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Investigating the Scaffolding Strategies Related to Risk-Taking During Classroom Interaction

Case Study: First Year LMD Students at Constantine University

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Dedication

This work is humbly and heartily dedicated to:

My dear parents who are a good well of inspiration.

My dear wife

All my siblings, in-laws, large family and friends for their being a great joy to me.

My ex-colleagues in the course of studies, my colleagues, teachers and students. They have animated and enlightened me about what I needed to know, and have set examples to follow and trust.

The reader, with thanks.

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Abstract

This study purports to investigate how some selected aspects of the teacher's interactional behaviour can serve as scaffoldings for students' risk-taking. This latter is a construct that, if adopted by students, leads to an increase in both the quality and the quantity of their participation in classroom interaction. It is found that teacher's use of referential questions is positively related to a surge in risk-taking. Moreover, the provision of varied pauses in the forms of extended wait times before students' responses and short wait times after students have finished responding to questions co-occurred with relatively more risk-taking. It was also established that using strategies prompting students to respond or answer questions such as clarification requests and clues relates positively to better risk-taking. Such interactional behaviours are deemed scaffoldings insofar as they mediate students' risk taking within their zone of proximal development as suggested by the socio-cultural theory on interaction. This is so because the results of this study suggest that students take more turns at speaking, provide more one-word and multi-word responses and self-initiations, and their productions are to a higher extent relevant, correct and/or complete than when the teacher relies on other alternatives to these aspects of interaction. Recommendations are directed to teachers to be constantly adaptive, to use interactional behaviours that assist students in taking better risks. As for students, it is worthwhile to adopt such a strategy which is established to be characterizing good and successful language learners.

List of Abbreviations

ALM: Audio Lingual Method

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DM: Direct Method

DQ: Display Question

FonF: Focus on Form

FL: Foreign Language

GAS: Giving-Answer Strategies

GTM: Grammar-translation method

ID: Individual Differences

IRF: Initiation-Response-Feedback/Follow-up

L1: Mother Tongue

L2: Second Language

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

NA: Natural Approach

NNS: Non-Native Speaker

NS: Native Speaker

PAS: Prompting-Answer Strategies

RQ: Referential Question

SCT: Socio-Cultural Theory

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TEFL: Teaching English as Foreign Language

TL: Target Language

TT: Teacher Talk

WTI: Wait Time I

WTII: Wait Time II

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Introduction

At the heart of learning English as a Foreign Language at the Algerian university lies the classroom which constitutes the main outlet for student to get in contact with the subject matter of English, on the one hand, and an English speaking community, on the other. Participation in classroom interaction proves to be an effective way for facilitating and promoting language learning, and so it must be. In other words, classrooms need to be rich environments characterised by the abundance of optimal interaction opportunities which may lead to optimal learning conditions. This study endorses the view that the responsibility of creating such classrooms is shared by the different participants i.e., the teacher and the students. The former controls the patterns of interaction in the classroom, and therefore is well-situated to assist the quality and amount of student involvement in classroom interaction. The latter, on the other hand, can improve the quality as well as the quantity of their participation in interaction activities by adopting a Risk-Taking strategy. In other words, students need to be willing to guess and communicate whatever knowledge they have even though they may run the risk of being wrong.

Students enrolling in First Year LMD at the Department of English at Mentouri University range between pre-intermediate to intermediate levels of ability, essentially. Hence, they lack command of English and feel hampered by too many risks in the classroom context. These risks contribute to their feeling worried when they participate, and even lead them to avoid practices that engender risks such as participation, volunteering and venturing new words and expressions. Though the teachers are considered as help and support figures by students, and even though the Oral Expression class is one that generally appeals to students, the untaken risks are still there, and lead to participation levels that are situated within students' comfort zones. This enables them to boost their confidence and avoid being publicly criticized or negatively evaluated by the teacher. To approach this problem, and to successfully assist students in taking risks, teachers are believed to play a central role which consists in adapting teaching strategies to this problematic area for students.

As for students who are willing and ready to take their language abilities to the next level by exploiting opportunities for practice, they are faced by a general type of teacher talk that squeezes their contributions between rapid sequences of questions and comments. In such a context, interaction is driven by the goals that are outlined by the

teacher, and rarely touches on the personal experiences of students. Moreover, classroom interaction that is based on testing students' knowledge in a recitative manner is unlikely to address the need for students to use language in meaningful ways. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to adopt roles and use techniques that enhance classroom interaction in ways that bring risk-taking to pass.

Statement of the Problem

The results of a short questionnaire that was administered to First Year LMD students at Mentouri University came to confirm the researcher's take on interaction in the majority of university classrooms. Students are generally willing to participate in oral communication activities. However, these students show an inclination towards using words and expressions they are sure about at the expense of experimenting with language. By doing so, students make their responses fairly simple, short and involving little risk, if any. In other words, they deprive themselves of opportunities to use language.

Lack of risk-taking in the context of the classroom is due, in part, to the students' feeling worried and embarrassed to speak and volunteer answers in class, as they report in the first place. On the other hand, part of this failure lies with the teacher who, in some ways, does not create ample opportunities nor does he/she encourage students to overcome this embarrassment, engage in active participation, volunteer responses and allow them to produce quality utterances which are as relevant, accurate and complete as students' abilities permit. Given that the teacher controls interaction in the classroom, this study casts light on some aspects of teacher interaction with students to answer the following question:

- What forms of teacher assistance (or scaffolding), if any, are closely related to better Risk-Taking by students?

Aim of the Study

This study is conducted within the university context involving First Year LMD students at the department of English, University of Constantine, with the view to finding out the scaffolding strategies that frequently co-occur with an enhanced level of students' involvement in oral participation. This active participation form is called

Risk-Taking and it is characterised, among other things, by an increased quality as well as quantity of participation than ordinary participation that only goes through motions. This is so because when students take risks, they are in fact taking more turns in interaction either by volunteering or responding to the teacher, they are taking longer turns and are constantly attempting to use relevant, accurate and complete utterances. Therefore, this study seeks to confirm:

- whether the teachers' use of referential questions is related to better Risk-Taking,
- whether the adoption of strategies that prompt students to participate, clarify and elicit the targeted behaviours are related to increased Risk-Taking; and last,
- if the provision of short waiting times for students to respond and complete or edit their contributions is really scaffolding for better Risk-Taking.

If a relationship is obtained, then these teacher techniques of questioning and support are indeed scaffoldings for students' attempts to take risks. Otherwise, alternative forms of assistance need to be found that qualify to be scaffolding alternatives.

Hypotheses of the Study

The nature of the teacher's assistance for students to participate in classroom interaction is hypothesized to be closely related to students' Risk-Taking. Particularly, some forms of scaffolding are more suitable than others for encouraging better Risk-Taking, as shown by these two hypotheses:

a) If the teacher scaffolding is implemented by asking display questions, providing answers for students and allowing them no or extended wait times to come up with responses and complete or edit them, Risk-Taking will be at its lowest degree.

b) If the teacher scaffolding is implemented by asking referential questions, prompting students to answer and allowing them short wait times to come up with responses and complete or edit them, Risk-Taking will be at its highest degree.

Rationale of the Study

Referring to the questionnaire submitted to students one more time is worthwhile because it placed the researcher at an apparent paradox. On the one hand, students find their teachers helpful in overcoming difficulties, encouraging them to speak their minds and constantly praising their participation. On the other hand, students admit suffering negative feelings of anxiety that drive them away from participating in oral activities; they even express an attitude to avoid self-initiating in the classroom as well as averting to experiment with language.

To address this dilemma, consulting the sociocultural principles of learning through interaction proves insightful in that there is a specification that the type of assistance or scaffolding that should be given to learners must be proportionate with their level or abilities. In other words, it should be situated within their Zone of Proximal Development so as to be interesting and conducive to learning. This entails that the teacher should adapt scaffolds, in this case, to students whose levels range between pre-intermediate to intermediate ones. In turn, the scaffolds should neither be a form of spoon-feeding that consists in supplying answers for students or allowing them minimal chances to participate nor a form of withdrawal of assistance in which students are completely responsible for taking part. It is on these grounds that the hypotheses of this study are formulated.

Data Collection Procedures

The study is descriptive in nature. Data are obtained mainly from classroom observation. To map the terrain, a pre-questionnaire is administered to 200 out of 979 First Year LMD students, after being piloted. Subsequently, a teacher classroom lesson is videotaped. The videotape is transcribed, analysed and discussed using a discourse analytic approach infused by interactive analysis categories. Both qualitative and quantitative means of interpretation are used.

Structure of the Study

The present dissertation unfolds in three chapters which are prefaced by an introduction that provides a rationale for conducting a study that seeks to find out which

of the selected teacher aspects of interactional behaviours serve as scaffoldings for students' Risk Taking.

Chapter one supplies a review of the relevant literature on classroom interaction. Within, the concept of interaction is dissected, classroom interaction is investigated to determine its distinguished exchange structure, turn-taking and turn-allocation mechanisms as well as the special register of teacher talk. Different classifications of questions, feedback and wait time as well as their relative functions and merits are determined. Later, classroom interactional competence is scrutinized. Last, the precepts of theories of interaction as well as their contributions to language learning are discussed with a special focus on the socio-cultural theory.

Chapter two provides a definition of Risk-Taking, and explores its relationship with the different affective variables of self-esteem, anxiety, learning styles and motivation. These variables are shown to contribute to Risk-Taking either positively or negatively. Other related constructs such as interlanguage, speaking, practice and learning strategies broaden the definition of Risk-Taking and inform it too. The chapter closes by tracing the status given to Risk-Taking within the most common language teaching methods.

The last chapter sets out by providing a brief analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire used prior to carrying out the study. Then, it proceeds towards restating the hypotheses and adapting a system for describing and interpreting classroom interaction. The ad hoc system addresses the selected features, that constitute the focus of the study, and provides a working definition for the construct of Risk-taking. Interaction is described as it unravels in a qualitative manner, then quantitative counts are used. Interpretation of the results ensues and a general conclusion is drawn for scaffolding students' Risk-Taking.

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Classroom Interaction

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Chapter One
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Introduction

The present chapter supplies a review of the relevant literature on classroom interaction. Within, the concept of interaction is dissected; classroom interaction is investigated to determine its distinguished exchange structure, turn-taking and turn-allocation mechanisms as well as the special register of teacher talk. Different classifications of questions, feedback and wait time as well as their relative functions and merits are determined. Later, classroom interactional competence is scrutinized. Last, the precepts of theories of interaction as well as their contributions to language learning are discussed with a special focus on the socio-cultural theory.

1. The Nature Classroom Interaction

The concepts of interaction and, by extension, that of classroom interaction are used in most books on education. Few, however, address the nature of these concepts. A definition of interaction explores its essential as well as its multi-faceted nature as it relates to language and communication, and how it unfolds in the context of the classroom.

1.1. Definition of Interaction

In everyday language, the term interaction is used to refer to reciprocal and active influencing between two or more entities or acts. This includes the interrelated acts, actions, activities and movements of two or more individuals, animals and objects. In sociological and psychological literature, the term 'interaction' is used within the context of social interaction to denote "the interrelated behaviour of individuals who influence each other by means of communication" (Schneider, 2006:299). The idea of having others to contact, to influence and be influenced by other objects is at the core of interaction which is defined, in the Oxford online dictionaries, as reciprocal action or influence. Interaction occurs as two or more objects have an effect on each other. Before delving any further into the meanings encompassed by interaction per se, a linguistic view on how language serves as interaction is in order.

According to Brown & Yule (1983), language serves two functions: a transactional function, used to express content and convey factual or propositional information, and

an interactional function, which has to do with expressing social relations and personal attitudes. Brown and Yule (ibid.) believe that their dichotomy viz. transactional / interactional builds on earlier linguists' classifications and explain that it corresponds to Buhler's (representative / expressive), Jakobson's (referential/ emotive), Halliday's (ideational /interpersonal) and Lyons' (descriptive / social-emotive) dichotomies. It seems that the interactional function is equated with the psychological and moral attitude of the speaker (expressive), has to do with the feelings of the speaker (emotion), reflects the speaker/writer persona, social distance and relative social status (interpersonal and societal relations), all of which represent the *phatic* use of language, that is, the use of language to establish and maintain social relationships. Using language to interact, therefore, denotes an orientation towards the physical and psychological contact between interactants, as opposed to an individual orientation or one directed towards the state of the world. When interacting orally, people make use of both the interactional and transactional functions of language, albeit it is more likely for spoken language to fit in the interactional function. Rivers (1987), too, states that teachers and students are engaging in the central activity for which language is used in human relations, while interacting. This is because they create and stimulate various situations for using language for actual communication.

The Council of Europe stipulates that interaction involves both oral and written exchanges between two or more individuals, in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap. In oral communication, the listener is generally already forecasting the remainder of the speaker's message and preparing a response. (The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, 2001a)

Essential to the concept of interaction, from the discussion above, is the idea of a two-way effect. Wells (in Rivers, op.cit.) defines interaction as a collaborative activity which involves the establishment of a triangular relationship between the sender, the receiver and the context of situation. In the case of exchanging oral messages between two persons, for example, in interaction these messages are conveyed by the speaker and interpreted by the listener who responds directly using another oral message or indirectly using gestures or delaying the response provided that they are of importance to both parties of interaction. This latter provision is added to distinguish human interaction from other forms of interaction which abound in nature or experimental settings. Rivers (1987:4) extends the view to cover the multi-faceted nature of interaction:

> *Interaction involves not just expression of one's own ideas but comprehension of those of others. One listens to others; one responds (directly or indirectly); others listen and respond. The participants work out interpretations of meaning through this interaction, which is always understood in a context, physical or experiential, with non-verbal cues adding aspects of meaning beyond the verbal*.

So far, interaction is established to have a central role in communication. Thus, it seems worthy to specify the distinction between the terms 'interaction' and 'communication', which are often used interchangeably as synonyms. Watzlawick et al. (1967 in Schneider, op.cit.) define interaction as a reciprocal sequence of communications (that is, messages) between two or more individuals. The previous quotation shows that the term 'interaction' contains the meaning of 'communication' insofar as there must be at least two exchanged messages. Thus, learning to communicate involves, *inter alia*, interacting i.e. listening to and talking with others and negotiating meaning in the shared context. However, interaction specifies that communication has to be back and forth in a collaborative manner where each action generates a reaction, as will be explained in the next section.

1.2. Classroom Interaction

The role of language was shown, in the previous section, to extend beyond the communication of propositional information to the establishment and maintenance of relationships during interaction. With reference to classroom environments, teachers and students may be seen as members of sociolinguistic contexts in which spoken language has social and pedagogical functions (Consolo, 2000a). The Classroom brings together the teacher and the learner or the learners. These people form together a social group and interact in the context of the classroom for the purpose of learning. Malamah-Thomas posits, "… classroom interaction serves an enabling function: its only purpose is to provide conditions for learning" (1987: vii). In other words, students are assumed to activate their process of learning because classroom interaction provides for them the necessary conditions to learn. For Ellis (1985) interaction is the discourse jointly constructed by the learner and his interlocutors. It is a process of acting reciprocally or acting upon each other. That is to say that the teacher acts are geared toward the class to generate reactions from learners. The class reaction forms the basis of the next teacher action or modifies it in some way, and the process of interaction unfolds in the same manner throughout the lesson. There is, then, a constant pattern of mutual influence and adjustment. Malamah-Thomas explains it: "the teacher acts upon the learners to cause a

reaction. This reaction informs some action performed by the learners… The teacher studies this action … She in turn reacts ad builds this into her subsequent action on the class, and so on" (1987:39) as illustrated in **Figure (1)**:

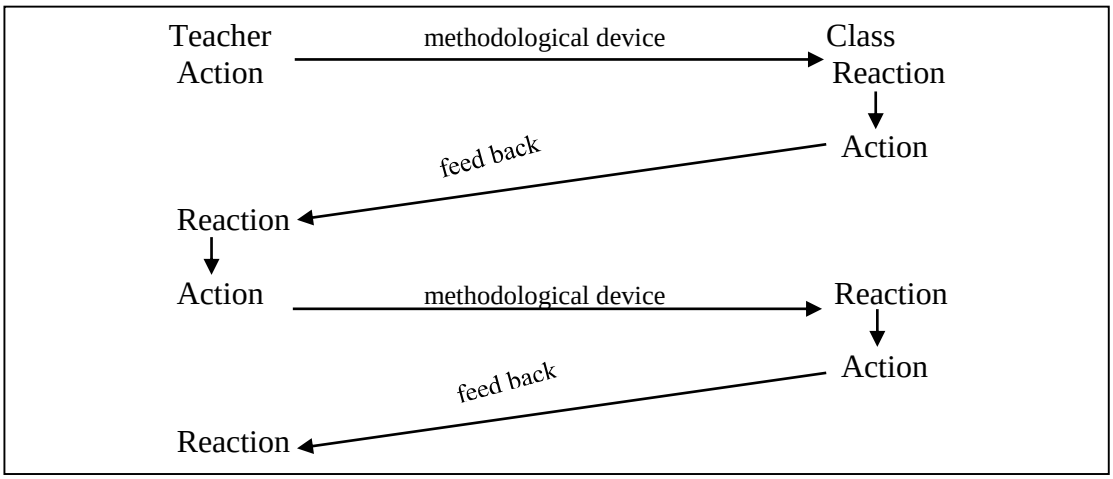

Figure (1): Reciprocal Action in Pedagogic Interaction (ibid.)

The teaching and learning setting of the classroom has been given the metaphor of a crucible to describe the constant interaction between teacher and the students within the precincts of the classroom through the "pouring back and forth" by "gathering together and taking apart" in the face-to-face communication (Roger Brown, 1968 in Kaye, 1979:191), in addition to forging knowledge of a Target Language (TL) **(**Gaies, 1980 in Tsui, 1995)

Allwright (1984) suggests that "everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction," and as such qualifying interaction to be "the fundamental fact of language pedagogy" (in Loewen et al., 2009: 279; and Ellis, 1992: 7-8). That is to say that whatever learners learn in the classroom is essentially derived from the interactions they experience. This claim is upheld by Hall and Verplaetse (2000) who posit that while interacting with each other, teachers and students work together to create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development. Tsui (op cit.) underscores the centrality of process of interaction which serves not only as a necessary tool for the provision of lessons by the teacher, but also as an activator or a catalyst for learning by the students.

Once again, classrooms allow the different members to interact together in various forms and combinations, as Rivers points out, interaction can be two-way,

three-way, or four-way, but never one-way. Therefore, she exhorts teachers to learn this very fact to guide them away from dominating classroom talk because "Teacher-directed and dominated classrooms cannot, by their nature, be interactive classrooms" (op cit.: 9). River's remarks are well-founded given that several studies point out that teacher talk accounts for approximately two thirds of class time (Chaudron, 1988). Hence, the language classrooms are not really interactive. If teacher talk dominates most of the lesson time, this provokes a chain of negative reactions such as limiting students' participation in class which in turn diminishes the classroom interaction's enabling function of providing conditions for learning (Malamah-Thomas, op cit.).

In sum, as long as teachers are aware of their role to facilitate and create opportunities for learning, their use of discourse will enable students to actively engage in learning and to transform opportunities for interaction into learning. In this regard, Consolo reiterates: "the quality of teachers' classroom language can contribute to language development, in so much as it fosters regular patterns of CD (*classroom discourse*) that favor learners' verbal contributions and active participation in discourse" (2000a: 92). The regular patterns that characterize classroom interaction are dealt with in the following section.

2. Classroom Interaction Patterns

The classroom is home to different interaction patterns between the different participants. Most of these patterns are controlled by the teacher, as the next section shows, but this does not preclude the existence of student-initiated phenomena. Nevertheless, the light will be shed on the teacher's patterns being: the IRF exchange, turn-taking and turn-allocation, and teacher-talk, respectively.

2.1. The IRF Exchange

1	T	I	people who walk… usually take this part of the street **(picture on handouts)**, we call it? (2)
2	S	R	the road=
3	T	F	=PAVEMENT; the road is the place where the car is. This is the road, cars move on a ROAD, or on roads, but pedestrians, people who walk, move on the PAVEMENT… (**Appendix II)**

This exchange between a teacher and her students is typical of classroom talk. It proceeds along the following steps:

1 *Initiation*: the teacher refers students to the pictures on the hand-outs, asks a display question to which she already knows the answer in order to see if the students possess the required knowledge and can display it.
2 *Response*: a student responds incorrectly, but also elliptically, using a syntactically reduced answer consisting of just one word.
3 *Follow-up*: the teacher evaluates the learner's response, disapproving of it, but explains the difference between the student's term and the correct one, and illustrates further.

This particular form of classroom interaction consisting of an *Initiation* move by the teacher and a *Response* move by the learner followed by a *Follow-up* move by the teacher is called a teaching exchange. Shortly referred to as IRF or IRE (Initiation-Response-Follow-up/Feedback or Initiation-Response-/Evaluation). This particular exchange is considered one of the most frequently occurring types of teacher-student talk in the classroom. It is the archetypal form of interaction between a teacher and a pupil indeed (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Bellack et al., 1966; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; and van Lier, 1988). However, it does not typify the pattern of talk in all classroom activities since different patterns of exchanges in classroom are also possible (e.g. in which students ask questions of teachers or of other students, or initiate contributions). Generally speaking, IRFs have been observed as a common feature in classrooms, teaching various languages the world over.

IRF interactional exchanges are used as a pedagogical tool to accomplish a common function in classrooms i.e. eliciting from learners knowledge of the relevant curriculum subject they are expected to know beforehand or after instruction. In this regard, Edwards and Westgate say:

> *Most classroom talk which has been recorded displays a clear boundary between knowledge and ignorance … To be asked a question by someone who wants to know is to be given the initiative in deciding the amount of information to be offered and the manner of telling. But to be asked by someone who already knows and wants to know if you know, is to have your answer accepted, rejected or otherwise evaluated according to the questioner's beliefs about what is relevant and true. (1994: 48)*

The three-turn format of IRF is a structure that puts the teacher in charge. It is, as stated above, found in teacher-fronted classrooms where "one participant has acknowledged responsibility for the direction of the discourse" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975:5). The asymmetry of the teacher-initiated IRF pattern reveals and contributes to

the imbalance of power in the classroom, and often results in students' relative powerlessness. This powerlessness is apparent at the levels of discourse and epistemology.

On the one hand, the teacher dominates the discourse by taking twice as many turns as the students in most IRF exchanges, namely the initiation and follow-up turn. The students' action is limited in the response slot. The fact that the student's turn is sandwiched between two turns by the teacher is discouraging to student's initiation and student repair work. It is extremely hard in the IRF format, as van Lier (2001) explains, for the student to ask questions, to disagree, to self-correct, develop a sense of control and self-regulation, a sense of ownership of the discourse or a sense of being empowered. The IRF also prevents the students from doing turn taking, topic development or lesson structuring. The triadic pattern prompts students' utterances to be often highly elliptical and syntactically reduced too. What is more, a question alone can also be seen as a powerful discourse tool owing to the fact that questions lend a certain control over the discourse to the questioner. Sacks (1992:54) notes: "as long as one is in the position of doing the questions, then, in part, they have control of the conversation". However, the idea of striking a balance so that a symmetry between participants is reached within the institutional setting of the classroom is neither practical nor is it desirable. This is because too many spontaneous student questions may lead the lesson away from the set goals especially in classroom where there is a compulsory syllabus to be taught along some given methodological outlines.

On the other hand, the students are powerless on epistemological accounts too. The teacher is regarded as the channel for the transmission of knowledge. In the IRF, the students are encouraged to respond, contributing answers that can be evaluated in the third turn. This is essentially a paradigm that functions well when teachers typically ask questions for which they already know the answers and also expect students to know them. A case in point would be testing or assessing students' knowledge. The asymmetry of the IRF is best shown by the quick judgment given to a student who asks questions to which they know the answer, definitely dismissed as showing off. Nor is it acceptable to give a student the role to evaluate the teacher.

The asymmetry of the role relationships between teachers and learners, reflected in the ubiquity of an IRF routine, is detrimental to learners in several ways summarized by van Lier (1996, 184-85) in terms of "reduced student participation, less expressive language use, a loss of contingency, and severe limitations on the students' employment

of initiative and self-determination." Mercer (2001) warns of the danger of relying heavily and continuously on traditional, formal question-and-answer reviews for guiding learning. Understandably, such practice allows students little opportunity for using language in more creative ways such as experimenting with new types of language constructions. Similarly, Stubbs (1983) views teachers as dominating and precluding students of opportunities to express original ideas. Students are supposed to toe the line as he (ibid.: 125) describes the IRF as "…a monologue with the pupil supplying short answers on demand to contribute to the teacher's train of thought".

However, such a view of language classroom interaction overlooks that that interaction is a 'coproduction' (Allwright, 1984 in Ellis, 1992), and that teachers and learners are jointly responsible for managing classroom interaction. In this regard, Johnson (1995: 39) points out: "… students actively engage, to a greater or lesser degree, in the creation of what occurs in classrooms and, thus, affect classroom events as much as they are affected by them"

Despite the restrictive nature of the IRF, discussed above; it still has merits that make it a tool with many pedagogical functions summarized by Lemke (1990: 11) as follows:

> *…teachers don't usually deviate from the Triadic pattern because maintaining it gives the teacher many advantages. In this structure teachers get to initiate exchanges, set the topic, and control the direction in which the topic develops. They get to decide which students will answer which questions and to say which answers are correct … they can even decide which answers will count as the legitimate answer.*

Wells (1993) admits that the triadic pattern of interaction in classroom serves various pedagogic functions. These include checking and monitoring individual students' existing knowledge, using the correct responses of some students as models of correct answers for the whole class, and providing, also, opportunities to extend the students' answer (ibid.). As far as Mercer (2001) is concerned, he views these as quite legitimate functions of teacher-talk, and all teachers might expect to use language in this way quite frequently.

The discussion that follows explores further the nature of turn-taking and turn-allocation mechanisms. Such tools underlie and contribute to the establishing of routines in the classroom, the most pervasive of which being the IRF pattern in teacher-student interaction as shown above.

2.2. Turn-Taking and Turn-Allocation

Teacher talk as well as the IRF exchange, explained in the previous sections, imply that one of the key features of classroom interaction is the exchange of turns and roles between the teacher and students and between students themselves.

Turn-taking has to do with the allocation and acquisition of turns i.e. how turns are exchanged in a talk or conversation. Turn allocation describes the ways in which turns are given to the next speaker or speakers, while turn acquisition shows how turns are received. In other words, turn taking or turn acquisition determines the kind of action(s) the next speaker(s) can or should take when it is his/her turn (Koole & Berenst, 2008; Koole, 2006 in Nomlomo, 2010). Being the authority in the classroom, the teacher decides on who is allowed to speak and when. In other words, the teacher's turn-allocation behaviour affects the students' participation or turn-taking behaviour.

Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974) propose a seminal model for conversational turn-taking in conversation or talk-in-interaction. The model posits turn-taking is organized on a sequential, turn-by-turn basis. Turn taking is described in terms of two components: a turn-constructional component and a turn-allocational component, each defined by a set of rules as follows: Turn constructional components have two main features. First, they are realized by a word, a phrase, a clause or a sentence having the property of 'projectablity' i.e. the interlocutor knows that the unit is possibly complete from a syntactic point of view. Second, Turn construction components come to serve as 'transition-relevance places' at their boundaries. In other words, upon the completion of a turn, or a turn-constructional unit, a transition-relevance place becomes available, which then triggers the application of a set of rules for the turn-allocational component in the following order: the current speaker's selection of the next speaker, the next speaker's self-selection, and the current speaker's continuation. Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974) refer to 'mundane' conversation as a particular form of talk in which what people say, how they say it and the length of the turn in which they say it, are free to vary. Hatch corroborates this claim saying, "Conversations are supposed to by symmetrical, that is each party should receive a fair share of turns at talk" (1992:53). A constant dynamics ensures this equity of turn stemming from competition and initiative. As van Lier (1988) explains, turn taking in conversation is governed by competition and initiative: participants compete or look for opportunities to take the floor and, once they hold it, they try to maintain it even if there is another person who wants to hold the floor. In doing so, the chances for the

interlocutor to take the turn are clearly minimized. In such cases, the hearers look for possible end points as a chance to get their turn, even if they know that the present turn may take a longer time.

Equality in turn-taking and turn-distribution, competition and initiative that characterize conversation become less and less flexible speech-exchange systems, such as the IRF exchange, found in the classroom. Specifically, the 'current speaker selects next speaker' option is available only for the teacher, while the 'next speaker self-selects' is only minimally available when the student perceives that it is appropriate or necessary to initiate such as asking for a clarification. Put differently, learners in classrooms do not enjoy the same level of control of the patterns of communication, which is allowed by informal conversation in non-institutional settings.

In the context of classrooms, Allwright and Bailey (1991) distinguish between two kinds of turn-allocation behaviour: personal solicit and general solicit. The former is accomplished by the teacher nominating or using gestures such as eye gaze and pointing, whereas the latter is executed by asking a question and looking round the class or explicitly stating that anybody can answer the question. Tsui (1995) observes that a common practice is to start off with general solicit to get everybody's attention. In case this fails to elicit responses, personal solicit is resorted to to keep the brisk pace of the lesson and to move it forward. Moreover, teachers can shift from personal solicit to general solicit or another personal solicit to remove the pressure off the first personal solicit and to make sure that the students are following the lesson. Solicits, therefore, can perform a variety of functions for teachers including, but not limited to, managing classroom, focusing attention for those students who are not following and structuring a lesson, to begin it and move it forward.

Involving every student, treating students fairly and giving every student in the class an equal opportunity to participate in the lesson constitute principles that teachers are aware of and think that they do. However, what teachers think they do and what they actually do may be totally different owing to the fact that they have different motivations for allocating turns. This results in teachers' interacting with some students in the class more frequently than others, and creates what Richards and Lockhart (1996:139) denote as the teacher's action zone, which they identify by:

> *- those students with whom the teacher regularly enters into eye contact;*
> *- those students to whom the teacher addresses questions;*

-those students who are nominated to take an active part in the lesson.

