communication*, New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Cullen, R. (2002), 'Supportive Teacher Talk: the importance of the F-move', *ELT Journal*, vol. 56/2, pp. 117-127.

- Day, R. R. (1984), 'Student Participation in the ESL Classroom or Some Imperfections in Practice', *Language Learning*, vol. 34/3, pp. 69-102.
- Delamont, S. and Hamilton, D. (1976), 'Classroom Research: A Critique and a New Approach' in Stubbs, M. and Delamont, S. (eds.) (1976), *Explorations in Classroom Observation*, London: J. Wiley and Sons.
- DeKeyser, R.M. (1998), 'Beyond Focus on Form: cognitive perspectives on learning and practising second language grammar', in Doughty, C. and Williams, J. (eds.) (1998), *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 42-64.
- Department for Education and Skills (2002), National Languages Strategy for England Languages for All: languages for life, (ONELINE www.dfes.gov.uk/languagesstrategy/pdf/DfESLanguagesStrategy.pdf)
- Dickson, P. (1996), *Using the Target Language: a view from the classroom*, Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research.
- Doğançay-Aktuna, S. (1998), 'The Spread of English in Turkey and Its Current Sociolinguistic Profile', *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, vol. 19/1, pp. 24-39.
- Doughty, C. and Pica T. (1986), 'Information-Gap Tasks: do they facilitate second language acquisition?', *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 20/2, pp. 305-326.
- Doughty, C. and Varela, E. (1998), 'Communicative Focus of Form', in Doughty, C. and Williams, J. (eds.) (1998), *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.114-138.
- Doughty, C. and Williams, J. (1998) 'Pedagogical Choices in Focus on Form', in Doughty, C. and Williams, J. (eds.) (1998), *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.197-261.
- Duff, P. (1986), 'Another Look at Interlanguage Talk: taking task to task', in Day R.R. (1986), *Talking to Learn: conversation in second language acquisition*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, pp.147-181.
- Duff, P. (2000), 'Repetition in foreign language classroom interaction', in Hall, J.K. and Verplaetse, L.S. (eds.) (2000), *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, pp.109-138.
- Dulay, H. and Burt, M. (1973), 'Should We Teach Children Syntax?', *Language Learning Journal*, vol: 23, pp. 245-258.

- Early, M. (1985), 'Input and Interaction in Content Classrooms: foreigner talk and teacher talk in classroom discourse', *Unpublished PhD. Dissertation*, University of California at Los Angeles.
- Ellis, R. and Wells, G. (1980), 'Enabling Factors in Adult-Child Discourse', *First Language*, vol. 1, pp. 46-82.
- Ellis, R. and Rathbone, M. (1987), '*The Acquisition of German in a Classroom Context. Mimeograph*', London: Ealing College of Higher Education.
- Ellis, R., Tanaka, Y. and Yamazaki, A. (1994), 'Classroom Interaction, Comprehension, and the Acquisition of L2 Word Meanings'. *Language Learning*, vol. 44, pp. 449-491.
- Ellis, R. (1982), 'The Origins of Interlanguage', *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 3, pp. 207-223.
- Ellis, R. (1984), *Classroom Second Language Development: a study of classroom interaction and language acquisition*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Ellis, R. (1985), 'Teacher-Pupil Interaction in Second Language Development', in Gass S. and Madden C. (eds.) (1985), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, pp.69-85.
- Ellis, R. (1990), *Instructed Second Language Acquisition: Learning in the classroom*, Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Ellis, R. (1994), *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1997), *SLA Research and Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Færch, C. and Kasper G. (1986), 'Cognitive Dimensions of Language Transfer', in Kellerman, E. and Sharwood Smith, M. (1986), *Crosslinguistic Influence in Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Freed, B. (1980), 'Talking to Foreigners vs. Talking to Children: similarities and differences', in Scarcella R. and Krashen S. (eds) (1980), *Research in Second Language Acquisition*, Rowley Mass: Newbury House.
- Gaies, S. J. (1977), 'A Comparison of the Classroom Language of ESL Teachers and Their Speech Among Peers: an exploratory syntactic analysis', *Unpublished PhD. Dissertation*, Indiana University, Bloomington.
- Garton, S. (2002), 'Learner Initiative in the Language Classroom', *ELT Journal*, vol. 56/1, pp. 47-56.
- Gass, S. and Varonis, E. (1985), 'Non-native/Non-native Conversations: a model for negotiation of meaning', *Applied Linguistics*, vol.6, pp. 71-90.

- Gil, G. (2002), 'Two Complementary Modes of Foreign Language Classroom Interaction', *ELT Journal*, vol. 56/3, pp.273-279.
- Glew, P. (1998), 'Verbal Interaction and English Second Language Acquisition in Classroom Contexts', *Issues in Educational Research*, vol. 8/2, pp. 83-94.
- Hall, J. K. and Verplaetse, L. S. (2000), *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.
- Hall, J. K. (2000), 'Classroom Interaction and Additional Language Learning: Implications for teaching and research'. In Hall, J. K. and Verplaetse, L. S. (eds.) (2000), *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc., pp.287-298.
- Hammersley, M. (1993), *Controversies in Classroom Research*, 2nd edition, Bristol: Open University Press.
- Hymes, D.H. (1979), 'On Communicative Competence', in C.J. Brumfit and K. Johnson (eds.) (1979), *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Johnson, P. (1981), 'Effects on Reading Comprehension of Language Complexity and Cultural Background of a Text', *TESOL Quarterly*, 15, pp.169-181.
- Johnson, D. (1983), 'Natural Language Learning by Design: a classroom experiment in social interaction and second language acquisition', *TESOL Quarterly*, no. 17, pp. 55-68.
- Johnston, S. (1990), 'Teacher Questions in the Academic Language-content Classroom', *Unpublished Paper*, Tokyo: Temple University Japan.
- Johnson, K.E. (1995), *Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kaneko, T. (1991), 'The Role of the L1 in Second Language Classrooms', *Unpublished EdD thesis*, Tokyo: Temple University.
- Kiziltepe, Z. (2000), 'Attitudes and Motivation of Turkish ELT Students Towards Second Language Learning', *ITL Review of Applied Linguistics*, 129-130, pp.141-168.
- Koivukari, A. (1987), 'Question Level and Cognitive Processing: psycholinguistic dimensions of questions and answers', *Applied Psycholinguistics*, vol. 8, pp. 101-120.
- Kramsch, C. (1985), 'Classroom Interaction and Discourse Options', *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 7, pp. 169-183.

- Krashen, S., Jones C., Zelinski S. and Usprich C. (1978), 'How Important is Instruction', *ELT Journal*, vol. 32, pp. 257-261.
- Krashen, S. (1980), 'The Theoretical and Practical Relevance of Simple Codes in Second Language Acquisition', in Scarcella, R. and Krashen S. (eds.) (1980), *Research in Second Language Acquisition*, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- Krashen, S. (1981), *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982), *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1985), *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*, London: Longman.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1993), 'Maximizing Learning Potential in the Communicative Classroom', *ELT Journal*, vol. 47/1, pp. 12-21.
- Kvale, S. (1996), *Interviews*, London: Sage Publications.
- Lado, R. (1964), *Language Teaching: a scientific approach*, New York: McGraw Hill.
- LeCompte, M. and Preissle, J. (1993), '*Ethnography and Qualitative Design in Educational Research*', London: Academic Press Ltd.
- Li, X. (1989), 'Effects of Contextual Cues on Inferring and Remembering Meanings of New Words', *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 10, pp. 402-413.
- Lightbown, P. M. (1983), 'Exploring Relationships Between Developmental and Instructional Sequences in L2 Acquisition', in Seliger H.W. and Long M.H. (eds.) (1983), *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Languages*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House, pp. 217-43.
- Lightbown, P. M. and Spada, N. (1993), *How Languages are Learned*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba E.G. (2000), 'The Only Generalisation is: there is no generalisation', in Gomm, R., Hammersley, M. and Foster P. (eds.) (2000), *Case Study Method*, London: Sage Publications, pp.27-44.
- Littlewood, W. (1981), *Communicative Language Teaching: an introduction*, London: Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M., Adams, L., McLean, M and Castanos, F. (1976), 'Doing Things with Words: verbal interaction in lockstep and small group classroom situations', in Fanselow, J. F. and Crymes, R. (eds.) *On TESOL '76*, Washington D.C.: TESOL, pp.137-153.

- Long, M.H. and Sato, C.J. (1983), 'Classroom foreigner talk discourse: forms and functions of teachers' questions', in Seliger, H.W. and Long, M.H. (eds.), *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Languages*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Long, M. and Crookes, G. (1987), 'Intervention Points in Second Language Classroom Processes', in Das B. (ed.), *Patterns of Classroom Interaction*, Singapore: SEOMEIO Regional Language Centre, pp. 177-203.
- Long, M. (1980), *Input, Interaction and Second Language Acquisition*, Unpublished PhD Thesis, Los Angeles: University of California.
- Long, M. (1983a), 'Native Speaker/non-native Speaker Conversation and the Negotiation of Comprehensible Input', *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 4, pp. 126-141.
- Long, M. (1983b), 'Native Speaker/non-native Speaker Conversation in the Second Language Classroom', in Clarke M. and Handscombe J. (eds.) (1983), *On TESOL 1982*, Washington D.C.:TESOL.
- Long, M. (1985), 'Input and Second Language Acquisition Theory', in Gass, S.M. and Madden C.G. (eds.) *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, London: Newbury House Publishers, pp.377-393.
- Long, M.H. (1991), Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology, in de Bot K., Coste D., Ginsberg, R. and Kramsch C. (eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspectives*, Amsterdam: Benjamins, pp.39-52).
- Loschky, L. (1989), *The Effects of Negotiated Interaction and Premodified Input on Second Language Comprehension and Retention*, Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Hawaii.
- Maley, A. (1986), 'A Rose is a Rose, or is it?: can communicative competence be taught?', in Brumfit, C. (ed.) (1986), *The Practice of Communicative Teaching*, ELT Documents 124, Oxford: Pergamon Press, pp. 87-96.
- McIntyre, D. and MacLeod, G. (1986), 'The Characteristics and Uses of Systematic Classroom Observation', in Hammersley, M. (ed.) (1986), *Controversies in Classroom Research*, 2nd edition, Milton Keynes: Open University Press, pp.10-24.
- McLaughlin, B. (1987), *Theories of Second Language Learning*, London: Edward Arnold.
- Mitchell, R., Parkinson, B. and Johnstone, R. (1981), *The Foreign Language Classroom: an observational study*, Stirling Educational Monographs No: 9, Stirling: Department of Education, University of Stirling.

- Mitchell, R. and Johnstone, R. (1984), 'The Routinisation of "Communicative" Methodology', Paper Presented to the 7th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Brussels.
- Naiman, N., Fröhlich, M., Stern, H. H. and Todesco, A. (1978), *The Good Language Learner*, Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Neil, P. S. (1996), 'German in the Classroom: what the pupils think', *Language Learning Journal*, No. 13, pp.10-14.
- Netten, J. and Planchot-Ferguson, J. (1995), 'Strategies for Developing Communicative Competence with Emphasis on Comprehensible Input', in Duquette, G. (ed.) (1995), *Classroom Strategies for Developing Communicative Competence*, Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters Ltd, pp.43-54.
- Nobuyoshi, J. and Ellis, R. (1993), 'Focused Communication Tasks and Second Language Acquisition', *ELT Journal*, 47, pp. 203-210.
- Nunan, D. (1987), 'Communicative Language Teaching: making it work', *ELT Journal*, 41/2, pp.136-145.
- Nunan, D. (1990), 'The Questions Teachers Ask', *The Japan Association for Language Teaching Journal*, No. 12, pp. 187-202.
- Nunan, D. (1991), *Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers*, London: Prentice Hall.
- Nunan, D. (2001), 'Second Language Classroom Research', Eric Digest, (ONELINE: <http://ericae.net/db/edo/ED321550.htm>)
- Nystrand, M. and Gamoran, A. (1991), 'Student engagement: when recitation becomes conversation', in Waxman H. C. and Walberg H. (eds.) (1991), *Effective teaching: Current research*, Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, pp. 257-276.
- Oh, Sun-Young (2001), 'Two Types of Input Modification and EFL Reading Comprehension: Simplification Versus Elaboration', *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 35/1, pp.69-97.
- Parker, K. and Chaudron, C. (1987), 'The Effects of Linguistic Simplifications and Elaborative Modifications on L2 Comprehension', *Working Papers in ESL* 6, University of Hawaii, pp.107-133.
- Peck, S. (1985), *Signs of Learning: child nonnative speakers in tutoring sessions with a child native speaker*, Department of English -ESL, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Pica, T. and Doughty, C. (1985a), 'Input and Interaction in the Communicative Language Classroom: a comparison of teacher-fronted and group work