In addition, Tsui (1995) observes that most teachers tend to allocate more turns to active students, volunteers and those who enthusiastically bid for turns so as not to discourage them. Some teachers allocate turns to students who know the answer because they want to save time and cover more material. Uneven turn-allocation for a long time runs the risk of making the shy and weak students neglected and more reluctant to participate. In addition, different tasks require different turn-allocation behaviours.

Turn-taking behaviour can be divided into (1) solicit i.e the turn taken when the teachers seek the answer to a question; (2) students can 'take the turn' when they are specifically nominated; or (3) make initiative to answer, that is a 'self-selected' turn; (4) an unsolicited or 'initiating' turn is one in which the students initiate contributions without being invited or asked to do so; and (5) another kind of turn is the 'private' turn or quiet turn, which is attached little or no importance at all by teachers, and which can serve to practise language or respond to questions through talk directed at oneself only. These students may be shy or apprehensive about contributing in class should be noticed and driven by tact to make their turns public.

Attention was also drawn to the asymmetry that exists between the roles of participants in the classroom with the teacher being in a position of power or authority, and holding tight control of the patterns of communication. Part of the factors that contribute to the distinguished teacher status resides in their authority to manage both the topic of conversation, decide on turn-taking and orchestrate students' responses. In this regard, Walsh (2011) points out that

> *Even in the most decentralised and learner-centred classroom, teachers decide who speaks, when, to whom and for how long. Teachers are able to interrupt when they like, take the floor, hand over a turn, direct the discussion, switch topics. (4-5)*

Most of these decisions and actions are framed in a type of language or register with distinguished characteristics as will be demonstrated in the next section.

2.3.Teacher-Talk

The kind of language used by the teacher for the purpose of instruction in the classroom is known as teacher talk (TT). Teacher Talk was referred by Richards & Schmidt (2010: 588) to:

> *that variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching. In trying to communicate with learners, teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of foreigner talk and other simplified styles of speech addressed to language learners.*

Teacher-talk, then, is thought of as a sub-variety of 'foreigner-talk'. The latter is a special register used by native speakers (NSs) to address non-native speakers (NNSs). It is characterized by number of modifications that affect all levels of language – pronunciation, lexis, grammar and discourse. According to Ellis (2012:117),

> *foreigner-talk can serve a number of different functions in NS–NNS talk: (1) it assists effective communication by making it easier for the interlocutors to understand, (2) it signals, implicitly or explicitly, the NS's attitudes towards the NNSs (i.e. by establishing an affective bond or, in some cases, by signalling NS status through 'talking down'), and (3) it teaches the target language (TL) implicitly.*

It is worthy to mention that the term 'foreigner talk' was, in turn, forged as a parallel expression to "baby talk" or 'caretaker-talk', modified speech used by adults when speaking with babies or young children who do not have full adult competence in the Mother Language (L1)

The modifications that teachers bring to their speech are used adjust to learner's level of comprehension as well as learners' production. Chaudron (1988: Chapter 3) provides a comprehensive survey of teacher-talk studies. He found that teacher talk is finely-tuned to learners' general proficiency level. Following is a summary of the main characteristics of systematic simplification of the formal properties of the teacher's language:

- Teacher talk takes up about two-thirds of the total talking time which they use to explain information, manage classroom interaction, question, and command learners to respond …etc.
- Slow speech rate: teachers tend to slow down their rate of speech when talking to classroom learners as opposed to other native speakers and also do so to a greater extent with less proficient learners.
- Frequent and long pauses: teachers tend to pause more and to use longer pauses when talking to language learners, especially lower-level students than to other NSs.
- Modifying pronunciation: teachers tend to speak more loudly and to make their speech more distinct using a clearer articulation or a more standard style of

speech, one which contains fewer reductions and contractions than they would use outside of a teaching situation.

- Modifying vocabulary: teachers tend to use high-frequency words resulting in a lower type–token ratio. They vary their use of vocabulary in accordance with the learners' proficiency level.
- Modifying syntax: teachers are inclined towards using shorter utterances with less proficient learners. They also avoid using complex tenses, and the degree of subordination tends also to be lower.
- Modifying grammar: teachers often simplify the grammatical structure of sentences in the classroom, and use fewer marked structures such as past tense.
- Modifying discourse: teachers may repeat themselves or answer their own questions in order to make themselves understood.
- Teachers have been found to use more self-repetitions with L2/FL learners, in particular when they are of low-level proficiency.
- Ungrammatical teacher-talk is rare. However, it has been observed to occur in teaching contexts where the teacher is endeavouring to establish an affective bond with students of low-level proficiency.

Teacher talk, as specified by the various studies which are summarized by Chaudron clearly differs from speech in other settings. It also differs from foreigner talk because it is more grammatical and strives more to make salient the formal features of the TL to learners. It can be thought of as a set of adjustments that teachers make, specifically and temporarily, to NNS or low-level proficiency students, and serve the purpose of supporting and promoting communication by first facilitating learner comprehension.

The contribution of TT to language learning i.e. whether or not and how it promotes comprehension, acquisition and interaction will be discussed under the heading of Theories of Interaction. The discussion now moves to another aspect of teacher talk which is questioning.

3. Questions and Classroom Interaction

This section explores the nature of questions, and summarizes the relevant literature in the fields of education and language teaching to classify questions. Attention later is drawn to questioning techniques.

3.1.The Nature of Questions

Socrates' (469 BC - 399 BC in Wragg & Brown, 2001), the well-known Greek philosopher, is credited for being the pioneer of education. He practised teaching by asking questions and drawing out answers from his pupils. Hence, the word 'education' has its roots in the Greek word *'ex duco'*, which means to 'lead out'. Socrates is believed to have said, "I cannot teach anybody anything, I can only make them think." The Socratic Method in teaching proceeds to solve a problem by breaking it down into a series of questions, the answers to which gradually lead to the problem solution. By doing so, Socrates demonstrated the power of using questions and answers to give clarifications, challenge assumptions, question beliefs and views, expose contradictions and lead to new knowledge. It is fascinating to learn that questions alone i.e. without any other supporting technique such as explanation or activity such as reading can constitute a self-sufficient method of their own. This is possible, if one considers that questioning is indeed a learner-centered approach that stimulates thinking and leads to the acquisition of knowledge as the following quote of Socrates as reported in Wragg & G.Brown (2001:27) illustrates:

> *No one can teach, if by teaching we mean the transmission of knowledge, in any mechanical fashion, from one person to another. The most that can be done is that one person who is more knowledgeable than another can, by asking a series of questions, stimulate(s) the other to think, and so cause(s) him to learn for himself.*

Historically, therefore, questioning has long been adopted as an effective teaching technique and learning strategy. The technique of questioning in modern days still challenges and draws the attention of researchers and practitioners in the field of teaching languages.

Before carrying out further discussion about questions, it is quintessential to consider what counts as a question. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines a question as "a sentence, a phrase, or word that asks for information." (2000: 1080). Regarding form, most utterances and sentences functioning as questions in English, have an inverted verb and subject. However, grammatical form alone cannot determine the communicative function of an utterance. According to McCarthy (1991:7), "the inverted form *in itself* does not inherently carry an exclamatory or a questioning function." Thus, an un-inverted grammatical form might also function as a question by virtue of its phonological form – which leads to the logical conclusion that in order to

decide on the communicative function of an utterance, both its grammatical and phonological forms must be examined together, and in the context in which it appears. (ibid.)

It follows, from the discussion above that a question is any expression – be it a sentence, an utterance, a phrase or a word – which has an interrogative form and/or function. In classroom settings, teacher questions are defined as instructional cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it (Cotton, 1988).

3.2. Question Types

The following discussion shows that questions have been studied extensively in the field of Second and Foreign Language Teaching, but that it is the broad and all-inclusive field of education and educational research that takes precedence for making pioneering attempts to understand and classify questions. Understandably, educational research predates by far that of Second and Foreign Language Teaching, which is a relatively modern field.

3.2.1. Taxonomies of Questions in Education

The multidisciplinary interest in questions, while necessary to cover as much as possible phenomena pertaining to questions, has yielded a dazzling array of taxonomies (Cunningham, 1987). This is just one side of the complex image as Richards & Lockhart (1996) impute this phenomenon to the fact that researchers find it difficult to settle on commonly agreed discrete and directly observed categories. The following discussion singles out three taxonomies: Bloom et al.'s (1956), Dillon's (1984) and Gallagher and Aschner's (1963). Criteria for selecting these three works include the different vantage points offered for a better understanding of questions and the triangulation obtained by comparing types in each system with counterparts from other systems. Bloom's work takes the lion's share of discussion for its being the pioneer, influential and most thorough taxonomy.

3.2.1.1. Bloom's Taxonomy (1956)

As early as the twentieth century, studies on methods of teaching have found that questioning, especially in the recitation form, was the most common teaching activity at all grade levels. It was not until Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Will & Krathwohl (1956)

develop a taxonomy of educational objectives based on a hierarchy of cognitive processes that researchers found a useful model for classifying questions and teaching goals in general.

In Bloom's framework, questions are put on a hierarchy according to whether they require high or low levels of cognitive objectives. In other words, the cognitive level of a question is determined by the response requested by the teacher. Accordingly, questions are categorized as knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis or evaluation questions. **Appendix III** builds on Dalton and Smith (1986) and Huitt (2011) to give an exemplified version of Bloom's taxonomy as it pertains to asking questions, but this does not preclude from disambiguating each level in the taxonomy.

At the bottom of the hierarchy, people generally ask *knowledge* questions which involve "... those behaviors and test situations which emphasize the remembering, either by recognition or recall, of ideas, material, or phenomena" (Bloom et al., 1956: 62).

One level higher, one finds *comprehension* which encompasses the largest class of intellectual abilities and skills emphasized in schools and colleges. While communicating, learners are "expected to know what is being communicated and to be able to make some use of the material or ideas contained in it" (Bloom et al., ibid: 89). Three types of comprehension are distinguished viz. translation, interpretation and extrapolation. Translation means "accuracy with which the communication is paraphrased or rendered from [one] language or form of communication to another."(Bloom et al., ibid: 204). Interpretation signifies reordering, rearrangement, or a new view of the material and extrapolation requires going beyond the given data to determine effects, corollaries … or make estimates, predictions and inferences from the communication in hand.

Next, *application* questions require learners to use abstractions in particular and concrete situations. "Given a problem new to the student, *he* will apply the appropriate abstraction without having to be prompted as to which abstraction is correct or without having to be shown how to use it in that situation," Bloom et al. explain (ibid: 120).

As for *analysis* questions, they are intended to breakdown communication into "its constituent elements or parts such that the relative hierarchy of ideas is made clear and/or the relations between the ideas expressed are made explicit" (Bloom et al., ibid: 205). This involves making clear the organization, systematic arrangement, and

structure which hold the communication together. It may also be directed at the techniques and devices used to convey the meaning or to establish the conclusion of a communication.

After testing decomposing; learners should be able to compose; this is possible using *synthesis* questions as referred to in the taxonomy. Here, learners need to put together elements and parts so as to form a whole as in the process of assembling ideas for a book, a plan or express abstract relations (Bloom et al., ibid).

At the top of mental operation, which is considered as the culmination of all learning, are *evaluation* questions. To judge the value of ideas, works, to find solutions, materials or methods for given purposes are the specifying criteria of these last category. One should be aware not to confuse judgment here with quick decision people ordinarily make, which are called opinions. Bloom et al. (ibid: 186) assert:

> *Customarily, opinions are made at less than a fully conscious level and the individual may not be fully aware of the clues or bases on which he is forming his appraisals…evaluations are highly conscious and ordinarily are based on a relatively adequate comprehension and analysis of the phenomena to be appraised.*

Bloom et al. (1956) recognized the preponderance of *knowledge* questions in all learning, though they are the lowest level of the cognitive domain by positing the following:

> *The major behavior tested in knowledge is whether or not the student can remember and either cite or recognize accurate statements in response to particular questions. Although somewhat more than rote memory is required for knowledge, the form of the question and the level of precision and exactness required should not be too different from the way in which the knowledge was originally learned* (78).

A close analysis of the taxonomy reveals that the lower three levels (i.e. knowledge, comprehension and application) involve lower-cognitive learning, and the upper three (i.e. analysis, synthesis and evaluation) involve higher-cognitive learning. It also stands to logic that a strong understanding of the lower cognitive levels is essential to effectively carry out the next higher-cognitive operations. For example, to apply a method, theory, principle, or abstraction requires *comprehension* of what is to be applied. Moreover, it can be said, cautiously though, that not attempting to delve into higher levels may be detrimental to learning as it may deprive learners of sophisticated ways of thinking. This view is mirrored by educators who have assumed

that asking higher order questions rather than lower order questions is a catalyst to develop high levels of cognition. Bloom et al. (ibid) again were pioneer of this claim positing that "It is probable that tasks involving synthesis objectives provide a wider kind of experience than those involving mainly acquisition of ideas" (167).

3.2.1.2. Dillon's Taxonomy (1984)

Dillon (1984) makes a distinction between a recitation and a discussion following his studies of teacher questioning. This is a distinction that stirred much debate and had gained ground across the various educational disciplines.

Dillon qualifies recitation as those sequences of teacher question followed by student answer, where students "recite" what they already know or are coming to know through the questioning. He states: "Recitation is a rubric covering various activities called review, drill, quiz, guided discovery, inquiry teaching, Socratic method" (1984: 50). In so doing, the teacher holds the status of the keeper and dispenser of knowledge who is displaying or uncovering to the students things they are unaware of, a know-all, so to speak. In a recitation, the teacher primarily dominates the speaking floor. The teacher asks a question and the student responds, giving way to the emergence then the establishment of a pattern of question and answer sequences.

Discussion, on the opposite end of the spectrum, describes group interaction too, but interaction here is of a different character, as Dillon lays it out as: "…a rubric, too, covering various activities in which teacher and students 'discuss' what they don't know" (1984: 51). This means that discussion is a tool that allows genuine communication in the classroom, and what is more, a discussion keeps all its secrets and unfolds only as participants contribute to it, gearing and directing it *impromptu*. In short, discussion calls for the teacher and student talking through and discovering the unknown. Bridges in Dillon (ibid: 51-52) qualifies discussants as follows:

> *(a)They are putting forward more than one point of view upon a subject; (b) They are at least disposed to examine and to be responsive to the different points of view put forward; with (c) The intention of developing their knowledge, understanding and/ or judgment on the matter under discussion.*

More specific distinctions point out that recitation is characterized by teacher-student interacting about recall of curriculum content, and discussion involves longer student-student exchanges, mobilizing thinking processes and leading to attitude change in the process.

3.2.1.3. Gallagher and Aschner's Taxonomy (1963)

A further classification is offered the Gallagher & Aschner's Questioning System (1963). For the purposes of their research – investigating productive thought in gifted children – , Gallagher & Aschner developed a system for classifying thought processes within the context of classroom verbal interaction. It should be noted that the system is based on Guilford's three-dimensional model of intellectual processes (1956), which first identified convergent and divergent thinking.

Gallagher & Aschner (1963) take a purely cognitive approach to dichotomize convergent and divergent questions, with each having a low order category and a high order category leading to a four level dissection of questions. The resulting taxonomy consists of five types of questions in classrooms: routine, cognitive-memory, convergent, divergent and evaluative. Level I routine questions refer to procedural matters. At level II, questions dubbed cognitive-memory, or low order convergent, are the ones that require students to engage in reproduction of facts and other items of remembered content. Level III high order convergent questions mean to engage students in first levels of productive thinking which requires the analysis or integration of given or remembered data, leading to one expected result. One can see the leap from imitation, repetition or the treatment of others' data to first steps of creating products of personal thinking. Up the scale, low order divergent questions seek to make students think critically about information i.e. they permit an independent generation of ideas, directions, or perspectives in a data-poor situation. Level V, which places high order divergent questions, understandably, because they require students to perform original thinking. These evaluative questions are concerned with values rather than facts and convey a judgmental quality.

To illustrate matters graphically, as a means of helping teachers assess and improve their questioning techniques, Pate and Bremer (1967) develop a self-analysis instrument called the Question Analyzer.

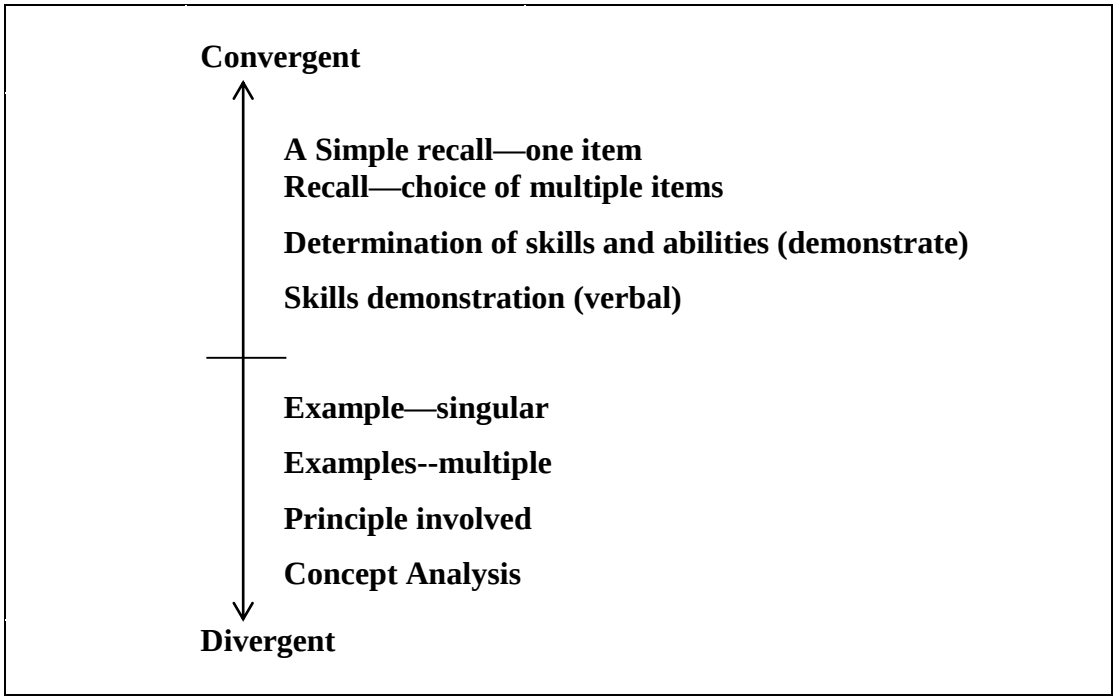

Figure (2): Question Analyzer Pate and Bremer (1967) in Phyllis Newcastle (1971)

To sum up the discussion about taxonomies of questions in education, one can refer to **Table 1** below. These early conceptualizations influenced subsequent classifications within the field of the language teaching, as will be discussed in the next section. In fact, starting from the 1990s, there has been a shift or an inclination to use *ad hoc* dichotomous taxonomies i.e. classify questions for specific purposes of research (Good & Brophy, 2008).

Bloom et al. (1956)	**Dillon (1984)**	**Gallagher and Aschner (1963)**
To know	Recitation	Routine
To comprehend		Low Order Convergent
To apply		High Order Convergent
To analyse	Discussion	Low Order Divergent
To synthesize		Low Order Divergent
To evaluate		

Table 1: Three Taxonomies of Questions in General Education

3.2.2. Ad Hoc Taxonomies of Questions in Foreign Language Teaching

As far as FL and L2 teaching is concerned, it is worth noting that much interaction in the classroom is generated by the teacher asking questions, which constitute 20 to 40 per cent of teacher talk (Chaudron, 1988). Questions constitute also a necessary means of exposing learners to the TL, and "may be a crucial input feature fostering development of second language abilities," (Brock, 1986: 47). Concerning the

high frequency of using questions in conversations between NSs and NNSs, and - by analogy - between teachers and learners, Long (1983) attributes it to the fact that questions serve to initiate topics, generate the obligation to respond, provide assistance to the NNS in the form of partially or fully pre-formulated responses, and add salience by such linguistic features as rising intonation and *wh*- words.

Different classifications of questions abound in the literature. Questions can be classified according to their form into closed and open questions. When purpose is the criterion of classification, display and referential questions as well as convergent and divergent questions are obtained, all of which will be presented below.

3.2.2.1. Closed vs. Open Questions

As far as their form is concerned, questions are arranged into closed and open questions with the former denoting the questions having only one acceptable answer, whereas for the latter, a number of different answers are acceptable.

Yes-no questions and closed-choice questions (also called alternative questions), which require the interlocutor to respond with one of a closed series of choices, are essentially closed in nature. Other types of closed questions include echo questions i.e. declarative statements which require confirmation or repetition from the interlocutor as well as tag questions (Richards & Schmidt, op cit.). A tag question consists of a declarative sentence followed by a question tag. When there is rising intonation on the tag, this question type requests confirmation (e.g. *He's happy*, *isn't he?*) but when the tag has rise–fall intonation this indicates that the speaker believes the proposition to be true and is merely requesting agreement (*He's happy, isn't he?*).

Open questions, on the other hand, are also referred to with the common term of wh-questions. Looking at the question word used, "what, when, who and where"-questions are called factual while reasoning questions make use of "why, how". Dalton-Puffer (2006:192) points out that: "truly open questions … leave the respondent more space for their response and, also, tend to put higher demands on their linguistic encoding skills."

However, there can be an interface between these two types of questions. One commonly encounters *open* questions which permit only one acceptable answer; likewise, it is possible to encounter *closed* questions which have a range of acceptable answers instead of only one choice, or questions which prompt for a short answer superficially, but are always answered by adding extra information.

Closed questions are restrictive on student' language output and they are even more so when the teacher provides the sentence structure as a clue. It is rendered a blank-filling question in this case, significantly easier for learners than wh- questions in that learners are required only to confirm, deny or select from a series of possible answers contained in the question itself (Long, 1983; Long and Sato, 1983). Nevertheless, they are relatively easy to understand and to answer (Dalton-Puffer, 2006).

3.2.2.2. Display vs. Referential Questions

According to their purpose, questions are classified into display questions i.e. questions for which the teacher already knows the answer and questions for which the teacher does not know the answer i.e. referential questions. Richards & Schmidt (op cit.) explain that while a referential question is a real question in that it brings something new to the knowledge of the questioner, a display question is not, but serves to provide language practice.

When asking display questions, the teacher aims at gaining new information "not on the subject matter itself but on the state of mind of the student… putting a topic, or a knowledge item on the communal 'floor' and thus make it available for collective inspection or discussion" (Dalton-Puffer, 2006:191-2). Put differently, a teacher asks display questions not to obtain new knowledge but to ascertain whether the learner already knows, arouse interest, stimulate recall, deepen understanding and serve as a springboard for further discussion, as in the case of warming up for a topic or a language point. Moreover, display questions are used by teachers as a means for facilitating the explanation of lexical items, structures, and messages as well as providing a wide exposure to vocabulary that may be useful to basic personal communication, as suggested by Richards and Rodgers (1986). These teachers' uses of display questions explain, in part, their preponderance in classroom. In addition, teachers require students to understand different kinds of things, and to show different levels of understanding, as exemplified by Jane Willis (1981: 91) as follows:

the main points in a reading or listening passage
specific details in a reading or listening passage
the attitudes of the author or the characters in a task
the meanings of particular words or expressions
the reference value of words like he and them
the meaning of a particular structure item
the general situation in a dialogue

It should be noted that overuse of display questions at the expense of other techniques, a quality which -as will be demonstrated later- characterizes most classrooms, is ill-advised and may lead to some counter-effects; some of which are so demotivating that they require teachers to think twice before asking. A class is enlivened by discussion, and display questions establish routines that may provoke boredom and withdrawal. Such classrooms, as Good and Brophy comment, are:

> *boring and accomplish little other than the assessment of students' factual knowledge. Such assessment is important, but if that is all that is done in discussion, students may come to perceive that the teacher is interested only in finding out who knows the answers. When this occurs, discussion becomes a fragmented ritual rather than a meaningful, enjoyable process* (in Nunan 1991: 192).

Put otherwise, adopting display questions as the main technique of questioning or eliciting students' responses denatures, as it were, the communication in classrooms in ways that take back communication and discussion to mechanical and routine practices that reflect none other than the behavioristic views to teaching.

On the other end of the spectrum lies the favored type of questions in communicative classrooms, but one should be careful not to run the risk of generalizing that referential questions yield better results at all points or that teachers should turn to their exclusive use and renounce to the use of display questions. This is to say that referential questions stand a better chance of being congruent with the aims of a communicative classroom, and –which is more interesting– were proved at times to contribute to an increase in learners' productions qualitatively and quantitatively. This status gained by the second category of the dichotomy is acknowledged by Chaudron (1988) who comes to this conclusion based on his own and other studies:

> *With the growth in concern for communication in language classrooms… the supposition is that open/general questions, or referential questions, would promote greater learner productivity, and the latter would likely promote more meaningful communication between teacher and learner (127)*

Comparing the two types of question according to their intellectual level, Brock (1986) classifies display questions at the lowest level of the hierarchy and referential questions at the highest following Bloom's taxonomy –which was reviewed in the previous section dealing with taxonomies of questions in general education. Brock's classification is utterly minute and congruent with Gallagher & Aschner' s (1963) statement that "… questions at low cognitive levels, asking for factual recall or

recognition, are display questions, while questions calling for evaluation or judgment are likely to be referential questions" (Brock, 1986:48). A statement that is outright as far as display questions are concerned, but stops short of assigning all referential questions to be of high cognitive level, though one is inclined to believe so.

Tsui (1995) observes that the preponderance of one category over another i.e. display questions outnumbering referential ones or *vice versa* is a major determinant of the nature of interaction in the classroom. On this basis she posits that didactic discourse is generated by asking knowledge-checking questions, whereas meaningful communication, which is typical of social communication, is brought about by referential questions.

3.2.2.3. Convergent vs. Divergent Questions

Barnes (1969, 1976 in Chaudron, 1988: 126-127) concludes his observational study in secondary school classrooms in Britain by making a distinction between 'closed reasoning questions' that are framed with only one acceptable answer which is convergent in character, and 'open reasoning questions' which permit a number of different acceptable answers which are divergent in nature. These two types of questions are often called close-ended/open-ended or close/open questions. One would understandably surmise that the discussion of the convergent/ divergent dichotomy is redundant, having already been covered under another appellation for the same dichotomy. However, it should be noted, by way of reiterating the introduction to the section on types of questions in language teaching, that the previous open/close questions were discussed with an eye to specify the various forms they take. In addition, convergent questions are slightly different from close ones in that they encourage student responses to focus or converge on a central theme, and therefore, offer more space for different responses. By contrast, divergent questions elicit student varied or divergent responses.

Another dichotomy that bears resemblance to the convergent/ divergent categorization is made by some L2 researchers between *specific* and *general* information questions (Bialystok et al., 1978; and Naiman et al., 1978 in Chaudron, 1988). Specific questions expect a particular, usually brief, closed set of responses while general questions are those which leave open the nature and length of the expected responses.

Like closed questions, convergent questions require a single correct answer and are used, in the main, to elicit short responses or to call attention to specific skills or information. By contrast, divergent questions give space to more than one answer, often have no right or wrong answers and may be used by the teacher to raise discussion about a topic by comparing different students' ideas and opinions about it. In other words, they encourage students to give their own opinion rather than recall some previously learnt material (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

It has been established that convergent questions are an invaluable tool for teachers to guide the lesson along a carefully-structured plan. When teachers perceive deficiency in students' listening and speaking skills, convergent questions are used to encourage uncomplicated and accessible language production. Their virtue, according to Richards & Lockhart is that they "develop aural skills and vocabulary and … encourage whole-class participation" (ibid.: 186). As for divergent questions, they offer the possibility for the teacher to establish real personal involvement, and thus can be expected to lead to more communicative use of language. Lessons which ensure and are based on varied individual contributions do not usually serve a well-designed lesson topic or goal; nevertheless, they have the potential of strengthening intrinsic motivation. This last remark points out that the teacher should be aware of the type of questions they can use, in this case to avert the problem of not fulfilling the aim of the lesson. Teachers are also called to master a range of questioning skills to promote, inter alia, participation, motivation and learning. These are reviewed underneath.

3.3. Questioning Skills

While is important for the teacher to know the type of questions that he/she asks as well as the inventory of questions available, it is equally essential to consider the tactics involved in asking questions. Thus, the manner in which teachers use questions has been the subject of various articles and books in teacher education (Good & Brophy, 2008; Long & Sato, 1983; Wilen, 1987; and Wragg & Brown, 2001)

Good and Brophy (2008) and Wragg and Brown (2001) derive quite similar sets of tactics that organize asking questions from findings of educational research. Wragg & Brown (ibid.) suggest that teacher questioning should be informed by the following tactics suggests that teacher: (A) structuring; (B) pitching and putting clearly; (C) directing and distributing; (D) pausing and pacing; (E) prompting and probing; (F)

listening to replies and responding; and (G) sequencing, as it will be explained below, respectively.

Structuring consists of providing signposts for the sequence of questions and the topic. The structuring may be a brief exposition of the topic, a review of a series of questions and explanations based on a previous lesson or a statement of objectives. Sometimes structuring moves are described as 'pre-formulators' (French & Maclure, 1983 in Wragg & Brown, ibid.) or 'advance organisers' (Ausubel, et al., 1978). Pre-formulators can be used as 'orientations' to deliberately attempt to build on pupils' previous knowledge and experience.

Wragg & Brown (op cit.) use the 'pitch and putt' analogy with the short or miniature golf course. The strategy consists in chipping the ball onto the green (i.e. the area of smooth, very short grass immediately surrounding a hole on a golf course) as close to the hole as possible, and then rolling it in with the putter. In general conversation, 'pitching' is used to denote "estimating the right intellectual level of the people you are teaching, so that you neither bewilder nor patronise them." (ibid.: 29) With reference to questioning, pitching involves selecting appropriately various types of questions which should be adapted to the students' level. The 'putting' analogy refers to choosing the right language register i.e. phrasing the question by using words and phrases that are appropriate to the individual student or group.