- activities', in Gass, S. and Madden, C. (eds.) (1985), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, London: Newbury House Publishers, pp 115-132.
- Pica, T. and Doughty, C. (1985b), 'The Role of Group Work in Classroom Second Language Acquisition', *Studies in Second Language Education*, Vol. 7, pp.233-248.
- Pica, T., Young, R. and Doughty, C. (1986), 'Making Input Comprehensible: do interactional modifications help?', *I.T.L. Review of Applied Linguistics* 72, pp.1-25.
- Pica, T. and Long, M. (1986), 'The Linguistic and Conversational Performance of Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers', in Day, R. (ed.) (1986), *Talking to Learn: conversation in second language acquisition*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N. and Morgenthaler, L. (1989), 'Comprehensible Output as an Outcome of the Linguistic Demands on the Learner', *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, pp. 63-90.
- Pica, T. (1987), 'Second-Language Acquisition, Social Interaction and the Classroom', *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 8/1, pp. 3-21.
- Pica, T. (1988), 'Interlanguage Adjustments as an Outcome of NS-NNS Negotiated Interaction', *Language Learning Journal*, 38, pp.45-73.
- Polio, C. and Gass, S. (1998), 'The Role of Interaction in Native Speaker Comprehension of Nonnative Speaker Speech', *Modern Language Journal*, 82, pp.308-319.
- Politzer, R., Ramirez, A. and Lewis S. (1981), 'Teaching Standard English in the Third Grade: classroom functions of language', *Language Learning Journal*, 31, pp.171-93.
- Porter, P. (1986), 'How Learners Talk to Each Other: input and interaction in task-centred discussions', in Day, R. (ed.) (1986), *Talking to Learn: conversation in second language acquisition*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Prabhu, N.S. (1987), *Second Language Pedagogy*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rulon, K. and McCreary, J. (1986), 'Negotiation of Content: teacher fronted and small group interaction', in Day R. (ed.) (1986), *Talking to Learn: conversation in second language acquisition*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, pp.182-199.
- Salica, C. (1981), *Testing a Model of Corrective Discourse*, M.A. in TESL Thesis, Los Angeles: University of California.
- Savignon, S. J. (1972), *Communicative Competence: an experiment in foreign language teaching*. Philadelphia: Centre for Curriculum Development.

- Schmidt, R.W. and Frota, S.N. (1986), 'Developing Basic Conversational Ability in a Second Language: a case study of an adult learner of Portuguese', in Day R. (ed.) (1986), *Talking to Learn: conversation in second language acquisition*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, pp. 237-326.
- Seedhouse, P. (1997), 'Combining Form and Meaning', *ELT Journal*, Vol. 51/4, pp. 336-344.
- Seliger, H. W. (1977), 'Does practice make perfect? A study of interaction patterns and L2 competence' in Allwright D. (1988), *Observation in the language classrooms*, London: Longman.
- Sharwood Smith, M. (1986), 'Comprehension versus Acquisition: two ways of processing input', *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 7/3, pp. 239-256.
- Sheen, R. (2002), 'Focus on Form and Focus on Forms', *ELT Journal*, Vol. 56/3, pp. 303-305.
- Sinclair, J. and Coulthard, M. (1975), *Towards an Analysis of Discourse: the English used by teachers and pupils*, London: Oxford University Press.
- Slimani, A. (1987), *The Teaching/Learning Relationship: learning opportunities and learning outcomes. An Algerian Case Study*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Lancaster University, Department of Linguistics.
- Slimani, A. (1989), 'The Role of Topicalization in Classroom Language Learning', *System*, 17, pp. 223-234.
- Spada, N. and Fröhlich, M. (1995), *The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme: Coding Conventions and Applications*, National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University, Sydney.
- Stern, H. (1983), *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Strong, M. (1983), 'Social Styles and the Second language Acquisition of Spanish-speaking Kindergartners', *TESOL Quarterly*, No: 17, pp.241-258.
- Sullivan, P. N. (2000), 'Spoken Artistry: performance in a foreign language classroom', in Hall, J. K. and Verplaetse, L. S. (eds.) (2000), *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Swain, M. (1985), 'Communicative Competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development', in Gass, S. and Madden, C. (eds.) (1985), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, London: Newbury House Publishers, pp. 235-253.

- Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (1995), 'Problems in Output and the Cognitive Processes They Generate: a step towards second language learning', *Applied Linguistics*, 16, pp. 371-391.
- Swan, M. (1985), 'A Critical Look at the Communicative Approach (2)', *ELT Journal*, 39/2, pp.76-87.
- Tanaka, Y. (1991), *Comprehension and L2 Acquisition: the role of interaction*, Unpublished Paper, Tokyo: Temple University.
- Terrell, T., Gomez, E. and Mariseal, J. (1980), 'Can Acquisition Take Place in the Classroom?', in Scarcella, R. and Krashen, S. (eds.) (1980), *Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley: Newbury House.
- Thornbury, S. (1996), 'Teachers Research Teacher Talk', *ELT Journal*, 50/ 4, pp. 279-289.
- Tollefson, J. W. (1991), *Planning Language, Planning Inequality: language policy in the community*, London: Longman.
- Tsui, A. (1985), 'Analysing Input and Interaction in Second Language Classrooms', *RELC Journal*, No. 16, pp.8-32.
- Tsui, A. (1995), *Introducing Classroom Interaction*, London: Penguin Books Limited.
- Tucker, R.G. (1974), 'Methods of Second-Language Teaching', *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 31(2), 102-107.
- Van den Branden, K. (1997), 'Effects of Negotiation on Language Learners' Output', *Language Learning*, 47/4, pp. 589-636.
- Van Lier, L., Nakahama, Y., and Tyler A. (2001), 'Negotiation of Meaning in Conversational and Information Gap Activities: A comparative discourse analysis', *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 35/3, pp. 377-405.
- Vigil, F. and Oller, J. (1976), 'Rule Fossilisation: a tentative model', *Language Learning Journal*, 26, pp.181-195.
- Walker, R. (1993), 'The Conduct of Educational Case Studies: ethics, theory and procedures', in Hammersley, M. (ed.) (1993), *Controversies in Classroom Research*, Buckingham: Open University Press, pp.163-195.
- Weslander, D. and Stephany, G. (1983), 'Evaluation of English as a Second Language Program for Southeast Asian Students', *TESOL Quarterly*, No. 17, pp.473-80.
- White, L. and Lightbown, P. (1984), 'Asking and Answering in ESL Classes', *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 40, pp.288-344.

- White, L. (1987), 'Against Comprehensible Input: The Input Hypothesis and the Development of Second-language Competence'. *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 8/12, pp. 98-110.
- White, M. (1992), *Teachers' Questions –Form, Function and Interaction: a study of two teachers*, Unpublished paper, Tokyo: Temple University.
- Wilkins, D. (1983), 'Some Issues in Communicative Language Teaching and Their Relevance to the Teaching of Languages in Secondary Schools', in Johnson, K. and Porter, D. (eds.) (1983), *Perspectives in Communicative Language Teaching*, London: Academic Press, pp.23-37.
- Yamazaki, A. (1991), *The Effect of Interaction on Second Language Comprehension and Acquisition*, Unpublished paper, Tokyo: Temple University.
- Yoneyama, A. (1981), 'The Treatment of Learners' Errors by Novice EFL Teachers', *Bulletin of the College of Education, Human and Social Sciences, University of Niigata*, No: 23, pp. 85-94.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Ofsted Inspection Report (1997): Modern foreign languages

156 In French, students at the age of 14 and 16 attain levels in line with national expectations. Recent GCSE results have improved significantly and the proportion of entrants gaining a grade A*-C now exceeds the national average. Small groups, studying German as a second foreign language, Gujarati and Punjabi, attain levels above national expectations and those taking Spanish as an alternative to French are in line with and sometimes above expectations. Basic language skills are good and many students gain a sound knowledge of language structures. Some high attainers apply their knowledge well in speaking the language and in extended writing. Most others remain at a basic level which is adequate for communication.

157 Students make steady progress in learning French and students in some classes progress well. They develop an interest in language learning and are encouraged to build on their understanding and use their skills actively. Progress is less consistent in some classes where there is a wide range of prior attainment, and for students with learning difficulties when they do not receive extra support. In languages other than French, students are motivated, learn at a rapid pace and their progress is good.

158 Teaching is consistently effective and there are many good and occasionally very good features. Teachers use imaginative and well-organised activities, supported by attractive home-produced resources carefully designed to support students learning. Teachers work hard to ensure that good relationships are maintained and they provide extra sessions for those who need it. Teachers skilfully judge the balance between establishing a good language model in whole-class practice and orchestrating intensive practice for students to develop their language skills. Teachers make very effective use of assessment information to plan how to target their teaching. Tasks do not always sufficiently meet the needs of all students, particularly in groups where there is a wide span of differing needs. Activities sometimes lack the spark of interest to motivate students and give them a sense of progress.

159 Students respond willingly and enjoy language learning activities which actively involve them and excite their interest. Most concentrate well and apply themselves sensibly to tasks set, whether in whole-class or pair work. A few lack the motivation to persevere and become disaffected, sometimes distracting others.

160 The languages team is admirably led and works well together. Teachers have planned effectively to face challenges ahead, such as the new requirement to teach a language to all Key Stage 4 students, and are well placed to build on their considerable strengths.

APPENDIX 2

COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching: Observation Scheme

2010-2011

三

Cirade(s)

Observer

100

Lesson (min.)

1111

Shiloh

1711

一、

[illegible]

APPENDIX 3

COLT PART B

School:

Date:

Teacher:

Coder:

TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION

Teac-ID	Activity	Off-task	Target Language		Information Gap	Sustained Speech	Reaction to form/ message	Incorporation of student utterances	target language	information gap		sustained speech	form restriction	react to form/ message	incorporation of student/teacher utterances
	L1 instruction.														
	L1 form explan.														
	L1 functional explan.														
	L1 question														
	L1 praise/crit.														
	L1 other														
	L2 instruction														
	L2 form explan.														
	L2 functional explan														
	L2-question														
	L2-examples														
	L2-praise/crit.														
	L2 other														
	give predictable info														
	give unpred info.														
	pseudo request														
	genuine request														
	minimal speech														
	sustained speech														
	reaction to form														
	reaction to message														
	correction														
	repetition														
	paraphrase														
	comment														
	expansion														
	elaboration request														
	clarification request														
	choral														
	silent														
	L1														
	L2														
	discourse initiation														
	give predict.info														
	give unpred.info														
	pseudo request														
	genuine request														
	ultra-min.spch														
	minimal spch														
	sustained spch														
	form restricted														
	form limited														
	form unrestricted														
	reaction to form														
	reaction to message														
	correction														
	self-correction														
	repetition														
	paraphrase														
	comment														
	expansion														
	elaboration request														
	clarification request														

STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION

PAGE
NUMBERING
AS ORIGINAL

APPENDIX 6

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. What levels do you teach?
3. Can you talk about the syllabus/ course book you follow?
4. What has affected your decision to follow that specific syllabus/ course book?
5. In your opinion, what type of activities promote/ elicit more student talk?
6. How do you think your students feel about communicating in the target language in your classroom?
7. Do you think classroom size affects the type of activities you use in your teaching? How?
8. In your opinion, what is the place of grammar teaching in the teaching of foreign languages?
9. What's your attitude to the role of mother tongue and target language in language classrooms?
10. What are your criteria in describing a 'good' language learner?