The directing and distributing technique is partly dealt with in the section about turn-taking and turn-allocation. It is important that the teacher directs questions by name, gesture, head movement or facial expressions to avoid chorus answers and lack of control that undirected questions may engender. Distributing questions around all the members of the group, in turn, increases the potential of involving more pupils as well as reducing the risk of losing attention and class control.

A teacher 'action zone' is determinant of well-distributed questions. Giving students equal opportunities is easier said than done, according to Richards and Lockhart (1996) who impute this difficulty to the teacher 'action zone'. This latter is determined by: "those students with whom the teacher regularly enters into eye contact; those students to whom the teacher addresses questions; and those students who are nominated to take an active part in the lesson." (ibid: 139). Hence, every teacher has subconsciously personalized action zones which result in some addressing students immediately in front them, brighter and more knowledgeable students or students whose names are easy to remember, to mention but few examples. To make sure that

every student is involved, the teacher can ask every pupil in the group in turn. Alternatively, questions can be distributed randomly around the class.

Last but not least, the teacher's questioning should monitor the body language of the students to identify those who wish to contribute, and deal with problem areas such as lack of attention and incomprehension (Wragg & Brown, op cit.).

In addition, studies on classroom questioning practices found that teachers usually ask a number of questions at a high rate per minute, they receive less answers than they ask, and they sometimes answer their own queries (Rowe, 1987; Tobin, 1987 in Wragg & Brown, op cit.). Tobin (ibid.) shows that pausing briefly after a question and after an answer encourages more pupils to answer. These results are congruent with Rowe's (op cit.) earlier findings which demonstrated that extending the pauses, or 'wait time', before and after responses resulted in the improvement of both the quality and length of pupils' answers, among other things.

For Wragg and Brown (2001), pauses are essential because they act as signals for pace. Both pausing and activity should match the level of the question and the kind of answer to be expected. Good and Brophy (2008) insist that pace and pausing should be adapted to the proficiency level of students, the cognitive level of the question, the expected answer requirements and the goal of the activity:

> *A fast pace and short wait times are appropriate when reviewing specific facts. However, if your questions are intended to stimulate students to think about material and formulate original responses, you need to allow time for these effects to occur. Students may need several seconds to process complex or involved questions before they can begin to formulate responses to them. (321)*

Variations of pace occur in one lesson; thus, it is essential that teachers cue students' responses when a change in pace is effected; otherwise, students may not realize that they are supposed to formulate an original response rather than provide a quick response. The techniques of pausing will be explored further in the separate section entitled Wait Time.

Moreover, prompts and probes are follow-up questions that are posed when the first answers are inadequate or inappropriate. Prompts may contain hints or clues (e.g. 'Think back to what we learned about…'). Wragg & Brown (op cit.:33) single three forms of prompts:

> *(1) rephrasing the question differently, with a view to simplify it using words that relate more closely to the pupil's knowledge and*

> *experience; (2) asking a sequence of simple questions that eventually lead back to the original question; and (3) providing a review of information given so far and then asking questions that will help the pupil to recall or see the answer.*

As for probes, they require more precise or detailed answers than prompts (e.g. 'Can you give me an example…?', 'What do you mean exactly by…?'). Probing questions are thought-provoking and, if used in an encouraging manner, they provide challenges for students, develop the thinking and even poke fun in the classroom.

Furthermore, listening to students' replies, commenting and responding to them are already referred to earlier as feedback or follow-up moves in the discussion about the IRF exchanges; these tactics will be elaborated later under the heading of feedback. However, here they are dealt with from a questioning perspective i.e. when feedback moves come in the form of questions. The teacher questions that follow students' answers show different levels of listening by the teacher. As Wragg and Brown (op cit.:34) posit that these levels range from

> *(a)skim listening which involves little more than awareness that a pupil is talking; (b) survey listening by means of which a teacher tries to build a wider mental map of what the pupil is talking about so as to identify the key points or misunderstandings of the pupil; (c) search listening i.e. active searching for specific information to an answer or to a series of answers; to (d) study listening which consists in a subtle blend of search and survey listening, which goes beyond the words that the pupils use to their underlying meaning and uncertainties.*

Responding is closely tied to listening in that it signals the tone of the lesson and reveals the teacher's enthusiasm, excitement, interest, boredom or indifference to what pupils have to offer. Responding by means of questions helps in sequencing and structuring a lesson, and also serves the functions of prompting and probing – these were already discussed in the previous section above. As for their reinforcement and feedback functions, questions can push students to know whether their responses are correct or brainstorm ideas on discussions that do not admit to right and wrong answers. A common problem with questions, according to Good and Brophy is that they make the teacher appear more interested in quizzing students than in developing understandings. This is especially likely to result from asking too many questions that call for students to regurgitate what the teacher or the text says. Carlson (1997 in Good & Brophy, op cit.:322) warns against the "inquisitorial atmosphere" that might be established from questioning students in harsh terms which may threaten their security

and make it difficult for them to think fluidly. Rather, questions should present interesting challenges and invite friendly exchanges of views that are likely to maximize motivation and yield productive responses.

Last but not least, questions that are intended as teaching devices should be asked in planned sequences where the answers to each sequence should be integrated with previously discussed material before moving on. Good & Brophy (op cit.) point out that initial questions might lead students to identify or review essential facts. The ensuing questions ask the students to refine their understandings and apply them to authentic problems.

Planning sequences of questions can follow different paths. One of these is referred to as extension and lifting by Taba (1971 in Wragg & Brown, op cit.). Extending involves asking a series of questions at low-cognitive levels before lifting the level of questions to the next higher level. Taba suggests that if pupils were to reach more complex levels of thought, they need ample opportunity to work at the lower levels by being asked for, or generating, their own examples and solutions. It should be borne in mind, however, that a good set of questions is good not merely because it contains a significant number of higher-level questions but also because it helps students to think about the topic systematically and emerge with connected understandings (Good & Brophy, op cit.).

4. Wait Time

In the previous section, wait-time was dealt with as a question skill that should be orchestrated with the pacing skill to ensure an appropriate rate and sequence of questions. A detailed discussion here purports to explore different types of wait times and their functions.

Rowe (1974a, b in Rowe, 1987) uses the term ‘wait-time’ to describe the length of time the teacher waits after asking the question and before calling on a student to answer it, rephrasing the question, directing the question to another student, giving the answer, or giving explanations and comment on the student’s answer. Rowe differentiates between two kinds of wait time, namely “wait-time 1” and “wait- time 2”. These types can be inferred from the definition above if one knew that the former precedes the student’s response, whereas the latter follows a student’s response. Hence, “wait time 1” denotes the amount of time the teacher allows to elapse after he/she has

posed a question and before a student begins to speak; and "wait-time 2" refers to the interval of time a teacher waits after a student has stopped speaking. Based on her observation of teachers' questions, Rowe (1974, 1986 in Nunan, 1991: 193) finds that:

> *on average, teachers waited less than a second before calling on a student to respond, and that only a further second was then allowed for the student to answer before the teachers intervened, either supplying the required response themselves, rephrasing the question, or calling on some other student to respond.*

By allowing only little wait time, teachers minimize the value of their questions by failing to give their students time to think. Part of this overwhelming practice or reluctance to extend wait times is attributable to the fact that many teachers fear that if they do, they will lose student attention or even control of the class (Kennedy, 2005 in Good & Brophy, op cit.). Another explanation is that teachers carry over the standard wait time found in most conversations, which is less than one second, into the classrooms (Jefferson 1989 in Walsh, 2006).This creates a dilemma in which teachers are afraid of long pauses and students feel that they were not given an opportunity to formulate response. For those students who need more time to formulate their answer, Cooper et al. (2011) argue that the 'bombing rate' makes their participation a real challenge. Therefore, "not only do fewer students participate, but the quality of their responses is lowered. Less than a second is not a great deal of time to consider what to say, much less how to say it." (Cooper et al., ibid: 115)

Rowe (1987) recommends extending wait time to three seconds or longer, for such a strategy is related to positive outcomes in both the students' and the teachers' patterns of responding, respectively, as mentioned below.

a) Effects of Extended Wait Time on Students

1. *The length of student responses increased between300 and 500percent, in some cases more. Normally students offer the least target possible i.e. they focus on giving the right answer as quickly as possible, but 'wait time 2' is particularly powerful in prompting elaboration.*
2. *Students are more likely to support inference statements by use of evidence and logic based on evidence.*
3. *Students do more speculating about possible alternative explanations or ways of thinking about a topic.*
4. *The number of questions asked by students increases.*
5. *Failures to respond decrease. When wait time 2 increases … more responses and richer responses [are obtained].*
6. *Disciplinary moves decrease: longer wait times may influence perception of caring and thus change motivation for productive participation.*
7. *Student-student exchanges increase and cooperation increases. This outcome is particularly influenced by wait time 2, which is the sum of all those pauses in student speech until the teacher joins the exchange again.*

8. *The variety of students participating voluntarily in discussions increases as does the number of unsolicited, but appropriate contributions. Teachers do not have to ask as many questions as they otherwise might.*
9. *Students gain confidence in their ability to construct explanations and to challenge the logic of a situation. This is reflected in fewer inflected responses, for example, statements that end on a question mark tone as though asking, 'Is that what you want?'*
10. *Achievement on written measures improves, particularly on items that are cognitively more complex.*

b) Effects of Extended Wait Times on Teachers

1. *Teacher responses exhibit greater flexibility, more facility at following the reasoning of students and using it to develop ideas.*
2. *The number and kinds of questions asked by teachers change. More ideas are given by the students that make asking as many questions as previously unnecessary. The pattern of questions and comments changes and the teacher-student exchange begins to sound more like a conversation. Thus, teachers become more attuned to trying to understand students' reasoning, and tend to invite more clarification or elaboration on their part.*
3. *Expectations for performance of certain students seem to improve. As a wider array of students participate voluntarily and get more practice at speaking whole ideas, expectations change gradually for both teachers and some of the students (Rowe, ibid: 97- 99).*

Subsequent research verified that increased wait time (usually one that ranges from 3 to 5 seconds) leads to longer and higher-quality responses and participation by a greater number of students (Cooper et al., ibid.). However, it is inevitable and sometimes preferable, as Good & Brophy (op cit.) point out, to use shorter wait times when the class is restive or when time is running out and the teacher need to finish the lesson quickly.

5. Feedback in Language Pedagogy

This section examines feedback from a pedagogic perspective which gives more prominence to authors' knowledge of feedback and practical experience in teaching and learning. Such a view is different from that based on research on language learning, in that the latter focuses primarily on theory-testing or theory-building despite having itself practical applications (Ellis, 2013). An examination of research on feedback in language learning research is necessary; however, it is deferred to the next section dealing with theories of interaction, where advances in conceptualizing and evaluating different forms of feedback are discussed within the respective theories from which they stemmed.

Providing feedback to learners on students' performance is an important aspect of teaching (Nunan, 1991; and Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Together with instructing students, feedback is a defining characteristic of the teacher function. Feedback is defined as the response or comment learners receive on their language production. In other words, it is the teachers' evaluation of the student response, and a consequence

of their performance. In language classrooms, feedback can be given by means of praise, by any relevant comment or action, by silence or by criticism. In oral interaction, feedback is divided into positive and negative types as the following discussion portrays.

5.1. Positive Feedback

Positive feedback lets students know that they have performed correctly, and that they have successfully accomplished a task. It also serves to increase self-awareness, improvement and motivation through praise. At this stage, it is necessary to make a distinction between positive feedback and positive evidence. The former has already been described above, and the latter consists in the input which comprises the set of well-formed sentences to which learners are exposed. These utterances are available from the spoken language (or visual language in the case of sign language) and/or from the written language (Gass, 2005). The term positive evidence, as established in literature, encompasses that of positive feedback, which is only reactive to student's formulations.

According to Gower, Philips & Walters (2005), because thriving on genuine praise and encouragement is human, the teacher should always be on the lookout for areas of individual and whole class improvement, success or achievements to comment upon. Among these positive points that pertain to oral interaction, the authors (ibid, 163) cite:

- *successful communication — where students have expressed themselves clearly (and been understood by others);*
- *accurate use of grammar points recently learned;*
- *use of new vocabulary, appropriate expressions;*
- *good pronunciation — expressive intonation;*
- *language in the appropriate style — good use of colloquial expressions in conversation;*
- *good use of fluency strategies in conversation.*

Nunan (1991) warns that much of the feedback provided by teachers often seems automatic i.e. it is supplied in an unsystematic manner as that proposed by Gower et al. (op cit.) above; it might not have been given as frequently as teachers may think because learners' listening and speaking skills are not considered good enough; and low-achieving students received proportionately less praise than high-achieving students. It is therefore crucial that teachers observe criteria of good praise which were delineated by Good and Brophy (1981 in Nunan, 1991) as **Table 2** stands for

illustration. This will, among other things, help increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate.

GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE PRAISE	
Effective praise	Ineffective praise
1. Is delivered contingently 2. Specifies the particulars of the accomplishment 3. Shows spontaneity, variety, and other signs of credibility; suggests clear attention to the student's accomplishment 4. Rewards attainment of specified performance criteria (which can include effort criteria, however) 5. Provides information to students about their competence or the value of their accomplishments 6. Orients students toward better appreciation of their own task-related behavior and thinking about problem solving 7. Uses student's own prior accomplishments as the context for describing present accomplishments 8. Is given in recognition of noteworthy effort or success at difficult (for this student) tasks 9. Attributes success to effort and ability, implying that similar success can be expected in the future. 10. Fosters endogenous attributions (students believe that they expend effort on the task because they enjoy the task and/or want to develop task-relevant skills) 11. Focuses students' attention on their own task-relevant behavior 12. Fosters appreciation of, and desirable attributions about, task-relevant behavior after the process is completed	1. Is delivered randomly or unsystematically 2. Is restricted to global positive reactions 3. Shows a bland uniformity that suggests a conditioned response made with minimal attention 4. Rewards mere participation, without consideration of performance processes or outcomes 5. Provides no information at all Or gives students information about their status 6. Orients students toward comparing themselves with others and thinking about competing 7. Uses the accomplishments of .peers as the context for describing student's present accomplishments 8. Is given without regard to the effort expended or the meaning- of the 'accomplishment 9. Attributes success to ability alone or to external factors such as luck or (easy) task difficulty 10. Fosters exogenous attributions (students believe that they expend effort on the task for external reasons—to please the teacher, win a competition or reward, etc.) 11. Focuses students' attention on the teacher as an external authority figure who is manipulating them 12. Intrudes into the ongoing process, distracting attention from task-relevant behavior

Table 2: 'Teacher praise: a functional analysis' Source: J. Brophy, Review of Educational Research, 51: 5-32 (1981 in Nunan, 1991:196).

In addition to praise, Richards & Lockhart (1996) employ the term ‘feedback on content’ to describe techniques which reflect teacher’s encouragement, correction and criticism. The following elements of positive feedback are sorted out of Richards & Lockhart (ibid.:189) may serve not only to let learners that they have performed well:

- *Acknowledging a correct answer The teacher acknowledges that a student's answer is correct by saying, for example, "Good," "Yes, that's right," or "Fine."*

- *Expanding or modifying a student's answer The teacher responds to a vague or incomplete answer by providing more information, or rephrasing the answer in the teacher's own words. For example:*
T: Does anyone know the capital of the United States?
S: Washington.
T: Yes, Washington, D.C. That's located on the east coast.
- *Repeating. The teacher repeats the student's answer.*
- *Summarizing. The teacher gives a summary of what a student or group of students has said.*

5.2. Negative Feedback

Negative feedback is also referred to in literature as corrective feedback or interactional feedback, as will be shown in the section about theories of interaction. According to Ellis et al. (2006), corrective feedback is a response to a learner's erroneous utterance by: i) indicating where the error has occurred; ii) providing the correct structure of the erroneous utterance; or, iii) providing metalinguistic information describing the nature of the error, or any combination of these.

While correcting students may be deemed necessary, a good deal of teacher sensitivity is needed here. Generally, the teachers always adopt the following techniques to correct students' errors (Ur, 1995 in 1996: 249):

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

Furthermore, it is necessary to frame correction in a supportive climate, to avert the potential danger of damaging learners' receptivity to learning, as reported by Ellis (2013). It is on these grounds that language pedagogues Vigil & Oller (1976) developed the 'Affective and Cognitive Feedback Model'. Vigil and Oller presented an interesting procedure for correcting errors which they called an 'Affective and Cognitive Feedback Model' illustrated of this model is shown in **Figure (3)**. Brown (1994) notes that "Affective information is primarily encoded in terms of kinesics mechanisms such as gestures, tone of voice, and facial expressions" and "cognitive information is usually conveyed by means of linguistic devices" (232). Vigil & Oller (op cit.) argue that

effective communication is possible even in the presence of correction. This model uses the three colors of a traffic light to represent the three feedback modes that would allow messages of communication between the teacher and his students to get across.

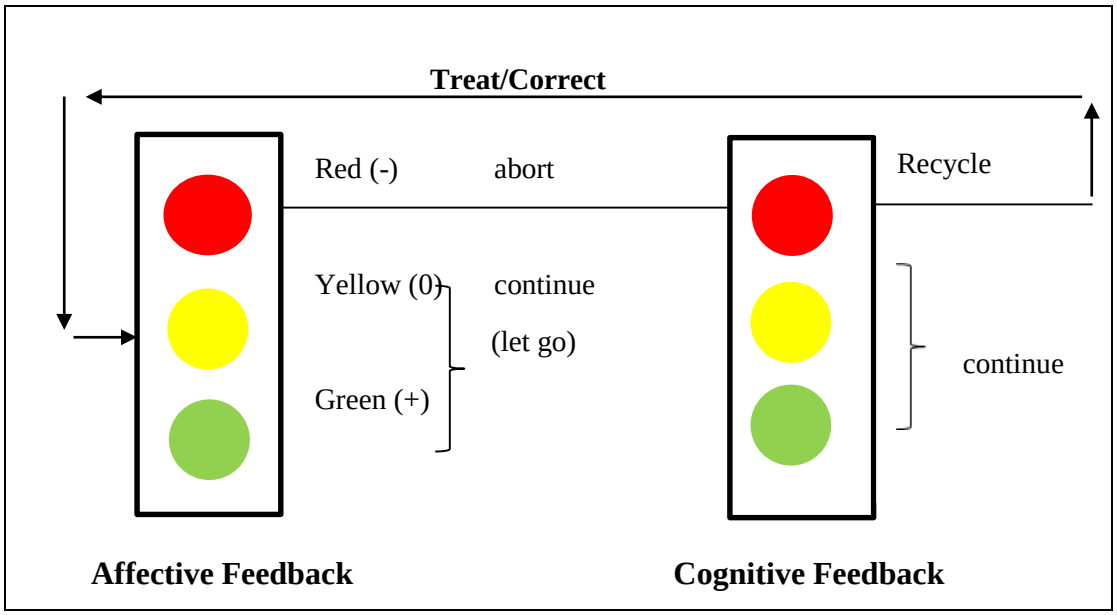

Figure (3): Vigil and Oller's Affective and Cognitive Feedback Model (1976)

In the model above, the colours red, yellow and green represent three types of both affective and cognitive feedback which can be positive, neutral or negative types respectively, and have the following meanings (Brown, op cit.: 232)

Affective feedback
Positive*: Keep talking; I'm listening.*
Neutral*: I'm not sure I want to maintain this conversation.*
Negative *This conversation is over.*
Cognitive feedback
Positive*: I understand your message; it's clear.*
Neutral*: I'm not sure if I correctly understand you or not.*
Negative*: I don't understand what you're saying; it's not clear.*

In correcting students' messages, the teachers make use negative or neutral feedback in the cognitive dimension to indicate that the message is unclear. Therefore, it should be coupled with the prerequisite positive affective feedback to encourage the learner's desire to continue attempts to communicate. According to this model, negative affective feedback, regardless of the degree of cognitive feedback, will likely result in the abortion of the communication. Brown (ibid.) comments that "This is, of course, consistent with the overriding affective nature of human interaction: if people are not

at least affirmed in their attempts to communicate, there is little reason for continuing" (232).

As noted above, negative feedback in the form of punishment should be eschewed as much as possible as it may inhibit or discourage learning. In learning theory, this view is well-established in audiolingualism which draws on behaviorist accounts of learning by reinforcement and strengthening of the correct behaviours (Chaudron, 1988). As regards humanistic approaches, in Ur's (1996) account, "assessment should be positive or non-judgemental" in order to "promote a positive self-image of the learner as a person and language learner", while in skill-learning as well as cognitive views on learning theory "the learner needs feedback on how well he or she is doing" (ibid.: 243), and to actively use the information in modifying their 'hypothetical, transitional' rules of their developing grammars (Chaudron, op cit.). However, in the post-method era, language teaching methodologists are less inclined to be prescriptive about handling corrective feedback. Generally speaking, there is a tendency to not over-estimate the role of corrective feedback in view of the fact that it often fails to eliminate errors (Gower, Philips & Walters, 2005).

Of the many available options to approach correction, according to the aforementioned discussion, one can conclude that gentle, supportive or encouraging and tactful correction are preferable to assertive, punitive or rude approaches. This method of favorable feedback about performance has a positive effect on students' subsequent performance.

To examine how corrective feedback is handled in language teaching, Hendrickson (1978) addresses five central questions in his seminal article: (1) Should learner errors be corrected? (2) If so, when should learner' errors be corrected? (3) Which learner errors should be corrected? (4) How should learner errors be corrected? (5) Who should correct learner errors? A discussion of corrective feedback along these guidelines, which will be presented below, ensues with cross-references from relevant literature.

First, dealing with the question of: 'should learner errors be corrected?', in FLT, requires making decisions of what constitutes an error or mistake. It worthy to discuss how the distinction between them; error and mistake relates to language teaching and correction in particular. The distinction between 'errors' resulting from gaps in learners' knowledge and 'mistakes' due to lapses of concentration was made by Corder (1967). Following this view, a mistake can be thought of as a slip of the tongue or the

pen; it is found that native speakers make mistakes, even though they usually know the correct form. When a student makes a mistake, then, he/she is able to correct it himself/herself, either completely or upon prompting and guidance of the teacher or other students. An error, on the other hand, is much more deeply ingrained in that the student might believe what he or she is saying or writing is correct, does not know what the correct form should be or knows what the correct form should be, but is not able to get it right (Gower, Philips & Walters, 2005). In contrast to mistakes, errors are usually produced regularly and systematically. This is one area that the teacher should respond to by looking out for frequent errors (ibid.). Therefore, a teacher should ask the student who makes an error to self-correct as a way to decide whether the incorrect form is an error or a mistake.

Frequency and systematicity of errors is not the only criterion in deciding on error correction. Inappropriate responses often result because students misunderstood the meaning of questions, instruction or ideas. Here too, careful consideration should be given to the error. Errors that reveal misapprehensions about meaning are valuable for the teacher to assess the students' understanding. They can tell the teacher how much language has been absorbed and how much more practice is needed.

Harmer (1983) argues that corrective feedback has a place in 'accuracy' work but not in 'fluency work'. For example, he (ibid.) argues that when students are engaged in communicative activities, the teacher should not intervene by "telling students that they are making mistakes, insisting on accuracy" (44). Scrivener (2005 in Ellis, 2013: 4) holds a similar position: "If the objective is accuracy, then immediate correction is likely to be useful; if the aim is fluency, then lengthy, immediate correction that diverts from the slow of speaking is less appropriate" (299). When the focus of the activity is fluency, the teacher should make a list of the errors that their students make and address them when the activity is over, as suggested by Scrivener (ibid.)

As for Ur (1996) who upholds gentle and supportive intervention, she would rather invest time in avoiding errors than in correcting them. This is another approach that aims to anticipate and avoid errors (Gower, Philips & Walters, 2005). To avoid errors of understanding, this method advocates for adequate presentation which involves sufficient highlighting, clarifying and checking of understanding. Mistakes with the form can be averted with sufficient controlled practice. Anticipating errors is rather a refined skill by means of which the teacher knows what errors might come up. This requires, among other things, observation of students and noting the typical

grammatical, lexical and pronunciation problems associated with students outside the classroom. "The more you know about the language you are teaching the less likely you are to mislead students and cause 'teacher-induced' errors" (Ur, op cit.: 165). Hence, the teacher should be aware of all aspects of an item of language that he/she is focusing on.

Second, as for the timing of feedback (i.e. when to correct learners' errors?), particularly, oral corrective feedback, teachers have the option of either correcting immediately, as the errors occur, or delaying correction to a later stage, but making a note of the errors. In this regard, Willis (1981) posits that in case of newly-acquired language, it is preferable to postpone correction because: "it would be psychologically unsound to interrupt and correct them, unless they were completely stuck or obviously in a hopeless muddle and feeling unhappy" (90). Hence, teachers are advised not to correct on the spot, but to shed light on common errors, briefly with an intention of dealing with them later.

In fluency work, therefore, correction is viewed to interfere with students' attempts to communicate and also can make students anxious and thus less ready to take risks. The timing of feedback as advised by Willis is echoed by Hattie & Timperley (2007) who assert that correction during task acquisition can result in faster rates of acquisition, whereas immediate error correction during fluency building can detract from the learning of automaticity and the associated strategies of learning. In the case of accuracy work, Gattegno (1972) stands strongly in favour of not rushing in to correct learner errors even in accuracy work so as to "give time to a student to make sense of mistakes" (31). However, as Chaudron (1988) observes, postponing correction to a future lesson may well be less effective as time elapses between the error and the treatment – and this may give rise to its recurrence. A good case in point is correcting an error which is common to the whole class.

In closing, it is considered wise by Hendrickson (1978) that error correction be confined more to manipulative grammar practice, leaving communicative activities free from a focus on error correction.

Third, keeping the provision of being selective in treating errors in mind, the practice of correcting errors leans towards applying Corder's (1967) definition of errors, which are considered as deviations resulting from gaps in competence. An 'error' in this sense should be corrected while a 'mistake' i.e. performance slip should be disregarded (Ellis, 2013).

Another recommendation for which errors to correct is based on the distinction between 'global and 'local' errors. While a global error is communicative in essence, and one that causes misinterpretation and incomprehension of the message, a local error is a linguistic one that makes a form or structure in a sentence appear awkward, but causes little or no difficulty in understanding the intended meaning of an utterance. In short, a global error leads to communication breakdown between the teacher and the student. Chaudron (1988) points out that teachers are likely to correct learners' errors either when they pertain to the pedagogical focus of the lesson or when they significantly inhibit communication i.e. global errors.

Fourth, the issue of the strategies used in correcting learners' errors has been discussed by many researchers. Ellis (2013) makes an extensive review of literature of language teaching, revealing that the same strategies that Hendrickson (1978) identifies in his seminal article seem to have been handed down over time. Following Ellis' (op cit.) summary, these include the following list: questioning the learner, requesting repetition, or echoing (Harmer, 1983); direct indication or discussion of the error (Scrivener, 2005); requesting clarification, or using gesture (Hedge, 2000); and Modelling (Ur, 1996).

In the absence of attempts to classify the strategies into general types, Ellis (op cit.) proposes to classify feedback into strategies that provide learner with the correct form versus those that prompt them to produce it themselves. Ellis's model (2012) is based on Lyster & Ranta's (1997) research which identifies six basic strategies based on their analysis of the different ways teachers correct students in a French immersion classroom:

> *a. Explicit correction (i.e. the teacher clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect and also provides the correct form).*
> *b. Recasts (i.e. the teacher reformulates all or part of student's utterance replacing the erroneous part with the correct target language form).*
> *c. Clarification requests (i.e. the teacher indicates that a learner utterance has been misunderstood or is ill-formed in some way).*
> *d. Metalinguistic comments (i.e. the teacher comments on or questions the well-formedness of the learner's utterance without explicitly providing the correct form).*
> *e. Elicitation (i.e. the teacher (1) elicits completion of his/her own utterance, (2) uses a question to elicit the correct form, (3) asks a student to reformulate his/her utterance).*
> f. *Repetition (i.e. the teacher repeats the student's erroneous utterance with or without emphasis on the erroneous part)* (Ellis, 2012 in Ellis, 2013:7).

Ellis's classification, shown in **Table 3,** resulted in six strategies that differ in two key ways; (1) they can be input-providing (i.e., they provide the learners with the correct target form) or output-prompting (i.e., they 'push' learners to self-correct their own errors) and (2) they can be implicit (i.e., the corrective force remains covert) or explicit (i.e. the corrective force is made clear to the learners). The author concludes that these strategies are not always used in isolation i.e. one at a time; It is common for teachers to employ multiple strategies for correction.

	Implicit	Explicit
Input-providing	• Recasts	• Explicit correction
Output-providing	• Repetitions • Clarification requests	• Metalinguistic comments • Elicitation

Table 3: Ellis's (2012) Classification of Corrective Strategies

It should be noted that this classification adopts a taxonomy that is different from the appellations used above. This is because it stemmed mainly from experimental and descriptive studies that are carried out in the field.

Last, according to Gower, Philips & Walters (2005), correction can be carried out by learners themselves i.e. self-correction, by other students during student-student interaction or by the teacher. Self- correction is emphasized as the preferable practice so that the student who made the error produces the correct form. Therefore, students should be given the chance to correct themselves. Hence, if students are going to become more accurate, they must learn to monitor themselves. They may have just made a slip and will welcome the opportunity to put it right. Sometimes they need some assistance from the teacher in knowing where the mistake is and what kind of mistake it is, before they can self-correct. In the event of student's failure to correct for lack of knowledge, another student shall be designated to help out. Finally, the first student should say the correct version. Doing so has the advantage of involving all the students in the correction process in a cooperative manner and reduces the student dependence on the teacher. As for teacher, he/she intervenes when neither self-correction nor student-student correction is effective. The correct version can be taught to the whole class if it is judged important. If not, and the meaning of the item is clear, simply saying it and getting the students to say it should be enough (ibid).

In conclusion to this section on feedback, it should be noted that pedagogical literature dealing with feedback is voluminous with authors favouring different types and strategies of delivering feedback. Notwithstanding, a quasi-unanimous consensus seems to have been reached in the discussion above of what constitutes good practice of feedback. Variety in pedagogical practice is reflected in this literature, but it is also clear that there is a broad consensus about what constitutes effective practice.

The pedagogical literature, as noted in the introduction to this section on feedback, however, does not make clear links of how effective feedback assists learning. This is one area of interest to the Theories of Interaction section that shall be addressed after reviewing the skill of Interactional Competence

6. Interactional Competence

As far as learners are concerned, they need to learn how they are expected to interact in the classroom. In other words, they need to be interactionally competent by following the rules of appropriate participation in lessons. Tikunoff (1985a, 1985b in Richards and Lockhart, 1996) coins the term of learner's *interactional competence* to advocate for the necessity for a student to learn particular patterns of interaction and behavior both vis-a-vis the other students in the class as well as with the teacher. Hall & Doehler (2011) give a comprehensive definition of interactional competence which is used to denote the context-specific set of expectations and dispositions about our social worlds that we use to navigate our way through our interactions with others, and implies the ability to mutually coordinate our actions. The authors supply the following criteria for the construct of interactional competence:

> *It includes knowledge of social-context-specific communicative events or activity types, their typical goals and trajectories of actions by which the goals are realized and the conventional behaviors by which participant roles and role relationships are accomplished. Also included is the ability to deploy and to recognize context-specific patterns by which turns are taken, actions are organized and practices are ordered. And it includes the prosodic, linguistic, sequential and nonverbal resources conventionally used for producing and interpreting turns and actions, to construct them so that they are recognizable for others, and to repair problems in maintaining shared understanding of the interactional work we and our interlocutors are accomplishing together. (2011:2)*

The sociocultural view of interactive practices in language classrooms, which draws on Hymes' (1972) ethnography of speaking, holds that interactional competence is a

set of "socioculturally conventionalized configurations of face-to-face interaction by which and within which group members communicate" (Hall, 1993: 146 in Hall, Hellermann & Doehler, op cit.). A model was elaborated by Young (2000, 2003 in Hall, Hellermann & Doehler, ibid.), using conversation analytic conventions which consist of six components: (1) rhetorical script which refers to knowledge of sequences of speech acts that are conventionally linked to a given type; (2) register be it technical, expert, vocabulary, etc.; (3) strategies for taking turns; (4) topic management (e.g. the rights to introduce/change topics and their placement); (5) roles and patterns of participation related to a given practice (i.e. novice–expert; role–relations; speaker–hearer); and (6) boundary signaling devices (i.e. opening-, transition- and closing-procedures).

To interpret interactional competence with the 'social world' or the context of the classroom, Richards and Lockhart (op cit.), give the following dimensions of classroom behaviour to the construct: knowing the etiquette of classroom interaction, knowing the rules for individual and collaborative work, knowing when to ask and answer questions, knowing how and when to get assistance or feedback in completing a task and knowing appropriate rules for displaying knowledge. Following is a description of the components of each dimension.

Regarding the first dimension of knowing the etiquette of classroom interaction**,** every teacher has their own their own rules for appropriate classroom behaviour, and learners are expected to comply with them. In traditional classrooms, a teacher may structure events with particular behaviours such as requiring students to stand upon his/her entering the classroom and/or greeting the teacher in unison, and sit down to wait for instructions. Forms of interaction may be so strict that students are not allowed to answer unless the teacher nominates or selects from students who raise their hand. Leaving the room at the end of the lesson is also subject to the teacher's call to dismiss the class. On the other hand, in less traditional classrooms, students often start working on classroom tasks before the teacher enters the room. The teacher moves to cover new material when they perceive that students are satisfied with their task completion. It is also common for students to move around for consulting their peers in an organized manner after they ask permission for their teacher. By the end of the lesson, students are free to leave as soon as they have completed their assignments.

As for knowing the rules for individual and collaborative work, within the general etiquette of appropriate classroom behaviour, it is dependent on the choices that

individual teachers make. A teacher establishes specific rules and procedures for class work. This entails that students need to know when they should work individually on a task and when it is appropriate to call for other students' assistance or seek cooperation and collaborative work.

Regarding the third dimension, teachers differ in their own preferences for when students should ask questions. It is incumbent on the students to know what their expected level of participation is and when and how they should interrupt the teacher to ask questions. Accordingly, students need to defer their questions to a particular segment of the lesson if the teacher decides to allocate them a time slot, usually by the end of the lesson, to pose questions. For such teachers, students' questions interrupt the flow of the lesson and interfere with the goals set for the lesson. Other teachers prefer and allow students to ask questions as they arise. The trend for answering questions is more straightforward than that of asking since most teachers encourage active participation, and answering questions is a way of practicing the language. However, teachers need to cater for students who don't answer until they are called on to do so or students who think that they shouldn't answer only when they are sure of being right.

The fourth dimension involves knowing how and when to get assistance or feedback in completing a task. Tikunoff (1985b in Richards & Lockhart, ibid.) found out that successful students seemed to be aware of when they needed help as well as how to get it. Hence, it is primordial for students to learn which rules to adopt for getting help, asking questions of the teacher or other students during a lesson

Last, the very fact that there are rules governing how a student should display their knowledge or what they have learned seems somewhat conflicting with the role of classrooms and teachers as facilitators of the learning process. A shared understanding is the most important baseline that the teacher and the students should work out in order to establish that publicly demonstrating one's knowledge is a preferable and an appropriate way of learning. A teacher also needs to sensitize students that when a question is asked, and a student in the class knows the answer, the student is normally expected to answer the question.

Turn taking, already dealt with in the section of turn-taking and turn-allocation, is an important feature of interactional competence that students need to develop. Richards (1990:68-69) points out three strategies that can be used by students to enhance their effective participation in the classroom:

Strategies for taking a turn. These involve ways of entering into a conversation or taking over the role of speaker, and include
- Using interjections to signal a request for a turn, such as "Mm-hmm," "Yeah," and rising intonation
- Using facial or other gestures to indicate a wish to take a turn
- Accepting a turn offered by another speaker by responding to a question or by providing the second part of an adjacency pair (e.g., expressing thanks in response to a compliment)
- Completing or adding to something said by the speaker.
Strategies for holding a turn. These involve indicating that one has more to say, for example, through intonation or by using expressions to suggest continuity, such as "First," "Another thing," "Then."
Strategies for relinquishing the turn. These are devices used to bring the other person(s) into the conversation, and include
- Using adjacency pairs, requiring the other person to provide the sequence, such as with the adjacency pairs challenge-denial:
A: You look tired.
B: I feel fine.
- Using phonological signals, such as slowing down the final syllables of an utterance and increasing the pitch change to signal completion of the turn
- Pausing to provide an opportunity for someone to take up the turn.
- Using a facial or bodily gesture to signal that a turn is finished

7. Theories of Interaction

This section provides a historical account of FL/L2 language interaction. It shows that research on L1 acquisition, which undertook the study of baby talk, paved the way for FL/L2 studies. This is evident in early focus on foreigner talk and teacher talk. Likewise, Krashen's input hypothesis was put forward to explain the necessity and effect of addressing learners in comprehensible language. Complementary and contending views of the interaction hypothesis and output hypothesis underscored interaction and negotiation of meaning as crucial factors to FL/L2 learning. Within these two last traditions, researchers narrowed the scope of investigation to specific aspects of the interaction to close in on areas of interest such as questioning and corrective feedback. Last but not least, the sociocultural approach presented here provides an alternative perspective on how to assist learners in using the FL/L2, and is more and more integrated within other theories of learning. The potential contributions of different types of feedback to the acquisition of the TL are debated in each approach.

7.1. The Input Hypothesis

Before discussing the input hypothesis, it is worthy to start with an examination of the input that children receive from adults in acquiring L1's. Next, foreigner talk is highlighted to establish its contribution to the input hypothesis.

The theory of interaction, as Mitchell and Myles (2004) posit, considers language learning within its social context. It focuses on the role of learners' engagement with their social and linguistic environments incorporated in how language is used in FL/L2 learning and development. Back in the 1960s, researchers investigated child-directed speech i.e. the special speech styles adults and other caretakers are accustomed to use when talking with young children, a sort of simplified register commonly referred to as baby talk. Empirical studies of caretakers' interactions with young children suggested that particular characteristics of 'baby talk' might facilitate language acquisition in many ways.

Findings from this tradition suggest that in contexts where child-directed speech is semantically contingent, that is to say, the caretaker talks with the child about objects and events to which the child is already paying attention, L1 acquisition was substantially assisted. It was also established that explicit formal corrections of the child's productions are not common in child-directed speech, but recasts are (a recast refers to an utterance which provides an expanded and grammatically correct version of a prior child utterance). According to Sokolov and Snow (1994), substantial empirical evidence suggests that recasts may be helpful in offering children useful negative evidence about their own hypotheses on the workings of the TL. The benefits of 'baby talk', which are reviewed in the previous paragraph, led researchers in the sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics disciplines, in the 1970s, to investigate a similar phenomenon called foreigner talk. Researchers demonstrated that talk addressed to learners was grammatically regular, but somewhat simplified linguistically by comparison with talk between native speakers. For instance, speakers use short utterances and a narrow range of vocabulary or less complex grammar. These adjustments, including what is commonly referred to as simplified speech, are features of what Krashen (1985) theorized as "comprehensible input" that is, FL/L2 input that learners can understand with the help of contextual cues, prior knowledge, gestures, etc., even though they would not be able to produce comparable language or say exactly how the language itself conveys the meaning (Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

The seminal work by Stephen Krashen in the 1980s laid down formal theoretical outlines to enquire into and explain the precise developmental contribution of foreigner talk in light Input Hypothesis. In its well-known form, the Input Hypothesis is portrayed to claim that exposure to comprehensible input is both necessary and sufficient for TL learning to take place. However, 'Comprehensible input' is but one in a collection of

five hypotheses which constitute the "Monitor Model" or the "Input Hypothesis" which, if considered together, can explain how L2's, and by extension FLs, are acquired or learned. Following is a demonstration of the hypotheses that form the theory, which is adapted from Krashen (1985:1-4):

(1) The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis. There are two ways of developing ability in L2s. 'Acquisition' is a subconscious process, and involves the Innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which accounts for children's L1. Learning is conscious and is exemplified by the FL/L2 learning which takes place in many classroom contexts. Learning results only in knowing 'about language'.

(2) The Natural Order Hypothesis. This hypothesis which was proposed by Corder (1967) states that we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tending to come early and others late. This 'predictable' order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity, however.

(3) The Monitor Hypothesis. This hypothesis states how acquisition and learning are used in production. Our ability to produce utterances in another language comes from our acquired competence, from our subconscious knowledge. Learning, which is conscious knowledge, serves only as an editor, or monitor for purposes of correction or making changes before and after we speak and write. The Monitor is used under two conditions: the performer must be consciously concerned about correctness, and must know the rule.

(4) The Input Hypothesis. We, humans, acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input', and progressing along the natural order, as suggested by hypothesis 2 above. This becomes possible by understanding input that contains structures at our next 'stage' or level of competence. We move from i, our current level, to i + 1, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing i + 1. Context which includes extra-linguistic information, our knowledge of the world and previously acquired linguistic competence makes it possible to understand language containing unacquired grammar. In classrooms, context is provided by means of visual aids and discussion of familiar topics. Input Hypothesis has two corollaries:

(a) Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly but 'emerges' on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input.

(b) If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. The language teacher need not attempt deliberately to teach the

next structure along the natural order - it will be provided in just the right quantities and automatically reviewed if the student receives a sufficient amount of comprehensible input. The Input Hypothesis supports Chomsky's position, and extends it to Second Language Acquisition (SLA). We may see individual variation 'on the surface' – different sources of comprehensible input, different strategies for obtaining input, different messages, and of course different languages. But deep down, the 'mental organ' for language produces one basic product, a human language, in one fundamental way.

(5) Affective Filter Hypothesis. Comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition, but it is not sufficient. The acquirer needs to be open to the input. The 'affective filter' is a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition. When it is 'up' the acquirer may understand what he hears and reads, but the input will not reach the LAD. This occurs when the acquirer is 'unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, or anxious', when he is 'on the defensive' (Stevick 1976), when he considers the language class to be a place where his weaknesses will be revealed. The filter is down when the acquirer is not concerned with the possibility of failure in language acquisition and when he considers himself to be a potential member of the group speaking the TL. The filter is lowest when the acquirer is so involved in the message that he temporarily 'forgets' he is hearing or reading another language.

In a nutshell, Krashen believes that "people acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filter are low enough to allow the input 'in'"(ibid.: 4)

As far as Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) is concerned, it can be deduced that only learning is possible. This is so because learning in classrooms is a conscious process and the natural order is not, and according to Krashen, cannot be provided for owing to its indefinite nature. However, useful insights can be derived into how to adapt or fine-tune teacher talk to the students' level and creating a supportive classroom climate that minimizes the effects of anxiety. Critics, as Mitchell and Myles (2004) point out, notice that the Input Hypothesis lacks empirical evidence, and is not easily testable. The concepts of 'understanding' is not clearly operationalized, or consistently proposed; it is not clear how the learner's present state of knowledge is to be characterized, or indeed whether the 'i + 1' formula is intended to apply to all aspects of language, including vocabulary and phonology as well as syntax. Above all, the

theory fails to spell out the processes whereby language in the social environment is analyzed and new elements are identified and processed by the 'LAD' so that they can influence and modify the learner's existing interlanguage system. In other words, we may be able to understand something that is beyond our grammatical knowledge, but how that comprehension translates into grammatical acquisition is dubious as Gregg (1984 in Gass & Selinker, 2008) states: "I find it difficult to imagine extra-linguistic information that would enable one to 'acquire' the third person singular *-s*, or *yes/no* questions, or indirect object placement, or passivization." A major response to Krashen came from Long's Interaction Hypothesis which questioned the absence of a role to the learner or acquirer of the TL beyond that of receptive understanding of comprehensible input, it completely disregarded interaction between NSs and learners. Long's main claims and procedures are explained hereunder.

7.2. The Interaction Hypothesis

From the late 70s, researchers maintained that to understand the learning process, the relationship between language and communication needed to be examined (Wagner-Gough & Hatch, 1975 in McKey, Abbuhl & Gass, 2012). In this vein, Wagner-Gough & Hatch posit "one learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of the interaction syntactic structures are developed" (1978b in ibid.) Drawing on the work of these researchers, Long put forward the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1981, 1983).

As with Krashen, Michael Long (1981) turned to Foreigner Talk, and noticed that these studies did not, generally, go on to demonstrate which quality makes Foreigner Talk more comprehensible, nor did they show how it promotes FL/L2 acquisition. However, in Long's work, comprehensible input is something that learners actively have to get for themselves. To do this, they need to initiate a variety of conversational repairs with their NS or NNS interlocutors. Therefore, looking at interactions should not be simply geared toward a one-directional source of target language input, feeding into the learner's presumed internal acquisition device (LAD).

On the basis of his research and observations, Long extended and challenged the input hypothesis. In other words, he acknowledges the necessity of comprehensible input, but argued that it is not sufficient for acquisition to take place. In order to understand more fully the nature and usefulness of input for FL/L2 learners, then,

greater attention should be paid to the interactions in which learners are engaged. When learners engage with their interlocutors in negotiations around meaning, the nature of the input might be qualitatively changed. This view has become known as the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1981, 1983). Long articulates the theory of interaction using categorical syllogism in the following way:

> *Step l: Show that (a) linguistic/conversational adjustments promote (b) comprehension of input.*
> *Step 2: Show that (b) comprehensible input promotes (c) acquisition.*
> *Step 3: Deduce that (a) linguistic/conversational adjustments promote (c) acquisition.*
> *(Long, 1985: 378)*

Long's efforts to shift the attention of research towards more interactive aspects of Foreigner Talk started by demonstrating Step 1 of 'Interaction and Comprehension'. Long (1985) delivered lessons or 'lecturettes' that involved passive listening by learners. Results showed that 'lecturettes', pre-scripted and delivered in a modified Foreigner Talk style, akin to Teacher Talk, are more comprehensible to adult L2 learners than are versions of the same talks delivered in an unmodified style. The claim that linguistic adjustments could promote comprehension of input is substantiated. The link is established between modified input in the form of Teacher Talk and increased comprehension.

Next, Long investigated the nature conversational adjustment. To do so, Long 1981, 1983) conducted a study of 16 native speaker-native speaker (NS-NS) and 16 native speaker-non-native speaker (NS-NNS) pairs, carrying out the same set of face-to-face oral tasks (informal conversation, giving instructions for games, etc.). Measures of grammatical complexity show that there is little linguistic difference between the talk produced by NS-NS and NS-NNS pairs. When analysed from the angle of conversational management and language functions performed, however, important differences between the two pairs were found. The main difference was attributed to the use by NS-NNS pairs of conversational tactics such as repetitions, confirmation checks, comprehension checks or clarification requests in order to solve ongoing communication difficulties. Repetition is a straightforward tactic involving asking the interlocutor to restate the utterance, when the interlocutor fails to hear or understand. Other tactics are defined by Pica *et al.*, as follows:

> - *Confirmation checks: Moves by which one speaker seeks confirmation of the other's preceding utterance through repetition,*

with rising intonation, of what was perceived to be all or part of the preceding utterance.

- *Clarification requests: Moves by which one speaker seeks assistance in understanding the other speaker's preceding utterance through questions (including wh-, polar, disjunctive, uninverted with rising intonation or tag), statements such as / don't understand, or imperatives such as Please repeat.*
- *Comprehension checks: Moves by which one speaker attempts to determine whether the other speaker has understood a preceding message. (1987:74 in Mitchell & Myles, 2004: 168)*

The conclusion that long came up with is that as NS-NNS pairs struggle to maximize comprehension, and negotiate their way through trouble spots, they are incidentally fine-tuning the TL input making it more relevant to the current state of learner development. The proponents of the Interaction Hypothesis claim that such collaborative efforts should be very useful for language learning. To couch the theory in Krashen's terms, partners are collaborating to ensure that the learner is receiving i + 1, rather than i + 3, or indeed, i + 0. As Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991: 144) put it:

> *Modification of the interactional structure of conversation … is a better candidate for a necessary (not sufficient) condition for acquisition. The role it plays in negotiation for meaning helps to make input comprehensible while still containing unknown linguistic elements, and, hence, potential intake for acquisition.*

Modified interaction, which consists in the different interaction structures that result from adjustments that NS make to enable NNS to understand what has been said, were demonstrated to lead to more comprehension. Thus, with regard to the first step, both linguistic and interactional adjustments were confirmed to lead to comprehension.

Regarding the second step of Long's model, several studies – carried out in the 1990s– pursued the relationship between comprehension and acquisition, but they obtained overall mixed results. An example of these ventures is the study by Loschky (1994 in Mitchell and Myles, op cit.) which involved the administration of listening comprehension tasks to learners of Japanese as an FL. The learners heard individual locative sentences such as 'to the right of the pen is a ruler', and had to locate and number the correct items on a range of picture sheets. The first group of learners listened to the locative sentences without any further support, the second group heard linguistically modified versions with some added redundancy and the third group was allowed to ask for clarifications or questions as the sentences were presented. This latter was found more successful in completing the task, and led the researcher to cautiously assume that interaction around meaning facilitates comprehension. However, when

Loschky pre-tested and post-tested recognition of vocabulary and judgment of grammaticality on similar locative structures, he found that all his subjects made significant language proficiency gains in the course of the study, but that no single group outperformed the others. Therefore, despite the fact that Loschky's study shows interactional modifications leading to increased comprehension (Step 1), it fails to show any clear link between increased comprehension and acquisition (Step 2).

As for the last step 'Interaction and Acquisition', an illustrative study by Mackey (1999 in Mitchell & Myles, op cit.) was undertaken to test whether interaction and negotiation around meaning can enable learners to acquire question forms. Previous studies by Pienemann & Johnston (1987) on the acquisition of question forms showed a normal six-stage acquisition sequence. The participants undertook a range of information-gap tasks that required them to ask and answer questions (e.g. story completion, spot the difference, picture sequencing). Some NNS participants (the 'interactors') were allowed to negotiate meanings with their NS interlocutor, whereas others were not; all participants carried out further tasks as pretests and as post-tests. Mackey's experimental study produced statistically significant results showing that the learners who engaged in interaction progressed one (or more) stages in L2 question formation, while the non-interactors failed to do so. The following extract of Mackey (1999: 577 in Mitchell and Myles, op cit.: 172-73) illustrates this development, in the case of one 'interactor' participant:

> Pretest
> 55 NNS: *The meal is not there?*
> 56 NS: *No it's gone, what do you think happened?*
> 57 NNS: *Happened? The cat?*
> 58 NS: *Do you think the cat ate it?*
> 59 NNS: *The meal is the is the cat's meal?*
> 60 NS: *It's not supposed to be the cat's dinner. I don't think so.*
> 61 NNS: *But although this, this cat have eaten it.*
> Treatment
> 4 NNS: *What the animal do?*
> 5 NS: *They aren't there, there are no bears.*
> 6 NNS: *Your picture have this sad girl?*
> 7 NS: *Yes, what do you have in your picture?*
> 8 NNS: *What my picture have to make her crying? I don't know your picture.*
> 9 NS: *Yeah ok, I mean what does your picture show? What's the sign?*
> 10 NNS: *No sign? . . . No, ok, what the mother say to the girl for her crying?*
> 11 NS: *It's the sign (no bears) that's making her cry. What does your sign say?*
> 12 NNS: *The sign? Why the girl cry?*
> Posttest 1 NNS: *What do your picture have?*
> Posttest 2 NNS: *What has the robber done?*
> NNS: *Where has she gone in your picture?*

According to Mitchell & Myles (ibid.), the NNS was in Stage 2 of the developmental sequence, proposed by Pienemann and Johnston (1987) because he/she used canonical word order with question intonation in the pre-test. During the treatment, the learner produced affronting, but still, with canonical word order (Stage 3). However, by the time of the second post-test, which involved no more instruction, the learner was correctly placing an auxiliary verb in second position to *wh*- words (Stage 5). This kind of progress was not documented for the non-interactor group. Therefore, Mackey's study provides sound evidence in support of Long's Step 3 i.e. taking part in interaction can facilitate FL/L2 development.

However, most studies, carried out to test the link between interaction and acquisition have yielded mixed results (Mitchell & Myles, ibid.). Input, Long (1996) argues, plays a lesser role in acquisition, however. This is based on his observation of the immersion students' inability to achieve native-like grammatical competence. In support of Swain's (1985) claim, to be discussed in the following section, Long notices that, on the contrary, comprehensible input may actually inhibit learning on occasion, because it is often possible to understand a message without understanding all the structures and lexical items in the language encoding it, and without being aware of not understanding them all. Thus, he accepts White's (1996 in Mitchell & Myles, op cit.) argument for the need for negative evidence - that is, that in cases where learner hypotheses or the structure of the L1 leads to L2 over-generalization, it is difficult for the learners to correct their mistakes only by being exposed to positive evidence. Negative evidence is judged to be essential only in such instances. How input becomes 'intake', the distinction made by Corder (1967) is another issue discussed in the later version of the Interaction Hypothesis. According to Long (1996), learner's processing capacities and the attention to form may mediate the extent to which L2 input becomes incorporated into the learner's interlanguage as intake. This argument is based on Schmidt (1990) and Long (1988). While Schmidt claims that "noticing" or "conscious perception" is necessary for converting input into output, Long suggests that focus on form is "probably a key feature in instructed learning because of the saliency it brings to target features of classroom input" (ibid.:136).

All these considerations led Long (1996) to broaden his Interaction Hypothesis. He proposed that acquisition during interactional modifications depends upon the NNS being aware of those modifications and on negative feedback. Long explains the Revised Interaction Hypothesis as follows:

> *Environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning. Negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1–L2 contrasts. (Long, 1996: 417 in Spada and Lightbown, 2009: 164)*

This new version of the hypothesis highlights the role of negotiation for meaning or interactional feedback about the structure of the TL, which are derivable from environmental language (i.e. from Foreigner Talk or Teacher Talk) in FL/L2 learning. The new view holds that negotiation for meaning is facilitative of L2 acquisition "because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (Long, 1996: 451–52).

In light of the Revised Interaction Hypothesis, current research agenda has moved away from investigating whether interaction impacts L2 outcomes to determining what forms of interaction, especially feedback are the most beneficial for L2 learners, and how various types of interactional feedback differentially impact various TL forms. Thus, Pica (1994) suggests that negotiation assists L2 development in three ways: by making message comprehensible, by enhancing L2 input, and by facilitating the production of modified output i.e. learners' revisions of their erroneous output following feedback. The argument for the role of interactional feedback is also closely connected with the importance attributed to Focus on Form (FonF). Long (1991 in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011) defines FonF as an approach in which attention to form occurs incidentally and in the context of communication and meaningful interaction. Whereas FonF occurs either reactively in response to learners' errors or proactively in a pre-planned manner, interactional feedback constitutes is reactive learners' non-target-like utterances only. Overall**,** "it is now commonly accepted within the SLA literature that there is a robust connection between interaction and learning", as Gass & Mackey (2007a: 176) suggest.

7.3. The Output Hypothesis

Krashen's hypothesis was put to question again following results of research carried out by Merrill Swain, who doubts that comprehensible FL/L2 input has the predicting ability, explanatory power and the certainty to ensure interlanguage development (Swain, 1985, 1995). Swain worked with immersion students experiencing content-

based L2 French instruction in Canadian schools, and found out that the immersion students, having undergone extended periods of instruction time, achieved native-like comprehension abilities in French as an L2. However, their productive abilities lagged behind. The classrooms in which those students were involved provided reading and listening to L2 learners, in accordance with Krashen's principles. Nevertheless, Swain revealed that students who succeeded in comprehending L2 texts were partly processing them because they focused only on semantic processing. They had no recourse to grammatical processing owing to the fact that speaking and writing didn't receive equal attention. According to Swain, L2 production (i.e. output) is the only factor that really forces and pushes learners to undertake complete grammatical processing. Swain argues that production "may force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing" (1985:249). Production, therefore, is a *sine qua non* catalyzer that drives forward most effectively the development of learners' interlanguage.

"Practice makes perfect" is the motto that expresses the belief that most language learning teachers hold. Learners are required to practise producing TL utterances if they want to increase fluency. Therefore, commonly held beliefs on output, prior to Swain (1985), did not assign output the function creating knowledge. Instead, output was merely a way of practising already existing knowledge, and a way in which additional and richer input could be elicited (Gass & Selinker, 2008). The idea that output could be part of learning was not seriously contemplated until Swain had devised the Output Hypothesis which attributes three functions to 'practice'. These output functions have to do with the development of the interlanguage system, and not only increased efficiency in using it. Swain (1995: 128) describes these functions as follows:

> - *The 'noticing/triggering' function, or what might be referred to as the consciousness-raising role.*
> - *The hypothesis-testing function.*
> - *The metalinguistic function, or what might be referred to as its 'reflective' role.*

The 'noticing/triggering' function stipulates that the activity of producing the TL may push learners to become aware of gaps and problems in their current FL/L2 system. In practical terms, when learners are engaged in producing output, such as speaking and writing, they will become aware that they cannot say what they want to say. Noticing a hole in their linguistic ability, students become more conscious of the information provided in subsequent input; hence, they may benefit from it more effectively. Swain maintains that noticing is also crucial for L2 acquisition because it triggers certain

cognitive processes implicated in L2 learning, such as searching for new information or consolidating already existing knowledge (in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011)

Second, output provides learners with opportunities to experiment with new structures and forms i.e., the hypothesis-testing function. The concept of Comprehensible Output stipulates that the learner should be "pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately" (Swain, 1985: 249). Therefore, when learners attempt to express their meaning and convey their message, they may test different ways of saying the same thing in order to know if their utterances are comprehensible and well-formed. In case they fail to express their intended meaning, such as when interlocutors ask for clarification, they may turn to their existing linguistic resources in search for modification to their original output. There is ample evidence from research certifying that learners are indeed able to modify their erroneous output in response to clarification signals in the course of interaction (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1985; Pica, 1987, 1988 in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011). There is one thing which is evident from trying out new modified linguistic utterances as a result of producing output and receiving feedback, which suggests that learners have been actively involved in hypothesis testing. As Swain (1995: 126) indicates, "erroneous output can often be an indication that a learner has formulated a hypothesis about how the language works, and is testing it out."

The third function of output is that it provides learners with opportunities to consciously reflect on what to say and how to say it, discuss and analyse their linguistic problems explicitly and also raise their awareness of what they need to learn. Additional arguments to the concept were supplied, claiming that:

> *Output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Output, thus, would seem to have a potentially significant role in the development of syntax and morphology (Swain, 1995:128).*

In other words, such reflective uses of language mediate L2 development by helping learners to progress from a state of reception and comprehension which may be uncertain to a state of control over language use and also sound internalization of linguistic knowledge.

These theoretical claims have led to extensive empirical work to explain interlanguage development in light of a comprehensive and in-depth examination of TL input, output and interaction (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). More specifically, researchers attempted to link learners' opportunities for output to TL development. While some researchers such as Ellis & He (1999) have investigated the contribution of learner output to L2 vocabulary acquisition, others, in the example of Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993), looked for its effect on grammar.