① J'ai fait mon (work experience) comme (teacher's helper) en (May). J'ai travaillé dans une (nursery school) dans le centre de Leicester. J'ai (spent) dix jours là. C'était vraiment (good) et je me suis bien amusé.

J'y (used to go) en autobus. Pour y aller, je (used to take) quinze minutes. Tous les jours je (used to start) à neuf heures et je (used to finish) à trois heures trente. Il y avait deux (breaks) chaque jour. Pendant la pause je (used to talk) avec les autres ou je (used to read) le journal. À midi je (used to eat) avec les enfants dans la (canteen).

Je (would like) être instituteur. J'aime les (children) et j'aime les (holidays).

② A vous. — now with no help!

• mécanicien / jour.

8 jours / garage près de chez moi

😊!! 😊🚗

• → en vélo.

← 5mins →

8h30 — 4h30

2 pauses.

☕ / le journal

à midi 400 📦

• 😞 mécanicien.

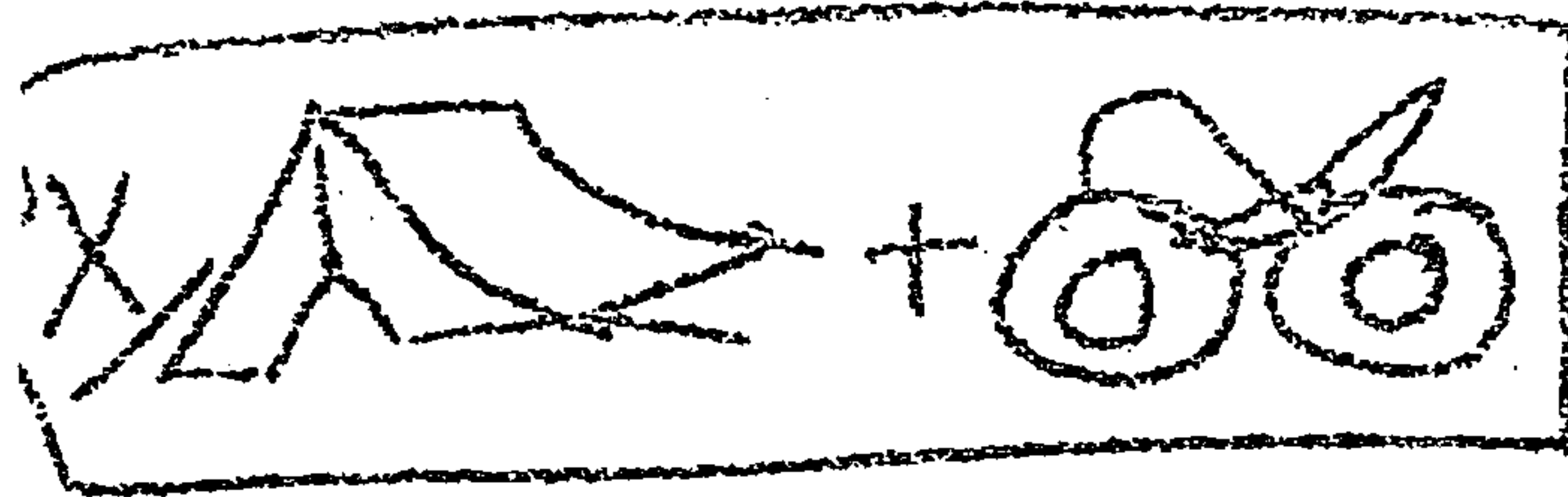
😊🚗

mais sale + mal payé

APPENDIX 8

temp libres?