In an experimental study, Ellis & He (1999) worked with low-proficiency English L2 learners, using a set of unfamiliar furniture vocabulary (e.g. lamp, cushion). Learners were divided into three groups, and asked to carry out a design task, placing small pictures of the furniture items around the plan of an apartment. The first group received pre-modified instructions that they could not negotiate, the second group received the same instructions but could negotiate if meanings were not clear, while the third group were required to give the instructions to an interlocutor. Pre-tests and post-tests of the selected vocabulary showed that the third 'output' group outperformed the others both receptively and productively. In a replication of the previous study with learners of Spanish as an L2, de la Fuente (2002) found that the 'output' group of learners also outperformed the rest of the students at post-tests, as far as productive vocabulary is concerned. As for receptive vocabulary, the 'negotiation' group achieved the same level as the 'output' group, while outperforming the 'no negotiation' group. All in all, these studies show that 'pushing' students to produce L2 output has palpable effects on the development of vocabulary.

As for the effects of output on grammar, Shehadeh (2002) points out that there is still relatively little evidence that output promotes grammar acquisition. Elsewhere, Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) conducted a small-scale study of the role of output in the development of English past tense. By means of clarification requests, learners were pushed to modify their output, as shown in example below:

> *Learner: last weekend, a man painting, painting 'Beware of the dog'*
> *Teacher: sorry?*
> *Learner: a man painted, painted, painted on the wall 'Beware of the dog (Nobuyoshi and Ellis, 1993: 205)*

Two of the three students who had received this treatment achieved increased accuracy in using past tense forms, whereas no one in a comparison group improved. The benefits of 'pushed output', so far discussed, remain somewhat elusive and hard to demonstrate,

as in the case of grammar development. Gass & Selinker point out that these mixed results are attributed, in part, to differences of operationalizing pushed output: "Output, then, as merely repetition may be less useful than output where learners are given opportunities to incorporate new forms into their production." (2008: 329). Therefore, when output allows for opportunities for genuine production, it is generally considered to have a positive effect on learning.

7.4. The Socio-Cultural Perspectives on Interaction

The previously discussed theories viz. input, interaction and/or output hypotheses were examined with a view to find out how they contribute to define the quality of interaction and lead to developing learning and acquisition. From the point of view of the Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT), interaction and social context of learning are at the heart of the learning processes while the classroom constitutes the context where understanding and knowledge are jointly constructed, and where learners are assisted to develop. To put it in a straightforward manner as of the outset, learning from an SCT perspective is so deeply anchored in its social context that "interaction itself constitutes the learning process, which is quintessentially social rather than individual in nature" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004:193).

As of 1990s, researchers turned their attention to applying the learning theory associated with the Soviet developmental psychologist, Lev S. Vygotsky, to the field of learning L2s and FLs. Vygotsky was a researcher and theorist of child development, and his views on child development have become increasingly influential since the publication of *Thought and Language* (1962). The task for psychology, in Vygotsky's view, is to understand how human social and mental activity is organised through culturally constructed artifacts and social relationships. This view of Vygotsky's is introduced in brief, over the next sections, from the interpretations of researchers in SLA in particular. Key notions of mediation, regulation, scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development are discussed with the aim of determining their import to learning L2s and FLs, and the role of interaction in particular.

7.4.1. Mediation

A fundamental element of the SCT is "mediation" which claims that higher forms of human mental activity are *mediated.* Lantolf (2006) explains that humans do not act

directly on the physical world; instead use tools and labour activity. For instance, we rarely engage in the activity of digging a hole in the ground using our bare hands. Rather, we are likely to use a shovel or a mechanical digging device such as a backhoe. In using these tools, we make the task more efficient and precise. Here, the material form of the tool we select as well as the habitual patterns of its use affect the purposes to which it is put and methods we use when we employ it. Thus, a shovel requires one type of motion and a backhoe another. Physical tools, therefore, give us more ability than natural endowments alone. Ultimately, "by transforming our social and material environment, we also change ourselves and the way we live in the world" (Lantolf, ibid: 199).

In addition to physical tools, we also use symbolic tools, or signs, to mediate and regulate our relationships with others and with ourselves. The symbolic tools include numbers and arithmetic systems, music, art, and above all, language. As we are deliberately control material tools, we are also voluntarily controlling symbolic tools to mediate psychological activity and to control our psychological processes. This control allows us to attend to certain things, to plan, and to think rationally (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

The physical and symbolic tools are artifacts which are culture specific i.e. they are created by a human culture over time and are made available to succeeding generations. The latter, in turn, often modify these artifacts before passing them on to future generations. As with physical tools, humans use symbolic artifacts to establish an indirect, or mediated, relationship between ourselves and the world.

Among the means of mediation that the SCT gives prominence to, language stands out as the mediational tool that allows us to connect to our mental activity and environment or social interaction, in particular. Language gives us the power to go beyond the immediate environment and to think about and talk about events and objects that are far removed both physically and temporally.

Vygotsky's view on learning marks a departure from the two contradicting views that were in vogue back in the 60s i.e. behaviourist and mentalist views. This is because it construes of mental abilities, such as thinking and attention, not as biological endowments, whose functioning is "triggered" through either internal or external "stimulus"; rather, these "higher cognitive functions" start in social interaction, they are mediated by more knowledgeable "others" by the collaborative use of semiotic tools, and finally "appropriated" or internalised by the learner. From the socio-cultural point

of view, then, learning is both socially and mentally mediated. According to Mitchell & Myles (2004: 195), learning is mediated partly by "face-to-face interaction and shared processes, such as joint problem solving and discussion" and partly "through learners' developing use and control of mental tools."

7.4.2. Regulation

The Vygotskian framework conceptualizes learning as a process of moving from object-regulation to other regulation to self-regulation (Nessaji and Fotos, 2011). Initially, for a child or a learner at early stages of learning an L2, learners may be able to respond to only the stimuli that are available in their immediate surroundings, the here-and-now contexts. This is the object-regulation stage where the learner's behavior is controlled by objects in their environment. As they progress to the other-regulation stage, learners become able to respond to more abstract entities, they exert a certain control over the object, but still need the help or guidance of caregivers and teachers. Self-regulation is reached when the learner becomes skilled and able to function autonomously. In other words, the learner internalizes, gains control, or to use the SCT term, appropriates new knowledge and skills. Thus, the notion of regulation, as Nessaji and Fotos (ibid: 107) explain, stresses that "new knowledge begins in interaction and becomes internalized and consolidated through interaction and collaboration." Second, it reveals that development occurs in two linked stages of functioning: the inter-psychological stage (or social interaction) and the intra-psychological (or thinking). In this regard, Vygostsky is reported to have said:

> *Any function in the child's cultural development appears twice, or on two planes. First it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category. This is equally true with regard to voluntary attention, logical memory, the formation of concepts, and the development of volition. (1981:163)*

The above quote makes it clear that development of one's cognition starts in society as the child learns, with the help of adults, inter-mental phenomena, or things that are shared between individuals. Newman & Holzman (1993 in Mitchell and Myles, op cit.) hold that a society or culture and its members constitute the necessary context where children develop their early language, through collaborative activity from processes of meaning making. Next, the transition from the inter-mental ability to intra-mental

ability begins to occur as soon as the learner starts to act independently, showing control over his or her own behavior (Donato, 1994).

7.4.3. Scaffolding

Scaffolding is used as a metaphor for what is commonly known as a 'a temporary structure on the outside of a building… used by workmen while building, repairing, or cleaning the building" (Oxford dictionary**,** 2000). In the SCT, the metaphor of scaffolding refers to "the various kinds of assistance, which guide a learner into an activity that initially is too complex" (Bruner 1983, in van Lier, 2001:96). Scaffolding refers to the supportive environment created through the guidance and feedback that 'novices' or learners receive during social interaction. The aim for the learner is to extend current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence (Donato, 1994). Scaffolded help is characterized by six features (Wood, Bruner, and Ross in Donato, 1994: 41):

1. *recruiting interest in the task.*
2. *simplifying the task.*
3. *maintaining pursuit of the goal,*
4. *marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution,*
5. *controlling frustration during problem solving, and*
6. *demonstrating an idealized version of the act performed.*

Donato goes on to assert that the scaffolds should be continually revised by the experts in response to the emerging capabilities of the novice. Thus, scaffolding need upgrade when in the presence of child's error or limited capabilities. However, as the child begins to take on more responsibility for the task, the adult dismantles the scaffold as a move which entails the child's benefited from the assisted performance and internalization of problem-solving processes provided by the previous scaffolded move. Therefore, scaffolding is a means to improve the learner's skills and elevate them to the next level.

7.4.4. Zone of Proximal Development

It was already established in the notions of mediation, regulation and scaffolding that the assistance of an expert (e.g. a teacher) is sine qua non for the learner to accomplish certain activities. Similarly, the zone of proximal development dictates that at any point in a learner's development, some skills or operations are within the

learner's competence i.e. within the area of self-regulation, while others can only be accomplished with special guidance, and yet others lie entirely outside the learner's scope. The middle band of activity, which is naturally the focus of pedagogical action, is referred to by Vygotsky as the zone of proximal development (van Lier, 2001). Originally, Vygotsky (1978:86) defines the Zone of Proximal Development as:

> *the difference between the child's developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.*

This definition implies is that learning is grounded in collaborative activities which mediate learning and cognitive development. The act of collaboration pushes learners towards higher levels of development, enabling them to learn what they are capable of learning (Nessaji & Fotos, *op. cit.*). The most important implication of the Zone of Proximal Development is demonstrated by Ohta, in accordance with Vygotsky's views, who reiterates that all productive instruction demands more than the learner is capable of, pushes him to rise above himself to move beyond his established mental functions, and thus leads to his development. Therefore, too much assistance or instruction that lacks challenge and stays within the learner's range of ability does not lead to development (Ohta, 2010).

Conclusion

To conclude, the literature review in this chapter maintained that the teacher, as the central figure in the classroom, has many choices open before him/ her in making decisions. These decisions may concern how to manage interaction using different exchange structures, questions and questioning techniques, feedback strategies that prompt students to speak or those that provide information instead. It has also shown that interaction is pivotal to language learning, and in the case of the socio-cultural theory, it is indeed equated with learning.

Chapter Two: Risk-Taking in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching

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Chapter Two

Risk-Taking in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching

Introduction

Research findings on the Good Language Learner and language learning strategies suggest that willingness on the part of learners to guess and communicate whatever knowledge they have of the TL is a positive predictor of success (Ellis, 1994; Oxford, 1990; and Rubin, 1975). This personality-related behaviour has been termed 'Risk-taking'. The present chapter attempts to shed light on the construct of risk-taking, and its relevance in EFL teaching. To do this, it starts by defining risk-taking by providing various definitions that make possible the formulation of an operational definition for this construct, suitable for the aims of this work. For the purpose of giving a comprehensive vision of the concept, the relationship between risk-taking, being one of the personality factors, and some other affective variables: self-esteem, anxiety, motivation, and learning styles, is examined. Next, the extensive overview of the notion of risk-taking covers the connection of each of interlanguage, speaking, practice, and learning strategies with risk-taking, respectively. After explaining the concept of risk-taking, an investigation of its value and importance in different teaching approaches, namely: the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Natural Approach, and the Communicative Approach will be conducted in literature to seal this chapter.

1. Definition of Risk-Taking in Literature

Recent EFL literature has been characterised by the shift of attention from research on the most appropriate teaching methods to the focus on the characteristics of good language learners. Indeed, being a personality-related aspect of students' behaviour during their learning process, risk-taking has appeared first in psychology (Bem, 1971; and Kogan & Wallach, 1967), and later was integrated and taken over by debate in linguistics and ESL literature (Beebe, 1983; Ely, 1986a; and Labov, 1969). By and large, risk-taking was said to correlate positively with L2 learning (Ely, 1986a). That is to say, learners with a high risk-taking tendency were believed to succeed in their L2 learning. However, there was another view which documented the reverse effect i.e., "persons with a high motivation to achieve are … moderate, not high, risk-takers. These

individuals like to be in control and like to depend on skill. They do not take wild, frivolous risks or enter in no-win situations" (Beebe, 1983:41). In other words, they want to take calculated and accurate guesses (Rubin, 1975).

Literally, risk-taking refers to the actions of doing things that involve risks in order to make achievements regardless of the possible negative outcomes. It, then, has a direct relation with the attitude of not being afraid to make mistakes (Brown, 2000). Therefore, risk-taking is the state of being eager and willing to try new information intelligently, regardless of embarrassment or any other affective factor that may hinder it. In the FL learning context, risk-taking is described by Beebe (1983) as "a situation where an individual has to make a decision involving choice between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain; there is a possibility of failure" (in Gass & Selinker, 2008: 433)

The construct of risk-taking has been explained by Brown (2000) as a state in which learners "[are] willing to try out hunches about the language and take the risk of being wrong" (149). This notion of willingness is the key to a risk-taking behaviour. By willingness is meant making voluntary steps to participate -say in communicative activities within FL classrooms- through guessing or speaking (Arnold & Brown, 1999; and Oxford, 1999). Learners with high risk-taking are expected to engage freely in various classroom communicative activities and seize opportunities that allow them to use language, regardless of the possible errors or mistakes they can make. Inevitably, language learning involves the risks of "failing to produce intended meaning, failure to interpret intended meaning (on the part of someone else), of being laughed at, of being shunned or rejected" (Brown, 1994:160). In other words, language learners risk social evaluation. As a result, students with a high uncertainty avoidance attitude will typically have the problem of being overly cautious. The concept of 'uncertainty avoidance', introduced by Hofstede (1991) in his dimensions of culture, is defined as "the extent to which people within a culture are made nervous by situations which they perceive as unstructured, unclear, or unpredictable, situations which they therefore try to avoid by maintaining strict codes of behavior and a belief in absolute truths." (Brown, 2000:190). Hence, fear of negative evaluation, on the part of teacher or even peers, often prevents students from taking necessary risks.

In addition, Ely (1986a) singles out four characteristics of a risk-taking behaviour. The initial symptom is related to the learner's self-confidence and absence of fear of experimenting with new language. With the help of self-confidence, the

second level which refers to the willingness to use new complex language can be attained. The third characteristic or level is revealed by an acceptance of erroneous linguistic production or achievement. The fourth and most refined feature of risk-taking is shown by a tendency to rehearse the new linguistic data before speaking out, under the aim of either discussion or trial of new language. These four characteristics seem to be hierarchical in nature; i.e. the achievement of one behaviour would lead to the next, in case of emergence of such behaviour in classroom settings. In simple words, risk-taking is an attitude or a strategy that consists of using language which is slightly beyond one's present proficiency level and experimenting with language in order to achieve two ends: to communicate and to create novel utterances. Moreover, Arnold & Brown (1999) compare learning an FL to embarking on an adventure. Therefore, learners should lose themselves in the process by taking adventurous steps, now and then, trying out their guesses or 'hunches' and taking a reasonable risk to be wrong.

Additionally, the development of risk-taking in classroom settings is not the role of the learners *per se*. It is, also, that of the teacher who should provide a harmonic and comfortable atmosphere for the learners to be encouraged to participate voluntarily and actively in oral-based tasks that involve discussion and debate. So, language teachers are required to encourage and push learners to take risks through : "… a non-threatening classroom climate, class discussion of fears, individual counselling with inhibited students, and training in strategies that facilitate taking risks…", using Oxford's (1992:38) wording. The teachers, according to Oxford (ibid.) have dual roles in maintaining affective climate and developing learners' risk-taking tendencies. They should make learners feel relaxed and comfortable in tricky and problematic situations in the classroom, and encourage them to take risks through equipping them with the necessary information about when and how to take risks in various classroom tasks. Put differently, it is crucial to develop a relaxed classroom climate and to reinforce risk-taking; language teachers should arrange and develop an affective framework to help learners overcome their anxiety of learning the TL (Brown, 2000). In the same vein, Dufeu (1994:89-90) argues that language teachers should attempt to maintain an atmosphere in which learners:

> *feel comfortable as they take their first public steps in the strange world of the foreign language. To achieve this, [teachers have] to create a climate of acceptance that will stimulate self-confidence, and encourage participants to experiment and to discover the target language, allowing themselves to take risks without being embarrassed.*

This role and efforts of language teachers to provide an affective climate and encourage learners to take-risks should not to be limited to the precincts of the classroom, but should tackle outside-the-classroom risks as well. Otherwise, learners would be prone to some risks that may challenge or hinder their trials; Beebe (1983:40) illustrates some of in-class and out-class impediments as follows:

> *In the classroom, these ramifications might include a bad grade in the course, a fail on the exam, a reproach from the teacher, a smirk from a classmate, punishment or embarrassment imposed by oneself. Outside the classroom, individuals… fear looking ridiculous; they fear the frustration coming from a listener's blank look, showing that they have failed to communicate…Perhaps worst of all, they fear a loss of identity.*

This means that there are negative factors, both inside and outside the classroom that may have an impact on learners' intentions to take risks. Thus, several researchers attempted to suggest some of the activities that can help language teachers in developing learners' self-esteem, reducing their anxiety and increasing their willingness to take risks in communicative tasks (Beebe, ibid.; Ely, 1986; Oxford, 1992). The interconnectedness between these affective variables i.e., self-esteem, anxiety, and risk-taking will be examined in the next section in more details.

It is worthwhile to reiterate that research studies suggest that language learners should take moderate and intelligent risks to learn FL/L2 better. This description can be labelled as characteristic of risk-taking in terms of quantity and quality. That is, learners should take voluntary, moderate, calculated and intelligent risks rather than taking no risks or taking wild uncalculated ones. Model risk-taking then involves "guessing meanings based on background knowledge and speaking up despite the possibility of making occasional mistakes, rather than taking no risks at all or taking extreme, uninformed risks" (Oxford, 1992: 38). Such background-knowledge-based guesses or 'hunches' make risk-taking usually accurate. Moreover, in a study conducted by Ely (1986a) on the relationship between university students' risk-taking tendencies and classroom participation, it was found that students' risk-taking behaviour is a positive predictor of their self-initiated or voluntary classroom participation. Another study about classroom participation and risk-taking was done by Beebe (1983) who found that L2 learners experience more shyness in front of their L1 peers than TL speakers and teachers. Gass & Selinker (2000) explain that "Beebe operatically defined risk-taking in terms of a number factors, among them number of attempts to use

particular grammatical factors avoidance, amount of talk, amount of information volunteering" (361). This means that taking risks may depend on three main factors: situation, learner's willingness and learner's general type. Hence, risk-taking can be operationally used to refer to learners' production of long, complex and authentic utterances in English to communicate in the classroom. It can also be conceptualized within a hierarchy that classifies its different forms from optimal to minimal instances. These considerations will be the focal point of the practical part of this study in which an operationalization of the construct of risk-taking is supplied, based on this review of literature.

Summing up, risk-taking effects L2/FL learning in many ways and has a significant role in L2/FL acquisition and learning. It is mostly associated with success in L2/FL teaching. Woodward (2001) asserts that "with a forgiving atmosphere … and plenty of risk-taking, most students can help each other towards the same shared understanding" (112). Developing such a cognitive-affective factor is a shared responsibility of both learners and teachers. Teachers are required to be aware of their learners' differences and to provide a harmonic atmosphere in classrooms in order to boost learners' willingness to communicate and engage in activities that allow for risk-taking. Nevertheless, and apart from the effect of individual differences (ID) and personality factors, many research studies prove that risk taking does not affect long-term success (Gass & Selinker, 2000). This is because of its interdependence with other affective variables such as anxiety, motivation, learning styles, to mention but few examples. Ely (1986b) reports that: "the learners with a high level of discomfort were less likely to take risks in class suggesting that high anxiety negatively affected motivation" (in Ellis, 2008: 694). Therefore, risk-taking as an affective-cognitive factor is closely related to those affective variables stated above. This relationship will be explained in detail over the following section.

2. Risk-Taking and Affective Variables

After the mid-twentieth century, researchers turned their attention to the important role played by learners' affective factors in language learning in the same way as cognitive abilities (Alpert & Haber, 1960; and Chastain, 1975). Within this study, affect is used as a catch-all term to include not only those aspects of the learner emotions but also the factors that may impact, even indirectly, the learner's feelings. To

impose an order on their classification, the categories of affect, in this section, will be organized under the headings of self-esteem, anxiety, motivation, and learning styles, in this order. However, for the sake of presenting a full comprehensive presentation of the affective factors influencing learners' willingness to communicate during classroom tasks, a review of the literature on affect to understand the ways in which it influences learning an L2/FL will be given.

In effect, over the last few decades, the interrelationship between L2/FL learning and affect has been extensively studied (Damasio, 1994 in Arnold & Brown, 1999). The resounding conclusions which were drawn out of these studies all maintain that the psychological, or affective, characteristics of learners together with the learning environment are, at least, as influential on language learning as is the cognitive side of learning. What is more is that the affective domain is found to be part of reason.

Providing clear-cut definitions of the "emotional side of human behavior" (Brown, 2000: 142) is not an easy task. For one reason, the affective domain is defined by abstract concepts and therefore eludes experimentation. For another one, defining terms for purposes of research entails undertaking constant revisions and classifications of these concepts. Nonetheless, Brown's specification that such attempts should be guided by a "careful, systematic study" is observed strictly, hereafter, in the hope of coming up with an insightful understanding of the role of affect.

Affect covers a whole range of phenomena and is defined in terms of "aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour" (Arnold & Brown, op cit.: 1). A cultural perspective on affect in L2/FL learning is offered by Gass & Selinker (2008) who relate affect to aspects of the TL. According to them, affect can refer to "feelings or emotional reactions about the language, about the people who speak that language, or about the culture where that language is spoken" (ibid.: 398)

Bloom et.al. (1964, in Brown, op cit.: 143-144) added a sequel to their taxonomy of educational objectives: the affective domain, complementary to the one presented in the previous chapter which deals with the cognitive domain. Originally devised for educational purposes, Bloom's taxonomy offers a well elaborated definition of the affective domain which is widely used to understand the human behaviour. According to Bloom, affectivity develops along five levels which ultimately result in a person's adoption of a value system. This value system becomes so internalized that it conditions and guides a person's acts. The fundamental or lowest level deals with

receiving i.e., individuals should be aware of the world around them and be willing to receive stimulus. As for learners, they should give even passive attention (whether controlled or selected) otherwise learning would not occur. The second level is responding which consists in learners' going beyond receiving information or attending to a stimulus to responding or reacting, in acquiescence or voluntarily. As far as risk-taking is concerned, learners are expected to reach at least these two levels; that is to say, they should react and respond to various communicative tasks even with slight signals, such as agreeing with and repeating the teacher's or peers' utterances, and using short replies. The third level of affectivity involves valuing, i.e. "placing worth on a thing, a behavior, or a person" (ibid.). Learners should attach values to knowledge they receive in the classroom; beginning with acceptance, and preferring commitment and conviction. The following level refers to the organization of values. Learners should go over attaching values to organizing them into a system of beliefs. The last and highest level in developing learners' affectivity is characterization. This means that learners should act in accordance to the values they have conceptualized and internalized. At this stage, learners will become characterized by their own value system (ibid.). This comprehensive conceptualization of the development of learners' affectivity serves as a good reference for teachers. In plain words, the aforementioned affective levels can be observed in students' performances to gauge their affective development.

As stated above, risk-taking embodies different affective variables. Learners are thought to take risks if they speak in the classroom, engage in classroom tasks and commit themselves to doing communicative activities. That is to say, they should be active and responsive in the give-and-take activities. Self-esteem, anxiety, and motivation are among the affective factors that influence learners' risk-taking. Certainly, these are not the only variables, but are nonetheless the pervasive ones. The following section is devoted to the exploration of those variables and their effect on learners' risk-taking development.

2.1 Self-Esteem

Indisputably, the affective domain was neglected for so long within the language teaching profession. It was only in the 1960's that this domain received the attention of humanistic psychologists (Arnold, 1999; and Habrat, 2013). At first, there was

disagreement among researchers about the specific variables that constitute affect. Habrat (ibid.) and Brown (op cit.) posit that the emotional (affective) side of human behaviour includes: anxiety, inhibition, risk-taking, extroversion/introversion, empathy, motivation and self-esteem. Regarding the present section, the role self-esteem plays in language learners' success, and more specifically, the nature of the relation between risk-taking and self-esteem will be examined.

The construct of self-esteem has drawn research works in various disciplines. Researchers attempted to provide a clear and comprehensive definition of self-esteem. Mruk (1999, in Habrat, 2013) provides a general summary about the various branches which deal with self-esteem: the socio-cultural approach, the behavioural approach, the humanistic philosophical approach, and the cognitive one. This entails that self-esteem is multi-dimensional in nature. Put otherwise, each field of research perceives self-esteem differently from the others. From a sociocultural standpoint, self-esteem is seen as an outcome or a result of the influences of society and culture. This view is closely akin to that of the cognitive approach which holds that self-esteem has to do with understanding the nature of the relation between individuals. From a behavioural standpoint, self-esteem is conceptualized of as a fundamental stimulus or drive for our actions; however, the humanistic approach goes farther to suggest that self-esteem is a basic feeling for human beings.

According to Brown (2000:145), "Self-esteem is probably the most pervasive aspect of any human behaviour". Most likely, self-esteem is crucial for the success of any human goal-directed behaviour. It refers to "individuals' overall evaluation or appraisal of themselves, whether they approve or disapprove of themselves, like or dislike themselves" (Higgins, 1996:1073). It is, then, a personal evaluation of oneself, i.e. a feeling of self-worth. Moreover, one's feeling of self-esteem influences the interactions he/she encounters in daily situations (Kernis, 2003). For Slavin (2006), self-esteem is: "the value each [individual] places on [his] own characteristics, abilities, and behaviours" (80). It can be understood from the above quote that it is all about personal evaluation, individual's attitudes towards oneself, and giving sense of worth to one's own personal identity. A more comprehensive definition of self-esteem was proposed by Coopersmith (1967: 4-5):

> *By self-esteem, we refer to the evaluation which individuals make and customarily maintain with regard to themselves; it expresses an*

> *attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that individuals hold towards themselves. It is a subjective experience which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviour.*

Many studies concluded that self-esteem is a crucial variable for increasing students' achievement. It is argued that learners with high self-esteem are likely to succeed in language learning better than those with a low level of self-esteem. In fact, learners having high self-esteem are able to take responsibilities of their own learning process through setting clearer aims, striving to achieve them, maintaining and satisfying their self-image. Nevertheless, Habrat admits that the construct of "self-esteem is one of the affective factors whose role in learning a foreign language cannot be disregarded, although it is not fully understood" (2013: 242). Sometimes, this term is used interchangeably with self-concept and self-efficacy when it shouldn't because the three constructs carry slight differences in meaning especially where the level of specificity is taken into consideration (Habrat, ibid.). Self-concept, as such, refers to personal ''evaluation of competence or adequacy in specific domains, including academic (e.g. reading, writing or mathematics) and non-academic (e.g. social, behavioural, athletic) areas'' (Manning et al., 2006: 341). This definition reveals the complexity of self-concept in comparison to that of self-esteem. Self-concept is a whole independent construct that has a multi-dimensional nature too (Harter, 1999; and Marsh, 1989). As regards self-esteem, it is considered, to some extent, the umbrella term that covers both self-concept and self-efficacy. This latter is perceived to be a context-based evaluation of certain competences used to achieve certain tasks. As for self-confidence, it is used interchangeably or contended to be closely related to self-esteem in that both of them deal with individuals' beliefs and personal views about their own abilities and competences. Moreover, they prove to be positively correlated with each other (Dornyei, 2005). To sum things up, a more elaborate distinction between self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-concept, proposed by Habrat, can be used as a reference for comparing the three concepts. This view holds that:

> *The difference between self- efficacy, [self-esteem, and self-concept] lies in the degree of specificity. While self-esteem appears to be the most global construct, referring to the overall evaluation of one's worth and value, self-concept renders an individual's self-perceptions in specific domains; self-efficacy is related to specific tasks within a domain. (op cit.:245)*

In addition to its complex nature, the concept of self-esteem was claimed to be a hierarchical construct (Lau et al., 1999). Dornyei (2005) characterizes it in a global (trait-like) and in a situational (state-like) manner. Brown (2000) presents three levels of self-esteem: global, situation and task self-esteem. General or global self-esteem is rather stable, and it is the constant self-assessment of one's own abilities, behaviour and worth over time and in various contexts. While situational or specific self-esteem refers to one's own evaluation of particular traits or individual aspects and in particular situations, contexts and areas, "task self-esteem relates to particular tasks within specific situations" (Brown, 2000: 146). Within the SLA context, task self-esteem may refer to certain specific learning skills such as speaking and listening.

For SLA researchers, there are several aspects that are related to the learners' self-esteem development. Habrat (2013) cites several features that have a strong influence on learners' development of self-appraisal. These aspects are the following: learners' aspirations and achievement, the role of significant others, language anxiety, risk-taking, motivation and autonomy. Learners' aspiration and achievement are said to correlate positively with learners' self-esteem. If learners attain good levels and success in their learning process, then they will attain a high self-esteem (Habrat, ibid.). The second factor that determines learners' positive self-appraisal is contributed to by the value that other people attach to the learners. Thus, in language classrooms, students consider themselves as having some particular characteristics and determine their relative worth on the basis of the teachers' appraisal (Coopersmith, 1967). This means that if teachers attribute some positive remarks to students, they will gain positive self-appraisal. In case the negative judgements are implied, low self-esteem is obtained. In such a case, low self-esteem becomes a source of language anxiety, a detrimental variable of language learning (Avila, 2007), particularly when engaging in speaking activities which involve oral communication and may engender communication apprehension and fear of evaluation. Language anxiety factors prove to correlate positively with learners' self-esteem (Arnold, 2007). That is to say, learners with low self-esteem are thought to be inhibited by communication apprehension and fear of being criticized and evaluated by teacher and peers (for more details, see the next section 2.2.).

Literature on self-esteem shows that taking risks in communicative tasks in classrooms is another important variable that interplays with learners' level of self-

esteem (Ortega, 2007). Accordingly, whenever learners decide or are required to engage in oral communication tasks, they face the risk of making errors in front of the teacher and peers. Among these risks, which were already mentioned above, interaction may engender feelings of embarrassment and criticism. inevitably, it is quite obvious that having self-doubts and fears resulting from low-self-concept may impede learners' risk-taking, thereby leading to avoiding speaking in class and engaging in such communicative tasks. This will cause getting negative self-concepts and low self-esteem. In turn, these impact negatively on learners' autonomy and motivation, two crucial factors in language learning that will be dealt with later in section 2.3.

In sum, affect in L2/FL learning contexts is associated with learner's self-esteem, feelings, attitudes and emotional states. Self-esteem is claimed to have a major impact on learning achievement. It is considered as one of the determinants of learners' success in language learning, at least in speaking skills. Moreover, low self-esteem has been proven to account for heightening learners' language anxiety, and more importantly avoidance of risk-taking and thus missing on opportunities for oral practice. That is to say, learners with low self-esteem are said to experience far more unsatisfying effects and obtain lower results than those having high self-esteem.

2.2. Anxiety

As seen above, research findings show that anxiety is negatively correlated with motivation in L2/FL learning contexts (Liu & Huang, 2011; Yang, Liu & Wu, 2010). In this vein, Clément et al. (1994) argue that learners with high motivation to learn an L2/FL are usually less anxious learners. The present section is dedicated to providing a workable definition for anxiety, classifying it into recognizable types and probing its connection with L2/FL learning.

Anxiety is a complex phenomenon which provoked wide disagreement regarding its definition and criteria. It has been conceptualized either as a stimulus condition, as a probability of a harmful future outcome or as response to a stressful condition. A number of sources of confusion have contributed to the difficulty in reaching agreement on the meaning of anxiety. As a case in point, definitions which overlook the distinction between anxiety as a personality trait and anxiety as a transitory emotional state are deemed to lead to conceptual confusion over the essence of the term as well as its effects.

Psychologists describe anxiety as "a subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Horwitz & Young, 1991: 27). Anxiety is generally defined as a reaction to a perceived threat and incapacity to cope with the situational challenge in a satisfactory way. An anxious person feels he or she cannot meet the demands of this call. Anxiety manifests in a number of different ways depending on the individual and the specific situation causing the anxiety reaction. Therefore, while some researchers equate anxiety with fear i.e. in some situations people feel threatened by some danger, others describe it as an unpleasant emotion which, unlike fear, has no identifiable or real causes.

Moreover, psychologists have identified two levels of anxiety, namely trait or global anxiety, and situational or momentary anxiety. These levels vary from deep and permanent predispositions to momentary and situational levels as instantiated in situation-specific anxiety (Brown, 2000). Trait or global anxiety refers to a stable predisposition to become anxious in a wide range of situations and in about every matter. Trait anxiety is known as the probability to become anxious in any situation. However, situation-specific anxiety refers to anxiety experienced in a specific situation or context (Brown, 2000).

In the learning context, anxiety is found to be influential on the learning experience (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; and Scovel, 1978). Feelings of anxiety are experienced by the majority of learners, to say the least, who have come to learn and use an L2/FL, as Arnold and Brown (1999) state: "Anxiety is quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process." (8). L2/FL classroom anxiety constitutes a particular kind of situational anxiety, one that is distinct from classroom anxiety as Maclntyre and Gardner (1991c: 112) assert: "foreign language anxiety can be distinguished from other types of anxiety and that it can have a negative effect on the language learning process". A worthy point to mention is that classroom anxiety differs from language anxiety. Wrench et al. (2009) identify five distinguishing types of anxiety that can be found in classroom context: communication apprehension, receiver apprehension, writing apprehension, teacher apprehension and evaluation apprehension. Each of these types of anxiety or apprehension as it is used by these authors concerns an aspect inherent in the classroom atmosphere. On the other hand, Horwitz et al. (1986) assume that language anxiety is connected to three types of anxieties, i.e. communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety.

Language anxiety is described by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) as: ‘‘derogatory self-related cognitions … feelings of apprehension, and physiological responses such as increased heart rate’’ (5). It is experienced in various contexts, whether academic or social, and within learning or communicative situations. It is also defined as an emotional state during which a person has "subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Horwitz et al., 1986: 125). Regarding language proficiency, the reciprocal relationship between anxiety and proficiency should be stressed (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). That is to say, language anxiety with its inherent negative feelings can affect, negatively or positively, learners' language development and proficiency. It has the impacts of either motivating learners, helping them engage in communicative tasks and taking risks in classroom activities or impeding and hindering their learning process (Baran-Lucarz, 2013). Studies which tested the specific types of anxiety have proved its detrimental influence on listening and reading (Horwitz et al., 1986; and MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Yet, other research works reached a conclusion that speaking is the most anxiety breeding skill, particularly when taking place in front of classmates (Young, 1992). Its crucial role is emphasized by MacIntyre (1999) who considers it the strongest predictor of L2/FL learning achievement.

The key issue, then, is whether anxiety is the cause of poor achievement or the result, and it has stimulated considerable debate. Although language anxiety is commonly thought to be the cause of difficulties experienced during language learning and of poor performance (Scovel, 2001), some scholars argue that the equation starts with poor achievement as a cause. This means that low levels of mastery and competence of certain language skills and aspects were found to contribute to high language anxiety (Ganschow et al. 1994, in Brown, 2000). Language anxiety is, then, a consequence of poor language learning (Sparks, Ganschow & Javorsky, 2000). Moreover, Sparks and Ganschow (1991) posit that language anxiety may be connected to poor achievement caused by L1 learning disabilities.

In addition, research on anxiety in L2/FL learning has unravelled an important distinction between facilitative "helpful" (Oxford, 1999), and debilitative "harmful" anxiety. In this regard, Scovel (1978:139) states that:

> *Facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to 'fight' the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approval*

> *behaviour. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast motivates the learner to 'flee' the new learning task, it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behaviour.*

Facilitative and debilitative anxieties work in tandem and serve both to motivate and hinder the progress of the student, constructing an optimal point somewhere along the continuum; as Brown (2000:152) puts it: "both too much anxiety and too little anxiety may hinder the process of successful second language learning."

Early work on classroom anxiety was carried out by means of analysing learners' diary studies. It showed that learners often experience anxiety, especially when they feel a sense of competition with other learners (Bailey, 1983). Later research has adopted a quantitative approach based on questionnaires. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) focused on general FL classroom anxiety (emphasizing oral communication). It has been followed by additional questionnaires to measure reading anxiety and writing anxiety. Further research carried by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) suggests three forms of language anxiety occurring at each of the three principal stages of the language acquisition process: the input stage, the central processing stage and the output stage (Ellis, 2004). In the input stage, anxiety is a function of the learner's ability to handle unfamiliar external stimuli. In the central processing stage, it is aroused when the learner attempts to store and organize input; and in the output stage, anxiety occurs as a result of the learner's attempts to retrieve previously learned material (Ellis, 2004).

Language anxiety is a universal and common problem especially in terms of its strong relationship with the skill of speaking an L2/FL. Notwithstanding, anxiety is a learner factor that is amenable to pedagogic influence. It is, therefore, imperative for instructors to develop an awareness of language anxiety, of the things that cause it and of practical ways to reduce anxiety levels. The next section examines another affective factor which relates to the construct of risk-taking, motivation.

2.3. Motivation

As mentioned above, the notion of risk-taking is varied and multi-faceted. It is, basically, dependent on various affective aspects that characterize individual differences. Motivation is one of these aspects. It is a core theme of study and analysis in both educational psychology and SLA. It is said that the construct of motivation is easier to describe than to define (Covington, 1992). In this section, an overview of the

numerous definitions of motivation in L2/FL will be presented alongside an analysis of its connection with risk-taking.

Motivation has been widely researched and acknowledged to be an important affective variable that influences L2/FL learning (Dörnyei, 2001). Previous studies on motivation have shown that it is one of the determinants of the rate and success of language learning; it determines how much effort the learner puts into TL learning (Brown, 2000). Motivation as a socio-psychological factor has proved to be the second strongest predictor of success after aptitude (Skehan, 1989). Moreover, Dörnyei (2005:65) goes so far as to suggest that "high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions". In fact, the very act of starting the process of language learning presupposes motivation. It is considered as a main affective variable in the L2 classrooms.

As for risk-taking being one aspect of practice, it can be claimed that it is directed and influenced by motivation in the sense that language learners whose motivation is high are expected to engage in risk-taking situations much more than those with low motivation. For Gardner who, together with Lambert, has done much early research on motivation and attitudes, "Motivation involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes toward the activity in question" (1985, in Gass & Selinker, 2008:426). Put simply, motivation is the combination of desire and effort to achieve a goal, and therefore, it influences the degree of effort that learners expend in learning an L2/FL.

Similarly, Dornyei (2005: 65) argues that motivation"… provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent." This, inevitably, applies to risk-taking and learners' willingness to communicate in the TL. In another context, Dornyei (2001) provides a more detailed description of motivation through analysing it with regard to human behaviour dimensions. According to him, behaviour involves *direction* and *magnitude, i.e.* intensity; and the same can be said about motivation. Thus,

> *It is responsible for the choice of a particular action, the effort expended on it and the persistence with it. Therefore, motivation explains why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity (Dornyei, 2001:7).*

Furthermore, motivation encompasses three variables: the stimulus or goal, the effort to be devoted to achieve this goal and the constancy in doing behaviour (Brown, 1994). Brophy (2010), too, in his book "Motivating Students to Learn" claims that: "Motivation is a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of behavior, especially goal-directed behavior" (3). Inherent in this point, risk-taking as initiation, a concept which will be highlighted below, is a key demonstration of the role of motivation in enhancing learners' speaking performances and language proficiency.

Taking a different stance, Brown (2000) provides a more comprehensive survey of the concept of motivation through analysing it from various angles. To do this, he puts forward three main perspectives that deal with motivation: behaviouristic, cognitive, and constructivist ones. According to him, motivation from a behaviouristic perspective, is seen as "the anticipation of reward". That is to say, human behaviour is conditioned by the reception of positive reinforcement and reward, as acquired from previous experiences. From a cognitive standpoint, however, motivation relates to "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect" (Keller, 1983: 389). Motivation, then, is based on the need to make individual choices and decisions about behaviours, not for the sake of getting external reward, but rather for the sake of becoming satisfied with oneself, i.e. self-reward (Brown, 1994). The third view which emphasises the role of social context in motivation is that of the constructivists (Williams & Burden, 1997). "Each person is motivated differently, and will therefore act in his or her own environment in ways that are unique. But these unique acts are always carried out within a cultural and social milieu and cannot be completely separated from that context", says Brown (2000: 163). With regard to the FL context, creating a motivational atmosphere in the classroom enhances language learners' competition and raises the quality of their engagement in participation. That is to say, teachers play a great role in promoting learners' interests and activating their willingness to participate in different communicative tasks through rewarding.

Following the same line of thought, Ellis (1997:75) argues that: "motivation involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2". Moreover, Dornyei (2001) asserts: " 'motivation' is related to one of the most basic aspects of the human mind, and most teachers and researchers

would agree that it has a very important role in determining success or failure in any learning situation" (2). Hence, motivation is deemed as a key variable in the learning process. It affects the success and failure of learners. All in all, the more learners are motivated to acquire the TL, the more they show positive results in their learning development. Two dichotomies of motivation have been singled out in SLA research for their having specific characteristics and effects. These are: instrumental vs. integrative motivation and intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation (Brown, 2000; Dörnyei, 2005; and Ellis, 1997). Though these types are arranged into dichotomies, it does not follow that these constructs should be taken as mutually exclusive because, as will be explained, they are overarching and dynamic. For Gardener & MacIntyre (1991, in Brown: 2000), it is more reasonable to refer to these dichotomies as "orientations" because, as they explain, for every orientation or direction the learner takes along each dichotomy, different needs might be fulfilled.

2.3.1. Instrumental vs. Integrative Motivation

Ellis (1997) differentiates between instrumental and integrative orientation, as follows: learning languages for functional reasons and learning languages for personal interests in those languages, their people and culture. Dornyei (2001:16) assumes that language learners' goals are of two categories:

> *Integrative orientation, which reflects a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community and Instrumental orientation, where language learning is primarily associated with the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary.*

Instrumentality describes learning and effort that are made for some functional or instrumental goals e.g. a better career, access to technology, translation. On the other side of the spectrum, integrative motivation stems from the learners' choice and wish to identify and interchange with the culture, people, country or countries represented by the TL (Brown, 2000; Cook, 2008; and Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

2.3.2. Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Motivation

The second type of dichotomies refers to the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to the natural tendency to initiate, seek out and conquer challenging situations. Here, motivation is explained in terms of internal, personal factors such as needs, interests and curiosity. The learner finds the activity self-rewarding and no other reward is expected. It spurs learners' risk-taking and engagement in unpredictable tasks. In contrast, extrinsic motivation takes external, environmental factors such as rewards, grades, positive feedback as the drives of action (Brown, 2000). This means that the learner anticipates the rewards of action. The "locus of causality", whether the learner's reason for acting is situated inside or outside the person, accounts for the difference between the two constructs (Harmer, 2007). Despite the distinction between these two types of motivation, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation should be seen complementary rather than exclusive (Ellis, 1997).

Last, motivation is said to be either a cause of L2/FL achievement or a result of learning (Ellis, 1997). This claim is echoed by Cook (2008) who assigns a twofold role for motivation: it can be a factor that causes successful learning or an outcome of this latter. Both of instrumentality and integrativeness are causative orientations, and affect the learner's language achievement. They are reasons for which a learner may embark on the study of an FL/L2. On the other hand, success (or failure) experienced in learning can contribute to increase or even lower motivation in students.

In a nutshell, motivation as an affective variable plays a vital role in developing learners' abilities. It stands as a trigger for learners to embark on the learning process. In other words, motivation is the impetus by means of which learners initiate, maintain, and keep up with given learning tasks to achieve the goals that were clearly set in their minds. As has been maintained throughout this section, regardless of its type and orientation, motivation proves to correlate positively with learners' development of risk-taking. That is to say, learners with high motivation are expected to show willingness to engage in communicative interactions. In the presence of high motivation, learners' engagement is automatically sustained, which entails doing without the need for constant encouragement, support or direction in different classroom tasks.

2.4. Learning Styles

In recent decades, educationists' attention has shifted from seeking the best approaches in FLT contexts to searching for the characteristics of good learners that make them successful over relatively short periods of instruction (Rubin, 1975). Clearly, these questions tend to highlight the point that there is a large amount of individual differences (ID) in language learning such as motivation, attitude, aptitude, anxiety and self-esteem. These individual differences impact tremendously on the process of learning. Individuals respond differently to instruction, and what works for one learner might not work for another. The ways learners take in information and process it while learning is what is referred to as learning styles (Celce-Murcia, 2001; and Reid, 1995).

By and large, learning styles are known as learning preferences or personal preferences (Dornyei, 2005). Learning styles refer to "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (Reid, 1995: viii). Thus, they are approaches learners use in their learning process, in general, and information processing, in particular (Oxford, 2001). Each individual or learner, then, has some specific choices to make when learning new information, despite being exposed to the same teaching method in a given classroom. As Dornyei (2005: 121) asserts, the concept of learning styles: "… represents a profile of the individual's approach to learning, a blueprint of the habitual or preferred way the individual perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment". Reid (1995), succinctly, argues that learning styles have some fundamental characteristics:

- *Every person, student and teacher alike, has a learning style and learning strengths and weaknesses;*
- *Learning styles exist on wide continuums; although they are described as opposites;*
- *Learning styles are value-neutral; that is, no one style is better than others (although clearly some students with some learning styles function better in a US school system that values some learning styles over others);*
- *Students must be encouraged to "stretch" their learning styles so that they will be more empowered in a variety of learning situations;*
- *Often, students' strategies are linked to their learning styles;*
- *Teachers should allow their students to become aware of their learning strengths and weaknesses. (xiii)*

In the same vein, Oxford (2001) says: "learning styles are not dichotomous …, but generally operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua" (360). Learning

styles are said to "mediate between emotion and cognition" (Brown, 2000: 114). As with affective variables, learning styles were considered by educationists to be of different types (Dornyei, 2005). In fact, dozens of different styles have been identified (Brown, 2000). In this section, only Oxford's (2001) and Reid's (1995) will be presented since they contain some key elements that serve the aim of diagnosing the relationship between learning styles, learners' risk-taking and willingness to communicate in classroom.

Rebecca Oxford (2001) suggests four dimensions of learning styles: sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality, and biological differences. This latter dimension will not be dealt with in this section, and only the three remaining dimensions: sensory preferences, personality types, and desired degree of generality will be explained as they correspond to Reid's (1995), and hence presented from the joint perspectives of the two authors. Previous to Oxford, Reid (1995) divided learning styles into three major categories: cognitive learning styles, sensory learning styles, and personality learning styles. Brown's (2000) addition of an ambiguity tolerance style is worthy to mention and explain as a fourth type.

At first, Reid's cognitive learning styles are similar, to some extent, to Oxford's desired degree of generality. Cognitive learning styles encompass three basic areas: field-independent/field-dependent, analytic/global, reflective/impulsive. Regarding the first category, Brown (2000) claims that having a field-independent style means being able "… to distinguish parts from a whole, to concentrate on something, [and] to analyse separate variables without the contamination of neighbouring variables" (115). That is to say, field-independent individuals are autonomous and able to perceive specific elements or points in the midst of a surrounding field. Whereas, field-dependent or field-sensitive (Brown, 2000) people rely on the field. In plain language, they are influenced by the surrounding environment and cannot operate independently.

In the FL context, field-independent learners tend to separate key details from complex data or information, while their field-dependent peers find it difficult to do so. In other words, field-independent learners tend to be analytical, focusing on form and accuracy, rules and patterns and prefer classroom tasks that involve analysis, attention and drilling. They do also prefer deductive lessons (Abraham, 1985 in Brown, 2000). By contrast, field-dependent learners prefer inductive lessons. They tend to be synthetic as they focus on meaning and fluency. They do also concentrate on language use rather

than language usage. They like to produce oral or written texts or messages spontaneously, and give little attention to correcting mistakes. It should be expected that field-dependent learners are better equipped to engage in communicative activities freely and voluntarily than field-independent learners. Through focusing on fluency, appreciating relationships with others and preferring spontaneous speech, natural and face-to-face communication i.e., they are willing to communicate in the TL. It can be claimed that the number of risk-taking instances of such field-dependent learners is higher than that of field-independent ones.

The second category of Reid's cognitive learning styles refers to analytic vs. global distinction. This sub-category is similar to Oxford's 'desired degree of generality'. It is also called by Brown 'left- and right-brain functioning' (ibid.). This distinction was drawn from the research on the human brain hemispheres which suggests that there are two different ways of processing information, global (spatial, relational), in the right hemisphere, and analytic (linear, step-by-step) in the left hemisphere. On the one hand, analytic learners are intellectual and concentrate on details (Brown, ibid.). They deal with information point-by-point and step-by-step, hence, prefer to plan and organize their work, whether written or spoken. This indicates that they do not like to take risks in communicative activities or engage in oral tasks, and prefer to remain silent or work individually on sheet. On the other hand, global learners look for the main idea and the overall picture. Holistic (global) learners enjoy socially interactive and communicative situations where focus is on the main idea and feel free to guess from the context. They are spontaneous and intuitive. They do also prefer cooperative or group activities. The differentiation between both types is not quite clear, and the two types of learners complement each other in real life activities. Because they are parts of the human cognition, the categories of 'analytic' and 'global' are very parallel to those of 'field-dependent' and 'field-independent' (Brown, ibid.).

The last cognitive area in Reid's proposition is that of reflective vs impulsive. This dimension refers to 'systematic, slow and more calculated decisions' and 'intuitive, quick and gambling guess' styles (Brown, ibid.: 121). As the name suggests, reflective students in language learning context tend to take time for reflection, and are vigilant in giving answers, while impulsive learners tend to take risks in language use and give quick answers, and immediately. Impulsive learners are more relaxed in classroom interaction and are active in classroom participation. They are very willing to communicate and use language freely in classrooms better than reflective learners

who need much time to think and elaborate their answers before speaking (Brown, ibid.).

Sensory preferences are the second learning style dimension that was proposed by Oxford (2001) and Reid (1995). They refer to "the physical, perceptual learning channels with which the student is the most comfortable" (Oxford, op cit.: 360). This type encompasses four areas: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, i.e. movement-based, and tactile or touch-based style (Oxford, 2003). Visual learners, as such, acquire better while using visual aids, representations, and stimulations, like charts and pictures, videos, etc. during classroom courses. Meanwhile, auditory learners base their learning on listening i.e., they feel comfortable when presented with oral directions, role-plays and conversations. Kinaesthetic and tactile learners enjoy movement-based activities in classrooms and working with touchable and real objects like flashcards (Brown, 2000). This category of learning styles seems to have little or no relation with learners' risk-taking engagement and development in language learning classrooms. However, auditory learners who learn from both speaking (e.g. discussion, interview, argumentation …) and listening to tape-recording materials seem to be ready to take risks.

The last style, following Oxford's (2001) suggestion, is that of personality types. It is considered as important in L2/FL education since it focuses on learners' psychological side. It consists of four strands: extroverted vs. introverted; intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential; closure-oriented / judging vs. open / perceiving; and thinking vs. feeling. This categorisation is also known as 'Myers-Briggs character types' (in Brown, 2000). The differentiation between extrovert vs introvert persons is "the way [people] either 'turn inward' or 'turn outward' for [their] sense of wholeness and self-esteem" (Brown, 2000: 157). To cut a long story short, a clear description for both introvert and extrovert people has been provided by Oxford (2001: 360) saying:

> *Extroverts gain their greatest energy from the external world. They want interaction with people and have many friendships, some deep and some not. In contrast, introverts derive their energy from the internal world, seeking solitude and tending to have just a few friendships, which are often very deep.*

Following the above definition, it can be deduced that extrovert learners are expected to be talkative and interactive, since they are social persons who have interests in external events. They like, then, engaging in communicative debates and discussions

with peers or teachers. Since their energy and self-esteem is brought from external evaluation, they can be thought to take risks at different levels for the sake of being highly-valued and appreciated by others. By contrast, introvert learners do not care about others' views but prefer to motivate themselves without reliance on external judgement, be it of the teacher or peers. This shows that they do not like interactive-based activities, and hence, do not participate in such type of tasks.

Another personality dimension of learning styles concerns intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential features. Oxford (ibid.) distinguishes intuitive-random and sensing-sequential styles within L2 learning context. According to her (ibid: 360), intuitive-random learners have "abstract, futuristic, large-scale, and non-sequential ways" of thinking i.e., they have theory-based reflection. This notion of intuition entails the existence of a risk-taking tendency for such type of learners. That is to say, these learners are characterized by self-reliance, creation and innovative ideas. Intuitive-random learners enjoy expressing their own ideas, tolerate ambiguity and accept new ideas that are opposite to their own. As Brown (2000:119) expresses it, intuitive learners are "… willing to tolerate ideas and propositions that run counter to their own belief system or structure of knowledge". Intuition and ambiguity tolerance are closely related constructs for this dimension. Similar to ambiguity-tolerant learners who are believed to learn better if provided with more experience, interaction and risk-taking activities, intuition-random learners are conceived of to be high-risk-takers in classrooms owing to their preference of free discussions without teacher's guidance (Brown, ibid.). As for sensing-sequential learners, they have a fact-based reasoning, opposite to that of intuitive-random learners (Oxford, 2001). Moreover, as their name reveals, such learners "want guidance and specific instruction from the teacher, and look for consistency" (Oxford, ibid.: 360). This means that they neither possess creativity nor are they self-reliant in the learning process. Thus, sensing-sequential learners are low-risk-takers in classroom contexts. It is well-advised, then, for teachers to vary the types of tasks so as to cater for both types of learners. More specifically, Oxford suggests that the teachers should provide "highly organized structure for sensing-sequential learners and multiple options and enrichment activities for intuitive-random students" (ibid.: 360-361)

Closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving is one of the personality types proposed by Oxford (op cit.). Although closure-oriented learners are serious and hardworking learners (Oxford, ibid.), they are seen to be missing the development of

their fluency because of their closure tendency, and preference of written data (Oxford, ibid.). Conversely, open learners tend to concentrate on fluency-based activities. They are said to be open-minded and are keen to tolerate new different ideas. Therefore, they appreciate interaction in classroom and communication, even at low levels. In doing so, perceiving or open-minded learners are thought to be willing to share ideas, hence take risks while speaking, regardless of the accuracy of their speech. In classrooms, it is advisable for teachers to make cooperative groups which bring together both types of learners in order to enable them benefit from each other. Such arrangement makes room for 'closure-oriented' to focus on accuracy and for 'open' to encourage fluency (Oxford, 2003).

In a nutshell, it can be said that apart from thinking vs. feeling personality types, all other learning types, with their different categories, whether cognitive, sensory or personal have proved to be closely related to learners' engagement in risk-taking. In other words, learning styles influence strongly learners' willingness to communicate in classroom activities.

3. Risk-taking and Other Related Constructs

It is commonly argued that what characterizes good learners' language in classroom is its being accurate, spontaneous, automatic and with use of various communication strategies to convey meaning. These seemingly straightforward and obvious features all influence and are influenced by the learners' risk-taking behaviour. Although the variables of interlanguage, speaking, practice and learning strategies seem familiar and common, they need further consideration because of the slight or even subtle differences that distinguish one from the other. They also entertain different, and sometimes complex relationships with the multifaceted concept of risk-taking, as the above discussion has shown. This section is devoted to the exploration of such concepts and relationships.

3.1. Interlanguage

To start with, one of the concepts that bears a close relation to risk-taking is 'Interlanguage'. This concept has dominated many research works that focus on the cross-linguistic and intra-linguistic influences. This influence is thought to have some particular relationship with learners' self-initiated risk-taking behaviour in classrooms.

This idea will be explored below through presenting definitions of 'interlanguage' and examining its relation with learners' risk-taking behavioural instances.

The term 'interlanguage' was coined by the American linguist Larry Selinker (1972), and has been investigated along with language transfer in applied linguistics research. Behaviourist and mentalist theories of language learning have formed the ground of this concept. In fact, it is claimed that L2/FL learners construct their unique linguistic system which is neither originating from the native language (L1) nor from the target one (TL). It is, then, an in-between language system, typical to each learner (Ellis, 1997). In simple words, Gass & Selinker (2008) define 'interlanguage' as a type of learner output, or as "the language produced by a nonnative speaker of a language" but more precisely "[It] refers to the systematic knowledge underlying learner's production" (518-19). They (ibid.) argue that this system is of great importance to learners' language learning process. Accordingly,

> *This concept validates learners' speech, not as a deficit system, that is, a language filled with random errors, but as a system of its own with its own structure. This system is composed of numerous elements, not the least of which are elements from the NL [Native Language] and the TL. There are also elements in the IL [Interlanguage] that do not have their origin in either the NL or the TL. These latter are called new forms ... What is important is that the learners themselves impose structure on the available linguistic data and formulate an internalized system. (Gass & Selinker, ibid.:14)*

Similarly, Ellis (op cit.:31) states that: "… the systematic development of learner language reflects a mental system of L2 knowledge … often referred to as interlanguage". As mentioned in this definition, two notions are of main value in the general conceptualization of the term 'interlanguage'. These refer to systematicity and development. Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991) cite these two notions as main principles, and add a third one that recognizes the import of L1 on interlanguage development. The principles are the following:

- *Interlanguages vary systematically;*
- *Interlanguages exhibit common accuracy orders and developmental sequences*
- *Interlanguages are influenced by the learner's L1 (ibid.: 258)*

Concealed in these principles, risk-taking can be experienced by learners in their use of interlanguage at the various stages of their development. Particularly, for the first principle, what is meant by systematic variation (Towell & Hawkins, 1994 in Mitchell & Myles, 2004) is that learners' language is in the process of change and development,

and varies between correct and incorrect forms for long periods of time systematically due to linguistic or situational contexts (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Nevertheless, Ellis (1985) adopts another view of variation known as non-systematic or free-variation in interlanguage which may occur during the second 'replacement' phase. Free-variation is important in the sense that it "serves as the impetus for development" or considered as "the force driving development" (Larsen-Freeman & Long, op cit.: 86). This means that learners at this stage are willing to try new forms of language for the purpose of developing their interlanguage i.e., they take calculated risks. In the same vein, Mitchell & Myles (2004) raise an important point which is that the notion of systematicity is related to the notion of creativity. They (2004:19) explain that:

> *Learners' surface utterances can be linked to underlying rule systems, even if these seem primitive and deviant compared with the target language system. It logically follows that learners can produce original utterances, i.e. that their rule system can generate utterances appropriate to a given context, which the learner has never heard before.*

Therefore, despite the fact that learners may have some rule-based background knowledge, they may create new utterances on their own for the purpose of meaning negotiation, depending on the context and the classroom tasks at hand and congruent with Gass & Selinker's (2008:73) statement that "Interlanguages are unique creations". Put differently, Skehan (2001:75) claims that "interlanguage development is seen to be the by-product of engaging in meaning-processing in the first case through comprehension and in the second through production". The nature of interlanguage implies that learners are predisposed to take calculated risks and experiment with new linguistic structures for the purpose of acquiring language. Differences among learners appear, in practice, and result from the amount of language use and the quality as well as development of the rule system that is relied upon to draw inferences.

As for transfer, it is claimed to be closely-related to interlanguage. Transfer and interlanguage are considerably intertwined in the sense that L1 influence (transfer) impacts learners' interlanguage. Indeed, Odlin (1989) defines transfer as: "… the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired" (27). The definition entails elements crucial to mention. First, the use of the word 'influence' implies a neutral position that language impact can be either positive or negative. Second, the source of this influence traces back to the similarities and

differences between the language systems. Last, following the definition above, transfer applies and covers multiple language learning situations; that is transfer is not limited to the impact of the L1 or the TL, per se, but extends to the other foreign languages that the learner has entered in contact with. Thus, transfer is of dual influence on learners' language learning process. It can be positive, facilitating language learning, or negative, impeding and hindering it (Lado, 1957).