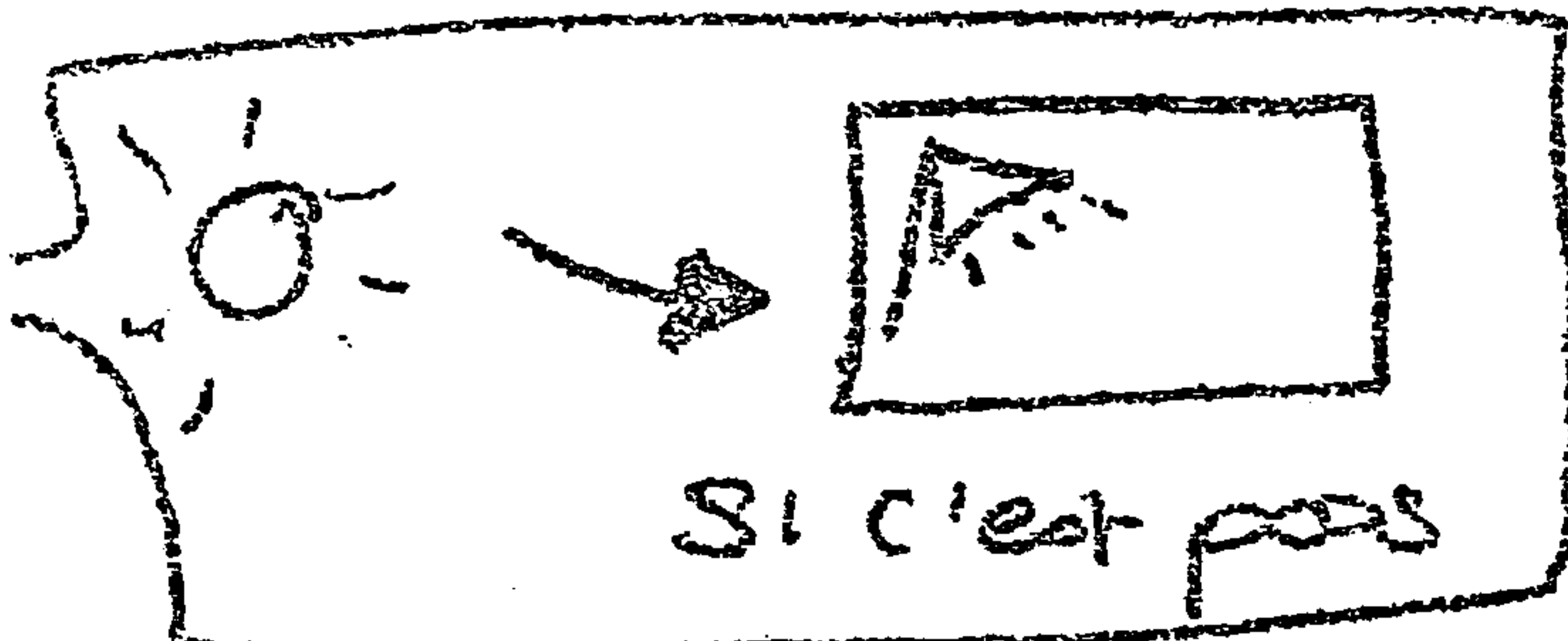
✓ C'est pour
une cavalière



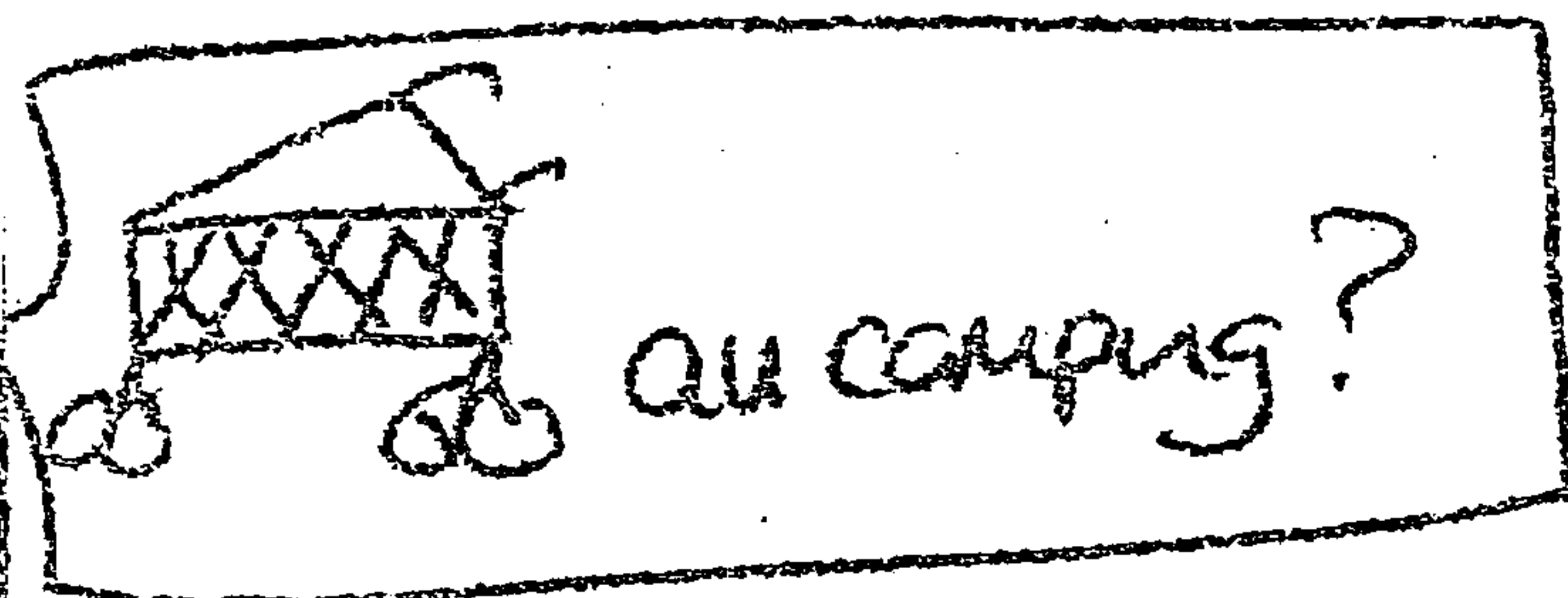
20-
au soleil



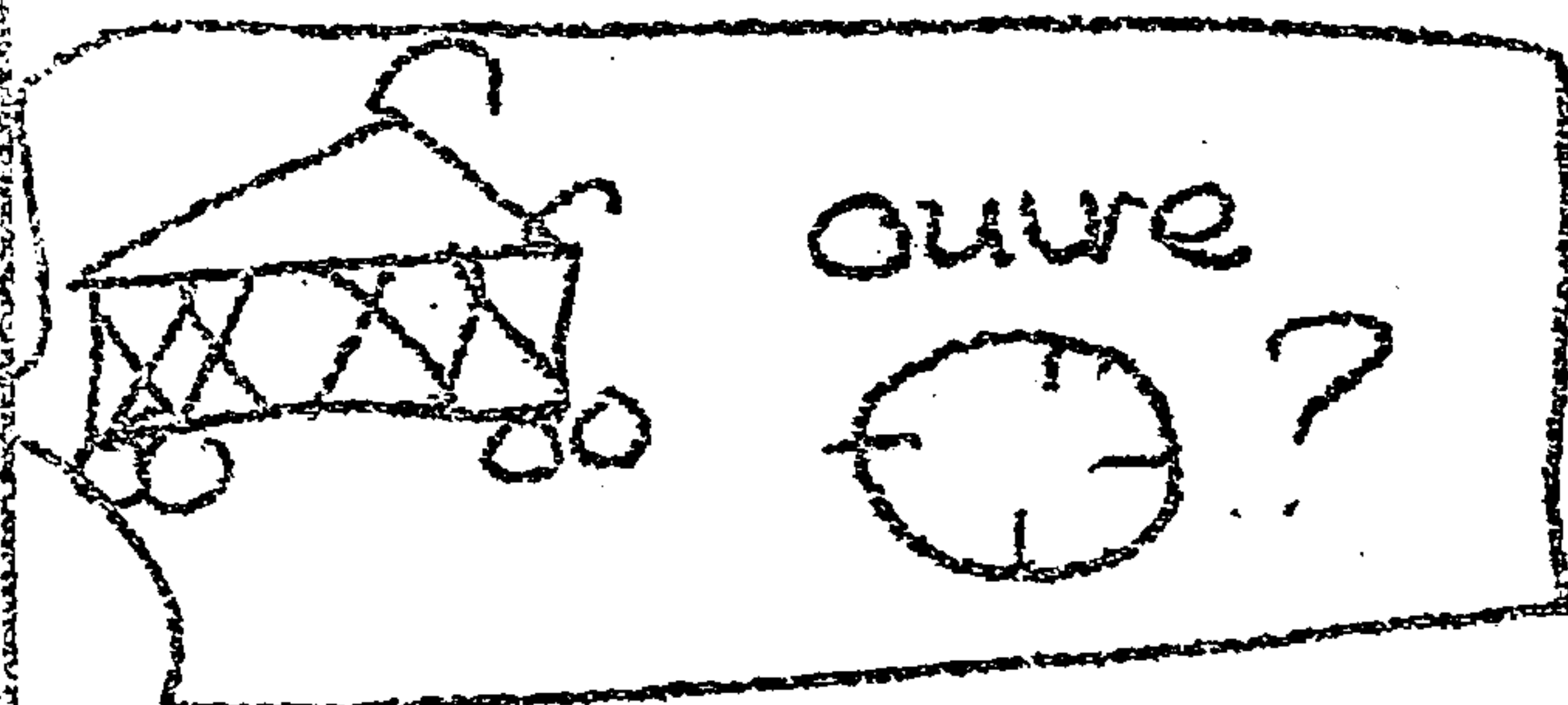
à l'ombre



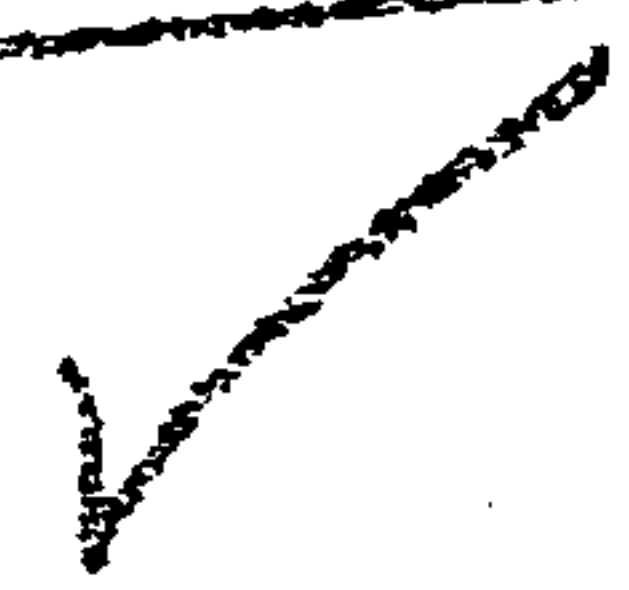
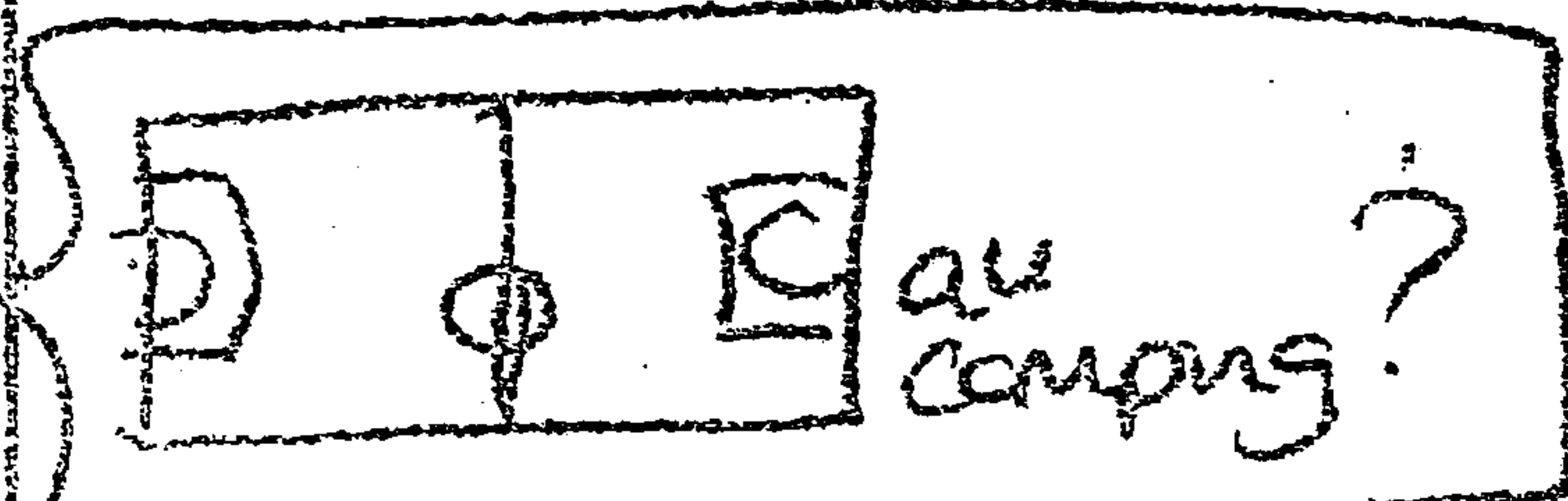
✓ c'est possible



✓ ↔ bar



8h 15



Où se trouve ... ?