In a nutshell, learners' interlanguage development and risk-taking are two related constructs. In other words, with the aim of advancing one's own interlanguage, a learner may embark on self-initiated and high risks. Hence, willingness to communicate using one's interlanguage can provide a good opportunity for motivated learners to take risks.

3.2. Speaking

The second feature to be dealt with in this section is speaking. By and large, it is considered as a very important part of L2/FL learning, simply because it is closely related to communication, a fundamental requirement in the present globalized societies. Risk-taking is thought to be closely related to the oral aspect of language, and to the learner's speaking performance much more than the other aspects of language.

For many years, and despite its importance, teaching speaking has been undervalued and taught in the form of drilling and repetition. However, in today's world it is crucial that teaching speaking be aimed at improving learners' communicative skills, and oral proficiency. Speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney et al. 1998: 13). The discussion about speaking as negotiation and exchange of meaning leads to deal with the basic distinction between 'accuracy' and 'fluency'. This distinction is a new comer to FL teaching that was introduced in the 70's, with the emergence of the communicative approaches, which shifted the focus of learning to interaction, meaning and communication. Accurate language refers to language which is "clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically" language, while fluent language refers to "flowing and natural" speech (Brown, 1994: 268). Achieving such language characteristics by learners means shifting from language-oriented focus on language, i.e. language usage to message-oriented focus on language; i.e. language use (Brown, ibid.). On the one hand, Omaggio (1986) argues that the notion of accuracy

does not relate to grammar *per se* (grammatical accuracy) or to the correct use of linguistic structures, but to other language-related aspects. According to her (ibid.), accuracy is of several types and encompasses sociolinguistic accuracy i.e., appropriate use of register, semantic accuracy referring to precision of vocabulary and rhetorical accuracy or the proper use of cohesive devices. On the other hand, the term of fluency is said to imply automaticity. The aim of teaching speaking and FLs in general becomes developing learners' oral proficiency, the key variable which is related to risk-taking, as it will be explained later.

The language of the learners who are considered proficient speakers is characterized by being 'good', 'fluent', 'clear' and 'well-articulate'. Yet, the term of proficiency, itself, is not quite easy to define. There are various definitions provided by various researchers. It generally refers to a speaker's ability to use language functionally in various contexts, and in an accurate and fluent manner (Omaggio, ibid.). However, most researchers agree upon the main traits that characterize proficient users of language, instead of providing definitions for proficiency. In fact, there are four main features that are typical to oral proficiency: syntactic complexity, grammatical accuracy, lexical diversity and fluency (Iwashita et al., 2008; Norris & Ortega, 2003; and Ortega, 2003). In other words, oral proficiency is said to incorporate various elements varying between different parts of language (grammar, lexis, and syntax), and ranging between diversity, complexity, accuracy and fluency.

Syntactic complexity is the first feature that is said to characterize oral proficiency. As its name entails, syntactic complexity refers to the variety of linguistic expressions and structures used in certain contexts. The more the rate of words and expressions increases, the more it is considered as a positive symptom signalling proficiency. For Ortega (2003: 49),"syntactic complexity (syntactic maturity or linguistic complexity) refers to the range of forms that surface in language production and the degree of sophistication of such forms". Syntactic complexity is examined through analysis of speech samples (Iwashita, et al., 2001; Ortega, 1999).

Lexical diversity, being the second element in oral proficiency, is related to the number of word tokens and types. That is to say, it is related to the lexical richness or vocabulary diversity. It is claimed, then, that an increased type/token ratio has a strong relationship with proficiency level (Iwashita, et al., 2008). The third variable is a

common one referring to grammatical accuracy. By grammatical accuracy is meant the speech which is characterized by correctness and exactitude in the application of grammatical rules while using language for communication. Hence, if this aspect of accurate grammar use seems prevailing in the learner's speech, he/she is considered as attaining higher levels of proficiency. It is worthy to mention that research dealing with grammatical accuracy uses two different measures: one measure for global accuracy (Foster & Skehan, 1996), and a specific measure that focuses on particular types of errors (Ortega, 1999).

The last trait of oral proficiency is fluency. This variable is viewed as a basic aspect in determining oral proficiency, as is explained below. However, several arguments are put forth regarding its constituent parts. This very fact accounts for the variety of definitions that abound in literature for the concept of fluency. Hence, Lennon (1990) focuses on the temporal features of speech, i.e. rate of words or syllables per minute as well as the length or number of pauses. For his part, Schmidt (1992) claims that the concept of fluency is based on the automaticity of language use, i.e. spontaneity. Seemingly, the first view of focusing on the visible features of language use and counting and analysing them is more articulate than that calling for abstract characteristics of spontaneity and automaticity that are hard to gauge using commonly-agreed-upon measures.

As has been stated earlier, risk-taking is said to affect oral proficiency (Beebe, 1983; Ely, 1986a; and Gass & Selinker, 2000). Following the definitions presented above, risk-taking and oral proficiency are two closely related constructs in the sense that the more learners take risks during classroom tasks, the more they influence the development of their oral proficiency. To provide a workable definition, on the basis of the discussion above, risk-taking is used to refer to learners' oral production of long, complex and authentic utterances in English with the view to communicate in the classroom. It is, then, conceptualized within a hierarchy that classifies its different forms from minimal instances such as accepting the teacher's or peers' utterance (i.e. agreeing or disagreeing through responding only with yes, or no) to optimal instances that reveal a readiness to take control over one's learning. This is manifested by learners' taking initiative voluntarily, creating and actively searching for opportunities for practice.

Looked at from a different angle, the language learner's speaking performance is said to be of different types (Brown, 2001; Tsui, 1995), some of which are said to be good examples of learners' taking risks freely (Tsui, 1995, 2011). In this regard, Brown (2001) asserts that there are several types of speaking performance or oral production. These types range from imitative, intensive, responsive, transactional, and interpersonal to extensive performance. Learners' imitative speaking performance is related to drilling with the purpose of focusing on some particular aspects of language form. Imitative language is not designed for engaging in meaningful interaction. Hence, learners are required to imitate and repeat already existing language data, and not to create new ones which implies that there is a small room, if any, for risk-taking. Whereas intensive-based performance "goes one step beyond imitative to include any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspect of language" (Brown, 2001:273). According to Brown (ibid.), this type of performance can be initiated by the learners themselves. This entails that learners can take risks and engage in practising certain language forms, on their own. As for the four remaining types: responsive, transactional, interpersonal and extensive, they are responsive-based, and therefore, provide opportunities for learners to engage in taking risks through responding to teachers' initiation, conveying specific or factual information, maintaining social relations and providing reports or summaries, respectively. These types allow for free speech by learners. Learners, then, are not restricted with particular structures, but are expected to be more autonomous, volunteering, active and creative.

Put differently, Tsui (1995) claims that small group arrangements, in the classroom, provide a different context for learners' speaking performance. According to her (ibid.), the mode of interaction changes from an evaluative to a sharing mode. That is to say, learners in such situations are not expected to participate in classroom interaction for the purpose of being evaluated by the teacher. Instead, the aim is to help learners engage in meaning negotiation and classroom discussion. Tsui (1995) explains the positive effect of such small-group-based classroom interaction in motivating learners to take risks and experience different speaking output. Using Tsui's words, "This encourages students to take risks in the sense that they will verbalize their ideas even when these are not fully developed and coherent and they will use the target language even when they are not sure whether it is grammatically correct or wrong" (ibid.: 91). In the same vein, Barnes (1976 in Tsui, 1995) refers to this kind of speaking

performance as ‘exploratory talk’ as opposed to ‘final draft talk’ which is presented for evaluation in teacher-fronted classrooms. Exploratory talk is characterized by “a more tentative and less definitive language use, more vagueness, more false starts; that is, changing direction in the middle of an utterance, more hesitations and stuttering” (Tsui, 1995: 91). In this type of talk, learners are not required to fully plan and organize ideas before speech, but encouraged to speak whenever they feel they are willing to do so, regardless of the possible mistakes they may commit. Thus, providing opportunities for exploratory talk means encouraging learners to practice and develop their self-initiated risk-taking behaviour.

Therefore, language learners’ talk and speaking performance in classroom, as well as their proficiency are shown to be in positive relationship with the development of risk-taking behaviours.

3.3. Practice

The concept of risk-taking, as shown above, draws its multi-dimensional characteristics from its relation with various constructs. In addition to interlanguage and speaking, practice is another concept which relates to risk-taking, as the following section reveals.

According to Brown (1994), “Practice is usually thought of as referring to speaking only” (40). Practice, then, is given a new sense that equates it with learning to speak in the TL. One can promptly contend that other language skills can also be practised, be it writing, reading, grammar and pronunciation, to name just few; however, the notion of practice is dealt with, in this study as it pertains to speaking, and considerations of practice having a role in learning other skills are not discussed. The construct of practice is said to be essential in pedagogy, in general, and language pedagogy, in particular (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Practice means “to exercise or perform repeatedly in order to acquire or polish a skill.” (American Heritage Dictionary, in Gass & Selinker, ibid.). This is attributed to the behaviourist’ view of drilling and repetition for the purpose of learning or improving learners’ skills and speaking, as it will be explained in detail in the next section of teaching approaches. Broadly speaking, practice means any “activity with the goal of becoming better at it” (DeKeyser, 1998:50). In language pedagogy, practice was arranged from controlled to free-

practice. This latter type enables learners to take risks voluntarily, and try to experience new elements on the basis of background information. From a cognitive view of language, the notion of practice helps in explaining how language becomes automatic and used without much effort and attention. Additionally, practice is argued to take on a number of forms to reach the fundamental one, which is using language meaningfully in interactive situations (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Practice is similar to risk-taking in that learners are required to engage in various interactive tasks, using either their background information or trying out new information. As for risk-taking, it requires active practice and active use of language. "This can include language use (some interactive-based task) or some response to an audio prompt (answering a comprehension question following a listening or reading passage)" (Gass, & Selinker, ibid.: 387).

In the classroom context, practice is said to be relatively determined by the learner through his pre-planning of his utterances before speaking. This leads to producing more complex utterances as learners plan before speaking (Gass & Selinker, ibid.). Put differently, preparing an utterance cognitively, before speech, leads to an ability of using and displaying more complex linguistic expressions, thus leading to their automaticity. This view has been supported by Bialystok (1978) who argues that practice has an impact on the transformation of explicit knowledge to become implicit, automatic, and used communicatively without much concentration and attention. Moreover, output practice is argued to be essential for developing learners' L2/FL proficiency and fluency (de Bot, 1996). Output, then, is fundamental in both practising background linguistic knowledge, and experimenting with new linguistic knowledge through hypothesis testing (Skehan, 1989; Swain, 2000).

In summary, practice as a key concept in language pedagogy has implicit influences on learners' self-initiated risk-taking. Practice is said to have strong and positive impacts in developing learners' L2/FL proficiency and fluency. It leads to achieving automaticity in language processing and production. Hence, when learners are given opportunities of free-practice during classroom communicative tasks, after passing through the controlled practice, they would be encouraged to engage voluntarily and more effectively in risk-taking.

3.4. Learning Strategies

Research studies on 'the good language learner' paved the way for the emergence of research interested in 'language learning strategies'. The use of these strategies proves to be useful for learners' proficiency development (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Hence, since the mid-1970s, close attention has been given to the role of strategies in L2/FL learning (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; and Oxford, 2003). In this section, the light will be shed on the relationship between learning strategies and learners' risk-taking.

Chamot & Rubin (1994) state that :"The good language learner cannot be described in terms of a single set of strategies but rather through the ability to understand and develop a personal set of effective strategies" (372). The huge interest in learning strategies is revealed in the numerous definitions provided for them. Learning strategies are defined as "… the mental processes which the learners employ to learn and use the target language" (Nunan, 1991:168). In this definition, learning strategies are cognitively-based. In other contexts, learning strategies are referred to as

> *those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language (Cohen, 1998:4).*

The notions of processing and consciousness mentioned in this extract entail that these strategies are related to learners' cognition, and form one aspect of the learning process (Dornyei, 2005). Another comprehensive definition of learning strategies is offered by Oxford (1999:518):

> *specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language*

Therefore, Oxford (ibid.) highlights the cognitive aspects of strategy use. However, broadly speaking, these strategies encompass all aspects and measures needed for language development. In the same vein, Weinstein et al. (2000: 727) cover the same aspects saying: "Learning strategies include any thoughts, behaviors, beliefs, or emotions that facilitate the acquisition, understanding, or later transfer of new knowledge and skills", while O'Malley and Chamot (op cit.) state that these strategies involve "special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend,

learn, or retain new information" (1). Learning strategies clearly involve internal mental actions and physical actions as well.

In addition, learning strategies are given the following characteristics: effortful, goal-directed and intentional (Macaro, 2001). They are, then, related to features of control, goal-directness, autonomy and self-efficacy (Oxford, 2001). Furthermore, Cohen (op cit.) explicitly highlights the element of 'choice' as another aspect of learning strategies. He argues that 'choice' is an essential feature in the sense that these strategies are voluntarily selected and used by learners. Another characteristic of learning strategies is that of appropriateness (Dornyei, op cit.). Ehrman et al. (2003) come up to the following conclusion regarding the usefulness of strategies:

> *A given learning strategy is neither good nor bad; it is essentially neutral until it is considered in context. A strategy is useful under these conditions: (a) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand, (b) the strategy fits the particular student's learning style preferences to one degree or another, and (c) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies (315)*

Put differently, all strategies are of equal importance and value, unless they are misused or are not suitable for the aims of their use, and are not corresponding or relevant to the context of learning.

Another worthy point of mention, before delving in the various taxonomies of learning strategies, relates to the distinction between learning strategies and communication strategies (Brown, 2000). Indeed, it has been argued by several researchers (Cohen, op cit.; Ellis, 1994; and Selinker, 1972) that the two types are different on various grounds, more particularly, in terms of their function. Communication strategies are also called compensation strategies and relate to language use (Dornyei, 2005). Brown (2000:122) describes the distinction between learning strategies and communication strategies, as follows: "The former relates to input-to processing, storage, and retrieval, that is, to taking in messages from others. The latter pertains to output, how we productively express meaning, how we deliver messages to others". In another context, he says : "The former deal with the receptive domain of intake, memory, storage, and recall, the latter pertain to the employment of verbal and non-verbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information" (Brown, ibid.: 127) . Additionally, communication strategies have been classified into two categories (Dornyei, 1995). The first is avoidance strategies which include message

abandonment and topic avoidance strategies used to manage language difficulties. The second category refers to compensatory strategies which encompass circumlocution (describing or exemplifying), approximation, word coinage, non-linguistic signals, literal translation, code switching and appeal for help.

Regarding language learning strategies, there are two main taxonomies, both of which will be presented briefly below. These taxonomies are those of Oxford (1990) and of O'Malley and Chamot (1990). Oxford (2003) classifies strategies into: cognitive (identification, retention, and retrieval of language elements), metacognitive (planning, monitoring, and evaluation of language learning activities), affective (serve to regulate emotions, attitudes, and motivation), and social (actions taken for interaction with L2 users). Previously, Oxford (2001) proposed a different taxonomy including: cognitive strategies that help learners make and strengthen connections between new and already-known information such as guessing from context, analyzing, reasoning inductively and deductively; mnemonic strategies helping learners link a new item with something known; metacognitive strategies which help manage learners themselves, the learning process and tasks; compensatory strategies that are used by learners when confronting a temporary breakdown in speaking or writing; affective strategies helping learners manage and take control over their emotions, motivation, and attitudes associated with learning through lowering anxiety and encouraging oneself to take risks; and last, social strategies which facilitate learners' language learning through asking questions, cooperating, and empathizing with others (Oxford, 1990). As for the taxonomy of O'Malley and Chamot (1990), it is quite similar to the one proposed by Oxford (1990). They distinguish three main classes of strategy: cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are used in correspondence to Oxford's cognitive and memory categories. Metacognitive strategies are equivalent to Oxford's category of the same appellation. Meanwhile social/affective strategies refer to Oxford's social, affective and communication categories. Thus, the classifications proposed by Oxford (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) are highly compatible.

At the end, it can be said that all strategies lend support for learners to take risks in classrooms. All these strategies assist learners' self-confidence and motivation. What is more, these strategies, whether cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective, and compensatory serve in the development and increase of learners' risk-taking.

4. Risk-Taking in Language Teaching Methods

The following section is devoted to the exploration of the status and value of risk-taking in various language teaching methods. That is to say, how some of the teaching methods provide for activities, arrangements and behaviours that encourage risk-taking, and whether phenomena akin to risk-taking are regarded as crucial for oral skills development. To do this, the light will be shed on five main approaches: The Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach.

4.1. The Grammar Translation Method

As a starting point, it is worth mentioning that the pedagogical shifts and movements which characterized the FLT profession were numerous and radical at times. Brown (1994: 52) used the metaphor of "changing winds and shifting sands of language teaching" to describe these changes that marked the field of FLT as a very dynamic and growing profession. Indeed, many teaching approaches and methods have successively emerged for the purpose of finding more effective ways for teaching FLs, on the basis of theoretical views on the nature of language and language learning.

During the ninetieth century, teaching FLs was dominated by the Grammar-translation Method (GTM). It was, also, called the 'Classical Method' (Chastain, 1988) due to its concern with Latin and Greek for their being the classical languages. Therefore, the staple aim was to enable learners read classical literature. Accordingly, the basic purpose of this method was to enable learner read classical literature, through learning about the TL grammatical rules and vocabulary items (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Moreover, Cook (2008: 238) describes this approach as: "… the traditional academic style of teaching, which places heavy emphasis on grammar explanation and translation as a teaching technique". GTM, then, as its name indicates, stresses the importance of teaching learners the grammatical rules of the TLs as well as developing their ability to translate literary texts to the L1s. More explicitly, FL grammar is taught deductively, i.e. students are given rules, and are required to apply those rules accurately. Vocabulary, too, is one aspect within the scope of the Grammar-Translation Method. Its learning is through rote memorization, per se. Translation is another aspect and a technique within this method. That is to say, teachers are expected to teach translation of literary texts to learners from the target to the native language. They are, also, encouraged to use translation while explaining grammar or vocabulary points (Richards

and Rodgers, 1986). In addition, reading and writing skills are prior to speaking and listening skills. Literary and written language, then, is considered superior to the spoken one. This means that peaking and listening skills are marginalized. Accordingly, developing learners' ability to communicate in the TL is not among the goals set to be achieved by the GTM in FL teaching.

Following these characteristics, and with regard to the topic of the research work, it can be deduced that the nature of interaction in GTM classrooms is a traditional one, where the teacher is the dominant and the authority. Students are mere followers of the teachers' guidance, and there is little initiation from the part of the student while interacting. Classrooms are teacher-centered and students' participation is very restricted. Students cannot take risks during their learning process, even with its minimal features since this method has nothing in its principles, techniques or activities that deal with students' free practice and that allow them to take risks in the classroom. All that is required of learners is to reproduce memorized rules in writing and translation, as it is claimed by Larsen-Freeman (2000) who also says that there are no principles that cover the psychological aspect of learners in the teaching process. Put differently, in the GTM, there are no attempts to include communicative activities in the teaching course. Thus, students are not encouraged to engage in communicative discussions and are less motivated to participate, to be creative and go beyond doing grammar comparisons, translations and rote exercises (Brown, 2000).

Therefore, "the result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication" (Celce-Murcia, 2001:6). It generally transpires that learners find the method demanding and frustrating and they find language learning "…a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations of stilted or literary prose" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 4). Indeed, GTM seems to have no underlying theory in education or psychology (ibid.), despite the fact that teaching approaches are generally grounded in various theories about the nature of language and language learning. However, what appears positive about the GTM is the belief it disseminates among learners that learning an L2/FL can develop their intellectual abilities. These GTM deficiencies led to the emergence of the Direct Method that attempts to compensate for its predecessor's inadequacies for the purpose of providing efficient ways of teaching FLs, as the following section shows.

4.2. The Direct Method

Towards the mid-nineteenth century, there was an increased demand for oral proficiency in FLs due to more opportunities for communication among Europeans. As a result, newer approaches were needed and a Reform Movement in language teaching was developed. Meanwhile, interest in developing principles of language teaching based on naturalistic principles of language learning similar to those proven in first language acquisition led to developing "natural methods" best epitomized by the "Direct Method" (Brown, op cit.; and Richards and Rodgers, op cit.).

The Direct Method (DM) became popular during the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century in France, Germany and later in the United States where it was used in commercial language schools by the applied linguist Charles Berlitz and thus became known as the Berlitz method (Brown, op cit.; and Richards and Rodgers, op cit.). As of the early stages of learning, the DM relies exclusively on the use of the TL as the only language of instruction owing to the fact that it followed naturalistic principles for teaching. The use of everyday language, the provision of context and encouraging direct and spontaneous interaction in the classroom suggest that the DM appealed to learners. Notwithstanding, too much emphasis on correct pronunciation and grammar makes it impractical for real communication and challenging to learners.

Actually, the major aim of instruction is to enable learners use language for communication. Its aim is not limited to teach the TL, but to, supposedly, help students learn how to use the TL for communication, more naturally. Unlike the GTM, which fails to teach learners language for communication, the DM sets teaching language for communication, with no use of translation, as its basic premise. Language is taught directly, and meaning is grasped through demonstration and visual aids; i.e. realia and pictures. As for grammar, and different for the GTM, it is taught inductively. While vocabulary is learnt automatically through using new items in long stretches and sentences, not memorizing them separate from the speech context. Moreover, the reading skill is developed through practice with speaking. In the DM, language is primarily speech (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.).

More importantly, speaking is encouraged and stressed, i.e. interaction is part of the classroom process, at both levels: Teacher-Student or Student-Student. It is characterized by the question-answer pattern, from both sides. That is to say, teachers and learners, in this method, are partners in conversation. The teacher starts asking the

questions, or the opposite with a focus on answering in full sentences. Although the teacher directs the activities, the students' role is less passive than in the GTM. Free-discussion is not fully stressed but is dealt with, to a little extent, while trying to explore the life of the native speakers of that language (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.). In this activity, it can be claimed that learners take risks while participating in the classroom. Consequently, risk-taking as a concept in speaking skills development is slightly present, though not explicitly stated in this method. Following the risk-taking formulation used in this research work, it can be said that risk-taking instances are at the moderate level. This is because the DM, at large, has no explicit rules about learners' psychological variables involved (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.). However, pronunciation alongside developing speaking skills for communication, are a major focus right of the beginning.

In sum, it can be synthesized that risk-taking as a basic construct in speaking skills development is not overtly stated within the principles of the DM. Notwithstanding, the examination of the activities used in this method under the principles of teaching learners about the life of the people speaking TL with the use of syllabi that are based on topics and situations, not linguistic structures (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.) permit the conclusion that risk-taking is practised by learners but unconsciously under the shape of communicating in the TL. Still, the focal point or objective of the DM was not positively achieved. Learners show inability to conduct real conversations in the TL. A call for other new concepts to be applied has been answered by the Audio-Lingual method, as it will be explored in the section below.

4.3. The Audio-Lingual Method

The Second World War revived interest in teaching foreign languages in the United States of America (USA). A need arose in the USA to develop language programs that promote oral proficiency in the languages of both enemies as well as allies (Brown, 1994). The Direct Method served as the basis for the new "Army Method", especially its pronunciation activities and oral pattern drills. This method was adapted for use in educational settings and came to be known as the Audio Lingual Method (ALM).

In fact, deeply rooted in principles of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology, the ALM of the 1950's, and which reached its peak in the 1960's, adopted

the view that "the way to acquire the sentence patterns of the target language was through conditioning" (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.:35). Similarly, Cook (2008) defines the audio-lingual style as: "the style that stresses language learning as habits and the importance of spoken language" (242). With reference to structural linguistics "whose main tenets were that language is primarily oral, and that it is a rule-governed system understandable in terms of increasing levels of complexity." (Knight, 2001:149). The ALM emphasizes the priority of spoken language and its teaching through dialogues. More particularly, it divides language into four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, and grouped them into active and passive skills. By active skills, it is meant skills by which people produce language, such as speaking and writing. Meanwhile, passive skills are those through which they receive it, such as listening and reading. And because of the priority of speech, passive skills should come before active skills (Savignon, 2001).

The second important strand underlying the ALM was that of behaviourist psychology. Basically, behaviourist models of learning see language as a behavioural skill. That is to say, language learning is viewed as a matter of habit formation where learners receive a stimulus, and are required to respond by providing the correct utterances. Those correct responses should be reinforced. The main technique in this method is referred to the use of drills or drilling which is "a form of mechanical practice in which words or phrases are substituted within a frame and practiced until they become automatic" (Cook, op cit.: 242). Examples of these drilling activities are the following: repetition, backward build-up, chain, transformation, and single-slot substitution (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.). Errors, then, were not tolerated. Reinforcement is central to the ALM and manifests in "the extrinsic approval and praise of the teacher and fellow students or the intrinsic self-satisfaction of target-language use" (Richards & Rodgers, op cit.:51).

Inevitably, the teacher's role is to give correct and accurate models for learners to mimic. The teacher is like an orchestra leader who directs and controls the students' behaviour (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.). It is believed that the more drills are repeated, the more learning is reinforced. Usually, language is manipulated without regard to meaning or context. Hence, audio-lingual classrooms are, basically, teacher-centered. The degree of teacher's autonomy could be minimal since teachers are regarded as models of the TL. They do also judge and correct their students' output and production

and manage the classroom activities. This means that teachers are required to use prescribed materials within a specific syllabus and any change from the prescribed path is not accepted.

As for the students' role in this method, "[It] came to be portrayed as that of an 'empty vessel' who needs do no more than take part in the drills organized by his/her teacher to learn the target language" (Knight, op cit.: 151). Students should respond to and imitate the teacher's model of speaking. Furthermore, they are required to give quick and accurate responses as much as possible. This indicates that there is no room left to learners' creativity, needs and wants, though this was certainly not what the exponents of the method had in mind.

Put differently, the ALM focuses on speaking skills, and aims at developing students' oral proficiency, but differs from the DM in the practice of using dialogues for imitation and drilling by which students learn grammatical rules and vocabulary, as its premise. Dialogues and drills constitute both the principles of ALM and its main teaching techniques. After presentation and memorization of a dialogue, specific grammatical patterns are selected for further drilling and pattern practice exercises. In other words, language learning is a process of habit formation, i.e. memorisation, repetition and overlearning of dialogues and structures. Reinforcing correct answers is a key concept. Regarding the topic of the present research, it can be stated that audio-lingual classrooms are characterized by teacher-initiated interaction with slight participation form the part of students when taking roles in dialogues. Nonetheless, students' affective factors are not taken into consideration (Larsen-Freeman, op cit.) with particular reference to risk-taking. Indeed, learners' creativity and willingness to communicate are not approved and encouraged. Learners are, only, required to learn language as a habit through dialogues and drilling such as memorization and repetition of teachers' models of speech.

In sum, it seems that despite the fact that this approach, the Audio-Lingual Method, is based on solid grounds, with the aim of enabling students to communicate in the TL, the application of this method shows its impracticality in real situations. There must be a space for learners to engage naturally in communication as the Natural Approach advocates. This will be shown in the forthcoming part.

4.4. The Natural Approach

Regarding risk-taking, the present research topic, it is valued by the Natural Approach alongside many other affective variables that intervene in the learning process. In this part, light will be cast on this approach, its tenets and characteristics and an analysis of the place of students' risk-taking while speaking will be provided.

In 1983, Krashen and Terrell published The Natural Approach (NA), which essentially contained its proponents' contribution of two different works: Krashen's theoretical perspectives, developed in earlier publications (Krashen, 1982), and Terrell's guidelines for their classroom application (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). At large, The NA seeks to reproduce naturalistic principles proven to be successful in SLA. "It was aimed at the goal of basic interpersonal communication skills, that is, everyday language situations- conversations, shopping, listening to the radio, and the like." (Brown, 2000: 108). It aims to promote a more naturalistic language acquisition in classroom settings, with an emphasis on communication as a key variable. It is, then, based on the use of language in communicative situations, learners' exposure to comprehensible input and optimisation of learner preparedness for learning. Krashen and Terrell (1983) emphasise the primacy of meaning and message in L2 learning over form. They believe that acquisition is only possible when language is developed through understanding and using language for meaningful communication. They give little importance to grammar study and explicit correction of students' errors. Efforts are also spent to make the learning environment or classrooms as stress-free as possible. In this approach, language output is not pushed, but allowed to emerge spontaneously after students' exposure to adequate amounts of comprehensible language input.

The NA seems to share some aspects and tenets with other precedent approaches, but with slight differences (e.g the Direct Method). Notwithstanding, its uniqueness lies in its model of learning. Krashen & Terell (ibid.) make a distinction between what he calls 'learning' which is conscious and 'acquisition' which matches L1 development (Knight, op cit.). According to Krashen, "Only language which is 'acquired' is seen as being available for natural language use. Language which has been 'learnt' can be used to monitor and correct output based on 'acquired' learning" (op. cit.: 159). In Krashen (1982: 10) words:

> *Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language, but are only aware of the fact that they are using the*

> *language for communication … Learning refers to conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them .*

That is to say, learners 'acquire' new language by being exposed to 'comprehensible input' being a language just above the learners' level. This 'comprehensible input' is the focal element in the learner's acquisition process; learner's output is not stressed. The teacher, then, should provide 'comprehensible input' or language that parallels the learners' understanding level and which goes in line with the context of speech (Richards and Rodgers, 1986)

Based on studies of children learning their L1, Krashen & Terell (1983) set what they call 'the Natural Order Hypothesis'. In this hypothesis, they argue that learners can acquire new grammatical structures, but in a certain order, similar to the acquisition of L1s which also proceed along a specific order. Although the focus on grammar suggests a grammatical view of language similar to that of the Audio-Lingual Method, the point is different (Richards and Rogers, ibid.). While the ALM emphasizes drilling and error correction, these techniques seem to disappear, almost entirely, from the Natural Approach. Instead, the NA shares many features with the Direct Method. Both of the NA and the DM are based on the idea of providing naturalistic language acquisition in the language classroom. However, they differ in that the NA puts emphasis on exposure to language input and on lessening learners' anxiety (Richards and Rodgers, ibid.).