→ plage.

1. Number of people:
2. Are they members of the Youth Club Association?
3. Do they want full board?
4. How much does it cost, if they are having breakfast and the evening meal?
5. Do they ask for bed linen?
6. Cost?
7. On which floor are the girls' rooms?
8. The boys' rooms?
9. Where is the television room?
10. Playroom? What can you play?
11. Do you have to help? What?
12. What does the warden ask Julia to do?
13. What does he give her?
14. Which rooms are they given?

TEXT BOUND INTO THE SPINE

APPENDIX 10

Complete the sentences with *should (have) + the verb in brackets*.

- Margaret _____ the exam. She's been studying very hard. (pass)
You missed a great party last night. You _____ (come)
We don't see you enough. You _____ and see us more often. (come)
I'm in a difficult position. What do you think I _____? (do)
I'm sorry that I didn't take your advice. I _____ what you said. (do)
I'm playing tennis with Jill tomorrow. She _____ - she's much better than me. (win)
We lost the match but we _____. We were the better team. (win)
'Is John here yet?' 'Not yet, but he _____ here soon.' (be)
I posted the letter three days ago, so it _____ by now. (arrive)

Read the situations and write sentences with *should/shouldn't*. Some of the sentences are past and some are present.

- I'm feeling sick. I ate too much. I _____
That man on the motorbike isn't wearing a helmet. That's dangerous.
He _____
When we got to the restaurant, there were no free tables. We hadn't reserved one.
We _____
The notice says that the shop is open every day from 8.30. It is 9 o'clock now but the shop _____

The speed limit is 30 miles an hour, but Catherine is doing 50.
She _____
I went to Paris. A friend of mine lives in Paris but I didn't go to see him while I was there.
When I saw him later, he said: You _____
_____ was driving behind another car. Suddenly, the driver in front stopped without warning and
drove into the back of his car. It wasn't my fault. _____
_____ walked into a wall. I wasn't looking where I was going.

APPENDIX 11

Food Habits

Breakfast is one of those (1) that varies from person to person, and country to country. For some (2) it means a (3) of toast and some coffee. In various places I've also been offered (4) or fruit. (5) executive might eat breakfast at the (6), while for many schoolchildren breakfast is a (7) of milk at home, and then a long wait (8) the first break of the morning, when they eat (9) or (10) chocolate bar. Some families sit down and eat together (11) the morning, and listen to (12) news on the radio or (13) early morning television. For other people, the early morning is a rush (14) work or school, and there just simply isn't (15)

- | | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| 1) A) times | B) meals | C) foods | D) plates |
| 2) A) people | B) persons | C) breakfasts | D) us |
| 3) A) sheet | B) loaf | C) slice | D) sandwich |
| 4) A) a cheese | B) the cheese | C) cheese | D) cheeses |
| 5) A) Business | B) A business | C) Business's | D) Businessmen |
| 6) A) train | B) street | C) morning | D) office |
| 7) A) glass | B) piece | C) warm | D) box |
| 8) A) to | B) is | C) until | D) which |
| 9) A) sandwich | B) the sandwich | C) a sandwiches | D) sandwiches |
| 10) A) a | B) some | C) a piece | D) a glass of |
| 11) A) for | B) in | C) at | D) while |
| 12) A) a | B) what | C) some | D) the |
| 13) A) look | B) watch | C) see | D) regard |
| 14) A) to | B) from | C) at | D) and |
| 15) A) there | B) it | C) enough | D) time |

APPENDIX 12

ATTAINMENT TARGETS

Attainment target 2: Speaking

Level 1

Pupils respond briefly, with single words or short phrases, to what they see and hear. Their pronunciation may be approximate, and they may need considerable support from a spoken model and from visual cues.

Level 2

Pupils give short, simple responses to what they see and hear. They name and describe people, places and objects. They use set phrases [for example, to ask for help and permission]. Their pronunciation may still be approximate and the delivery hesitant, but their meaning is clear.

Level 3

Pupils take part in brief prepared tasks of at least two or three exchanges, using visual or other cues to help them initiate and respond. They use short phrases to express personal responses [for example, likes, dislikes and feelings]. Although they use mainly memorised language, they occasionally substitute items of vocabulary to vary questions or statements.

Level 4

Pupils take part in simple structured conversations of at least three or four exchanges, supported by visual or other cues. They are beginning to use their knowledge of grammar to adapt and substitute single words and phrases. Their pronunciation is generally accurate and they show some consistency in their intonation.

Level 5

Pupils take part in short conversations, seeking and conveying information and opinions in simple terms. They refer to recent experiences or future plans, as well as everyday activities and interests. Although there may be some mistakes, pupils make themselves understood with little or no difficulty.

Level 6

Pupils take part in conversations that include past, present and future actions and events. They apply their knowledge of grammar in new contexts. They use the target language to meet most of their routine needs for information and explanations. Although they

may be hesitant at times, pupils make themselves understood with little or no difficulty.

Level 7

Pupils initiate and develop conversations and discuss matters of personal or topical interest. They improvise and paraphrase. Their pronunciation and intonation are good, and their language is usually accurate.

Level 8

Pupils give and justify opinions and discuss facts, ideas and experiences. They use a range of vocabulary, structures and time references. They adapt language to deal with unprepared situations. They speak confidently with good pronunciation and intonation, and their language is largely accurate with few mistakes of any significance.

Exceptional Performance

Pupils discuss a wide range of factual and imaginative topics, giving and seeking personal views and opinions in informal and formal situations. They deal confidently with unpredictable elements in conversations, or with people who are unfamiliar. They speak fluently, with consistently accurate pronunciation, and can vary intonation. They give clear messages and make few errors.

<http://www.nc.uk.net/nc/contents/MFL--2-ATT.html>