Further, Krashen thinks that learning is influenced by the learner's emotional state, an idea shared by humanistic approaches. He argues that an 'Affective Filter' exists and should be lowered "[to] make sure that the learner is open to input" (Krashen, 1982:73). To do this, the teacher should provide interesting input that is useful to personal communication; in Krashen (ibid.: 74) words: "If the topic being discussed is at all interesting, and if it is comprehensible, much of the pressure normally associated with a language class will be 'off', anxiety will be lowered and acquisition will result". This means that part of the role to set a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom falls on the teacher, through providing appealing and intelligible data or input (Brown, 2000). In doing so, learners will be motivated and will gain self-confidence that enables them to develop their learning competence, unlike those who are anxious, not very motivated, and lack self-confidence who would not do well. As for risk-taking, the NA

does nothing to prompt it nor does it discourage it at beginning stages. Beginners are free to decide when to start talking until they feel ready. When they do, they should lose themselves in communication activities. Risk-taking is, therefore, cared for, and the NA succeeds in creating an interesting and friendly classroom atmosphere for doing so.

Briefly, the main premises or principles underlying the NA can be summarised as follows: the focus of instruction is on meaning for the purpose of communication rather than on form. Speech comes slowly after receiving comprehensible input through reading and listening. It is never forced but left to emerge after 'the silent period'. Stated differently, in NA-based classrooms, the teacher emphasizes interesting, comprehensible input and low-anxiety situations. Lessons, too, are focused on understanding messages in the L2/FL, and place little or no importance on error correction, drilling or conscious learning of grammar rules – tenets of the Grammar-Translation and Audio-Lingual Methods. NA courses emphasize the learning of a wide vocabulary base over learning new grammatical structures. Last but not least, teachers using the NA aim to create situations in the classroom that are intrinsically motivating for students to help create and increase their risk-taking, self-confidence, and speaking after the 'silent period'.

Yet, analogous to many previous approaches, the NA has undergone some criticism. McLaughlin (1987) as such, argues that Krashen's 'comprehensible input' is not the only, or even the most important, factor in language learning. The Natural Order Hypothesis and Affective Filter Hypothesis have also been subjected to criticism (McLaughlin, ibid.). On account of such criticism, an alternative model was proposed to compensate for such inadequacies. The Communicative Approach was the umbrella term used to cover many other successive approaches; Communicative Language Teaching is the spotlight of the next section.

4.5. The Communicative Approach

During the 70's, a reexamination and evaluation of the goals of the various teaching approaches have been carried out. And as discussed in the aforementioned parts, most of the teaching methods aim at helping learners use language for communication. Nevertheless, this aim was not fully achieved in effective and efficient ways, simply because communication does not requires mastery of linguistic

competence per se. Instead, communicative competence is a critical point because it combines the linguistic and functional aspects of langue use, crucial for communication. This, inevitably, leads to the emergence of the Communicative Approach (Widdowson, 1990).

The "Communicative Approach" (CA) is difficult to define since it does not refer to one method that was developed at a given time in history. Indeed, CA refers to the different approaches that have the common purpose of developing "communicative competence"(Nunan, 1988). Primarily, the CA or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) re-examines two main aspects in language instruction; the what and how to teach. For what to teach, CLT stresses the importance of language functions over language structure. Indeed, teaching learners language functions helps them use appropriate language in various communicative contexts. As for the how to teach, CLT advocates the use of role plays and simulations to provide learners with more exposure and practice of language use (Harmer, 2007). In other words, learners are taught the forms and functions of linguistic structures in various contexts and situations, under the aim of getting students to interact and communicate in the TL (Cook, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Likewise, Richards and Rodgers (1986: 66) describe CLT as follows:

> *an approach that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication*.

As stated above, the first objective of CLT is the concept of 'communicative competence' (Canale and Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972; and Widdowson, 1990). It comprises four types of competences: linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. By communicative competence is meant all the language aspects that should be mastered and acquired by learners with the purpose of achieving successful communication in the TL. First, linguistic competence refers to the knowledge and mastery of the grammar and vocabulary of the TL as well as all the phonological and syntactical features. It is considered the staple diet of many ELT classrooms and methodologies. Second, sociolinguistic competence deals with the learner's ability to use language appropriately in various social contexts. Third, discourse competence is about the ability to understand and produce coherent texts (written and oral) within various genres; it is beyond the linguistic level. Last, strategic competence refers to a speaker's ability to

use the different verbal and nonverbal communication strategies when communication problems arise and breakdowns appear (Hymes, 1972). This entails that engaging in communicative discussions necessitates mastery of certain language aspects and skills to fully achieve the aim. Communication, then, is much more than a mastery of the grammar rules and memorization of vocabulary items. All components of language should be included and manipulated while communicating.

The second point concerns the incorporation of the four skills while teaching. That is to say, there is no preference for one skill over another, since all the four skills contribute in communicative acts. Different from many previous teaching methods such as GTM which focuses on developing learners' reading skills and ALM that stresses the importance of developing speaking skills for communication, CLT attempts to incorporate the four skills altogether in teaching FLs.

With regard to CLT classroom practice, Richards and Rodgers (op cit.:72) try to differentiate three key elements that characterize it:

> *One such element might be described as the communication principle: Activities that promote real communication promote learning. A second element is the task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning. A third element is the meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.*

Following Richards and Rodgers' line of thought, there are three key principles that best describe the language classrooms: the communication principle, task principle, and meaningfulness principle. The communication principle refers to the type of activities used and which are believed to enhance learning language for communicative purposes. Teaching how to use language in communicative contexts is the main principle for the design of classroom activities. The task principle means that the activities presented should be basically meaningful and involve a communication problem to solve (Skehan, 1998). The last principle is that of meaningfulness. Learners should be equipped with language that satisfies some of their communicative needs. Language is a means for classroom interaction and an object of study. In applying these principles, a CLT classroom is characterized by the use of authentic material, and the provision of meaningful real life situations to enhance the students' communicative competence. Another parallel description to Richards and Rodgers' is presented by Brown (2000):

- *Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence.*
- *Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish such purposes.*
- *Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times, fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.*
- *In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts (266-267)*

Succinctly put, Brown (2000) provides a more comprehensive account of CLT classroom characteristics. In general, CLT classrooms try to promote learners' communicative competence through focusing on all aspects of language including the linguistic code as well as the functional, sociolinguistic and pragmatic features of language use in various contexts. To do so, learners should be presented with real communicative tasks in which they would develop both their accuracy and fluency interchangeably, two fundamental tenets inherent in the various communicative techniques. Language courses are portrayed with communicative styles; i.e. "basing teaching on communication, both as the target that the students need to achieve, and as the means of acquiring it in the classroom" (Cook, op cit.: 247). Information gap activities, discussions and role plays are the main teaching techniques used in CLT. The nature of these techniques and their use in language teaching denote a cooperative interaction in the classroom (Cook, op cit.).

With the aim of enhancing learners' communicative competence, the role of both the teacher and students is, indisputably, different from that adopted in other approaches. CLT classrooms are not teacher-centered, but involve cooperation and interaction between the teacher and students, and mostly between the students themselves. They are based on a 'laissez-faire' assumption (Cook, op cit.). This implies that much of the classroom interaction relies on the learners' participation and engagement in cooperative interaction. The teacher, then, is attributed the roles of an organizer and a facilitator of the classroom interaction, a co-communicator but not source of language knowledge (Cook, 2008; and Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It is worth mentioning that the CLT teacher is more autonomous than the audio-lingual teacher

because classroom practices are usually less predictable, owing to the use of real life communicative situations, and their reliance on learners' needs.

With regard to students' role, "Within CLT the definition of the learners' roles varies in the degree to which learners direct their own learning and interact as themselves rather than in roles assigned by a teacher," says Knight (2001:158). Learners are expected to interact a great deal with one another. They should act as communicators engaged in meaning negotiation (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). CLT, therefore, seems more suitable and appealing to learners who are field-independent rather than field-dependent students, extroverts rather than introverts and less academic students (Cook, 2008). This signifies that CLT appreciates and advocates learners' willingness to communicate; i.e. taking-risks. In point of fact, CLT encourages learners' free self-expression and engagement in various discussions to share opinions and ideas with other students. By doing so, learners will feel more secure and will raise their risk-taking behaviour from minimal to optimal contributions and instances. That is to say, CLT provides a good framework for learners to be motivated, gain self-confidence and take risks of different levels ranging from accepting and repeating the teacher's or peers' utterances to taking control over one's learning which entails taking initiative voluntarily as well as searching actively and creatively for opportunities for practice.

Conclusion

To conclude, it should be argued that language teachers should be aware of who their students are, and develop practices that are congruent with their individual differences. Indeed, learners need teachers' reward and acknowledgement to boost their self-esteem, arouse and maintain their motivation. They need different activities that cater for various learning styles. All these accommodations encourage learners to take risks in various classroom communicative tasks. Moreover, teachers are required to create an affective atmosphere wherein learners feel comfortable, relaxed and interested. With the provision of such a welcoming atmosphere, learners will, in all likelihood, not be afraid of being blamed and humiliated. Thus, they can be risk-takers and benefit from many opportunities when they talk and discuss their ideas, willingly and voluntarily.

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Chapter Three

Field Work

Introduction

A model need to be adopted to explore which of the selected teacher interaction features serve as scaffolding for a better Risk-Taking by students (i.e., students take more turns at speaking, produce high quality responses and self-initiations that are relevant, accurate and complete). Prior to tailoring a model for describing and analyzing interaction, a short description of the students' questionnaire which has provided the rational for this study is necessary. Next, a reformulation of the hypotheses of the study is done.

1. Analysis of Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is made up of nine items and seek to establish a rationale for this study. Both the questions and the distribution of results are brought together in **Appendix III**, but a short analysis of these results is offered below.

Item (01) of the questionnaire asks personal information of students. Most students (81%) are of approximately the same age group ranging between 19 and 21 years old. Similarly, 94% of these students have undergone either five or six years at studying English before rolling in university. The groups are dominated by female students who constitute more ¾ of the population of students. Students are also less homogeneous by ability given that most of them have marks ranging between 8 and 13.

Items (02) and (03) probe how much students participate in classroom communication activities. While the majority of students (86.5%) more often than not respond to the teacher calls for participation, this percentage declines to 70% in cases where students volunteer to participate.

Item (04) shows that students feel more at ease when they focus on the message than when they try to be accurate and correct. This last answer is confirmed by item (07) in which making mistakes constitutes the major factor that causes embarrassment for students.

The quality of participation is probed by item (05) which asks whether students try to experiment with new words and expressions or they are satisfied to use language that they are sure of or master very well. Students' replies show a tendency to use words and expressions that make them look confident in themselves given that they know

what they are saying (41%); whereas ventured expressions are not common in their practice (09%), yet nearly half the students think that they use both strategies in their talk.

Feeling worried is a common sentiment among the totality of students as shown by item (06) of the questionnaire. The number of responses (385) and their almost equal distribution among the factors in item (07) testify that students are self-conscious of many hindrances or risks that make them avert speaking or feel embarrassed when they do so.

The last two items in the questionnaire address feelings about the Oral Expression class (item 08) and the kind of support provided by the teacher (item 09). Results indicate that students generally feel comfortable and relaxed (76.67%). However, a significant portion of students (21.37%) admits to suffer negative feelings during the said class. These results suggest that students who feel comfortable are none other than passive students who don't take the risks shown by item (07). On the other hand, the teacher is perceived as a facilitator and encourager by 69.20% of the students. The specific kinds of this help as well as other strategies need to be explored that relate to a higher level of students' participation, therefore.

Several researchers (e.g., Nassaji and Swain, 2000, Donato, 1994; Aljaafareh and Lantolf, 2008) underscore that scaffolding should be fine-tuned to the students' developmental level. LMD Students' level at Year One is surmised to be roughly at an intermediate level i.e. ranging from pre-intermediate to intermediate levels. According to the questionnaire, students assert having undergone instruction in English as a subject for at least six years: three years in the Middle school and three years in the Secondary school. Therefore, the students' level is situated along the intermediate continuum, and their quest is geared toward learning more advanced language abilities. This has implications on the teacher's interaction features in speaking or Oral Expression activities.

2. **Restatement of the Hypothesis**

Among the features that the teacher need to adjust to the students' developmental level so as to mediate learning in their Zone of Proximal Development, this study aims to extract the scaffolding techniques or strategies that allow students to become better risk takers. An operationalization of the term of Risk-Taking is offered

in later sections as it is integral to the model of description and analysis that is going to be developed.

2.1. Referential Vs Display questions:

As the discussion in chapter one pointed out, referential questions are closely related to information that students want to relay, and result in more authentic interaction than recitative display questions. It is therefore hypothesized that:

- If the teacher uses referential questions rather than display questions, risk-taking will be better than

2.2. Prompting-Answer Strategies Vs Giving-Answer Strategies

At the Initiation phase of the IRF modal, when the teacher asks questions to which she gets no response, she is presented with two options: provide the answer (i.e., Giving-Answer Strategies through Modelling) or re-initiate the question by Eliciting, providing Clues, Prompting students to answer and using Clarification Requests (i.e., Prompting-Answer Strategies).

Similarly, at the Follow-up phase, if the teacher receives responses, satisfactory or not, the teacher can provide answers (i.e., Giving-Answer Strategies through Modelling, Repetition, Reformulation or Extension), or re-initiate the discussion by asking further questions aimed at more satisfactory responses (Prompting-Answer Strategies through Elicitations, Clues, Prompts and Clarification Requests). The hypothesis here is phrased as follows:

- If the teacher uses Prompting-Answer Strategies rather than Giving-Answer Strategies, Risk-Taking will be better.

2.3. Wait Time

It has been shown, in chapter one, that Wait Time is divided into two types: Wait Time I and Wait Time II. The former denoting the interval of deliberate silence that the teacher leaves before the student's response, and the latter refers to the deliberate silence allowed after the student provides a response (Rowe, 1987). It is added here that Wait Time I can also occur before the teacher judges that there is no response and thus provides the answer or reinitiates i.e., asks another question or modifies the original question.

Extended Wait-Time was shown to correlate with more positive outcomes on the learners' part (*ibid.*). In other words, it corresponds with more Risk-Taking, as it were. However, with the Socio-Cultural principles in mind, Extended Wait-Times are more appropriate for beginner and low pre-intermediate students. Moreover, they can result in delaying the teacher's agenda and creating awkward situations in the classroom, as admitted by Rowe (*ibid.*). As for a student, who is expected to answer, the pressure mounts during an elongated Wait-Time; this, in turn, contributes to more anxiety than help.

On the other hand, leaving the student No Wait-Time to answer or complete the answer is hypothesized to be detrimental to responses. This is because production in No Wait-Time is characteristic of native-like or more advanced students, something that exceed by far the current abilities of students who, it is supposed, need some time to plan a response. Therefore, a balance need to be struck, and that is by adjusting Wait-Time to the current learner developmental level. This entails giving students a short space ranging from 1 to 3 seconds to formulate a response (Short Wait Time I) and to add on the response (Short Wait Time II). Thus, it is hypothesized that:

- If the teacher leaves a Short Wait Time (ranging from 1 to 3 seconds) before reinitiating the question, or before and after a student's response, risk taking will be better than when the teacher leaves No Wait Time (less than 1 second) or an extended Wait-Time (above-3-seconds interval)

3. **Methodology of Description and Analysis**

To describe the video-taped lesson, a system need to be designed and followed in coding the different events of interest. A first step, then, entails a qualitative analysis of interaction along with assigning codes for every event. The second step, consisting of quantitative analysis, in the form of tables and figures that includes counts of the above-mentioned interaction features as well as interpretation of the results. This, in turn, requires to adopt measures of the construct studied i.e., Risk-Taking.

3.1. Designing a System for Describing Teacher- Students' Interaction

The methodological lines followed in this study are based on adaptations from discourse and interaction approaches that were devised to describe classroom interaction. Generally speaking, the description adapts an abridged version of the discourse approach, designed by Sinclair and Coulthard (*in* Coulthard, 1992: 1-34), for

describing the structure of the lesson. To this system of analysis are inserted some categories based on interaction research, and which serve to test the hypotheses of this study (Long and Sato, 1983; Ellis, 2012, 2013; Doughty and Varela, 1998, Rowe, 1987). In this study, therefore, classroom interaction is described in terms of rank scales: Lesson, Transaction, Exchange, Move and Act, following the lead of Sinclair and Coulthard (*ibid*.).

The first step in analysing the corpus involves describing the lesson in broad lines with a view to elucidating its unfolding along thematic lines. This is crucial for situating classroom interactions within the context in which they appear. The video-taped lesson is divided into transactions, exchanges, and moves (N.B. acts are slightly modified and abridged for the purposes of the study). The lesson is made up of three major transactions **(Figure (4))** which span the course of 931 floors or turns. A turn roughly corresponds with an utterance i.e. what a speaker says or speakers say chorally before a different speaker or group of speakers takes the floor. A transaction in the lesson has a theme or a topic as the main descriptor; that is to say, it is opened when a new topic is introduced, and it is closed with the end of the topic.

3.1.1. Level of Lesson

Figure (4) shows that the lessons proceeds in an orderly manner; it starts with describing pictures on the hand-outs, with casual illustrations of related vocabulary and grammar points. It then changes the source of interaction to classroom objects and *realia* in a sort of guided practice. Finally, the teacher moves towards freer discussion which is personalized to students' interests, experiences and opinions.

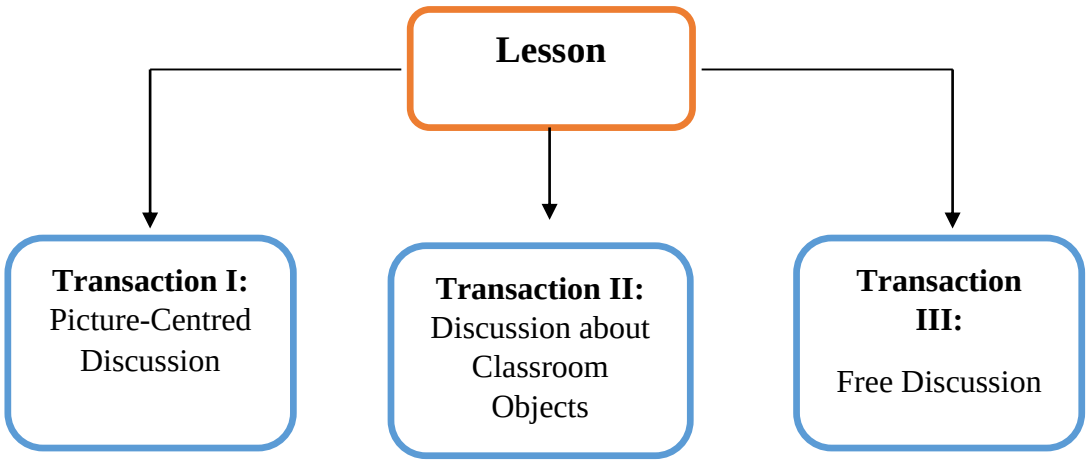

Figure (4): The Lesson Big Transactions

3.1.2. Level of Transaction

The next scale of description assigns several sub-transactions to each of the three big transactions above as shown in the tables below. Accordingly, Transaction I spans the floors from 001 to 673, and contains 09 sub-transactions (**Table 4**). Transaction II runs from 674 to 791, and is comprised of 08 sub-transactions (**Table 5**). Finally, Transaction III stretches from 792 to 931, and encompasses 04 sub-transactions (**Table 6**).

The three main transactions deal with three different topics. Each of the three transactions, in turn, are subdivided into further sub-transactions yielding a hierarchy of transactions and sub-transactions. The following diagrams unravel the map of the lesson.

3.1.3. Levels of Exchange, Move and Act

Having demonstrated the first two levels of the rank scale, the description moves to the exchange level. Originally, according to Sinclair and Coulthard (*ibid.*), most classroom communication is characterised by the Initiation-Response-Feedback exchange structure, or IRF. "A typical exchange in the classroom consists of an *initiation* by the teacher, followed by a *response* from the pupil, followed by *feedback*, to the pupil's response from the teacher" (*ibid.*: 3). This structure is termed the *Teaching Exchange*, and is realized by three types of move are used to realize the three classes of move: *Opening, Answer and Follow-up*. This study adopts the moves Initiation-Response- Follow-up for describing elements of structure while those of move will be specified later.

There is also a specification in Sinclair and Coulthard's model of boundary exchanges that help frame the lesson and transitions between teacher exchanges. A boundary exchange consists a *Framing* move to signal that the discourse is about to change direction and sometimes occurs with a *Focusing* move that tells the class what will occur next. *Framing and Focusing* moves are not adopted to eschew further details, deemed unnecessary because they are not related to the study, but are shortly described in the example below.

I Picture-Centred Discussion (001-673)								
I-1 Picture‘4’ (001-043)	**I-2 Picture ‘5’ (046-201)**	**I-3 Picture ‘6’ (201-269)**	**I-4 Picture ‘7’ (270-306)**	**I-5 Picture ‘8’ (306-360)**	**I-6 Picture ‘9’ (361-484)**	**I-7 Picture ‘10’ (484-529)**	**I-8 Picture ‘11’ (529-624)**	**I-9 Picture ‘12’ (624-673)**
I-1.1 Pavement **I-1.1.1 Pavement not Road** **I-1.1.2 Spelling Pavement** **I-1.2 Lights** **I-1.2.1 Traffic Lights** **I-1.2.2 Ceiling** **I-1.3 Description of the Phone Box** **I-1.3.1 Phone Box** **I-1.3.2 The Red Colour in England** **I-1.3.3 The Opposite Position**	**I-2.1** Describing Man **I-2.1.1** A Man Behind a Tree **I-2.1.2** *Chapeau Melon* **I-2.1.3** Fancy Dress **I-2.1.4** Suit or Costume **I-2.1.5** White Collars **I-2.2** Describing the Tree **I-2.2.1** Shade **I-2.2.2** Adjective formation «noun+y » **I-2.2.3** Green Leaves **I-2.2.4** Plural of Leaf **I-2.2.5** The Trunk’s Colour **I-2.2.6** Dark and Light Colours **I-2.3** The Hiding Man **I2.3.1** Reasons for Hiding **I2.3.2** The Man’s Position	**I-3.1** Local ‘Constantine’ Bridges **I-3.2** *L'ascenseur* or The lift **I-3.3** *Broken French* **I-3.4** A Small Stony Bridge **I-3.5** The Bridge’ Position **I-3.6** London Bridge **I-3.7**The Thames **I-3.8** Pets **I-3.9** Recap of Description	**I-4.1** General Description **I-4.2** The Table’s Shape **I4.3** Legs or Feet?	**I-5.1** The Dog’s Position **I-5.2** Chimneys! **I-5.3** The Plural of Nouns Ending in “y” **I-5.4** Recap of Description **I-5.5** Re-Spelling Chimneys!	**I-6.1** A Vase Full of Flowers **I-6.2** Natural and artificial flowers **I-6.3** Natural Flowers are Better **I-6.4** Taking Care of the Flowers **I-6.5** The Vase’s Material **I-6.6** Pottery **I-6.7** Painting Pottery **I-6.8** Pottery Articles **I-6.9** Various Forms of Local Bread	**I-7.1** Preliminary Description **I-7.1.1** Two buildings **I-7.1.2** Comparing the Two Buildings **I-7.1.3** Right and Left **I-7.2** More Details about the Buildings **I-7.2.1** Stay with the current picture **I-7.2.2** Windows and Curtains **I-7.2.3** Roles of Curtains **I-7.2.4** Names of the Buildings	**I-8.1** A Large Window **I-8.2** Spelling Curtains **I-8.3** The position of the Man **I-8.4** Resemblance of the Man **I-8.5** Repetition and Spelling **I-8.6** Physical Appearance of the Man **I-8.7** The Man’s Clothing **I-8.8** Recap of Description	**I-9.1** A Park! **I-9.2** Chairs or Seats! **I-9.3** A Couple **I-9.4** Physical Appearance **I-9.5** Scottish Kilts

Table 4: Transaction I Picture-Centred Discussion

II Discussion about Classroom Objects (674-791)							
II-1 Inside and Outside the Classroom	**II-2** The Ceiling	**II-3** The Lamps	**II-4** Oval Windows Walls	**II-5** Classroom Walls	**II-6** TV Set	**II-7** White Board	**II-8** Instructions or Orders!
				II-5.1 Concrete not Cement **II-5.2** Concrete and Abstract **II-5.3** Components of Concrete **II-5.4** Formica			

Table 5: Transaction II Discussion about Classroom Objects

III Free Discussion (792-931)			
III-1 The Frustrating Exam	**III.2** Campus Life	**III-3** Describing One's Room	**III-4** On Marrying and ending the lesson
III-1.1 Yesterday's Exam **III-1.2** Feelings about the Exam **III-1.3** Time Constraint **III-1.4** Two Groups, Unequal Timing!	**III.2.1** A Different Experience **III-2.2** Feelings about Living at the Campus **III-2.3** Homesickness **III-2.4** A Good Experience	**III-3.1** Describing One's Private Room **III-3.2** Describing Campus Rooms **III-3.3** Cooking and the Cooking Device **III-3.4** Private or Shared Room!	

Table 6: Transaction III Free Discussion

The following example, taken from the transcribed lesson, is both a transaction and an exchange. A transaction is *framed* by boundary markers: *well, so* and *ok* to indicate the start and closing of transaction and *focused* by a meta-statement *the dog is lying* to show the topic of the elicitation. It is also a teaching exchange consisting of a teacher elicitation, to which two students provide responses and the exchange is sealed by a teacher acknowledgement in the follow-up move.

I 332 T well, so the dog is lying where?
R 333 S in front of the fire
R 334 S near
F 335 T near the fire, in front of the fire, ok, he is in front of the fire

Extract (2): Appendix II

In their quest to describe all the types of exchanges that may be found in classroom discourse, Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid.) ascertain six main functions to free exchanges and five to boundary exchanges according to the different structural possibilities that result in each. These are summarized in **Table 7** below so as to select an appropriate taxonomy for describing interaction between the teacher and students.

Free Exchanges	**Bound Exchanges**
I Teacher inform The teacher is passing on facts, opinions, ideas, new information to the pupils. Pupils may, but usually do not, make a verbal response to the teacher's initiation. The structure is I(R); with no feedback.	*VII Re-initiation (i)* When the teacher gets no response to an elicitation, the same question is asked again or rephrased; the acts prompt, nomination, clue can also be used to re-initiate. This gives an IRIbRF, where Ib is a bound initiation.
II Teacher direct Exchanges designed to get the pupil to do but not to say something. Feedback is not an essential element of this structure although it frequently occurs. The structure is IR(F).	*VIII Re-initiation (ii)* When a teacher gets a wrong answer there are two major routes open to him: he can stay with the same pupil until a right answer is elicited or he transfer the question to another child. An initiating move is not essential for the bound exchange, but if it does occur it is realized by prompt, nomination, or clue. This gives a structure of IRF(Ib)RF.
III Teacher elicit It refers to the teaching exchanges illustrated above. They are designed to obtain verbal contributions from pupils.	
IV Pupil elicit Pupils usually ask questions to catch the teacher's attention and get permission to speak. The structure is IR.	*IX Listing* The teacher withholds evaluation until two or three answers are elicited to make sure that more than one person knows the answer, or to get different replies to a multiple question. The structure is IRF(Ib)RF(Ib)RF.

V Pupil inform	*X Reinforce*
When pupils offer information which they think is relevant, they usually receive an evaluation of its worth and often a comment. Thus the structure is IF.	Reinforce exchanges occur when the class does not fully understand what to do or when someone is slow or reluctant. The structure is IRIbR, with the Ib realized by a clue, prompt or nomination.
VI Check	*XI Repeat*
These are subcategories of teacher elicit above; they are used to check or discover how well pupils are getting on. The structure is IR(F).	When someone does not hear- usually the teacher, or when the teacher has heard but wants a reply repeated for other reasons, this bound initiation is used instead of feedback.. The structure is IRIbRF.

Table 7: Types of Free and Bound Exchanges

Having described all the levels of the lesson and the intricacies of Sinclair and Coulthard's modal, it is high time to adapt the modal the description, and integrate some suggestions from interaction research.

3.1.4. A System for Describing Teacher-Students Interaction

While the Initiation-Reply-Feedback (***IRF***) moves are used in accordance with the exchanges described above, and the system takes only *Re-initiation **(i)*** and *Re-initiation **(ii)*** in and fixes them in the ***IRF*** system in such a way that the structure becomes I (Ib) R(F) (Ib) R(F), and in which the bound initiation (Ib) following initiation is *Re-initiation **(i)*** , and the second bound initiation following Response or Follow-up is *Re-initiation **(ii)***. Concerning their functions, the bound initiations are considered as Prompting-Answer Strategies, and are adapted partly from (Doughty & Varela, 1998). These latter are contrasted to Giving-Answer Strategies adapted from Walsh (2002). When the teacher asks again the question(s) posed before, this amounts to Prompting-Answer Strategies (***PAS***) i.e., moves in which the teacher pushes students to answer, elaborate on the answer or notice a language error in their response and to repair the error for themselves. ***PAS*** can be realized by:

- **Elicitation (*El*)**: a question which is used to request a linguistic response.
- **Clue (*Cl*)**: an utterance providing additional information to help students to respond.

- **Prompt (*P*)**: an item suggesting that a response is not only requested, but expected or needed. 'Go on', 'hurry up', nomination or giving permission to a student to contribute to the discourse can contribute to this function.
- **Clarification request (*CR*)**: a question or command asking students for clarification, reformulation or rephrasing of their utterance because it is either misunderstood or ill-formed.

As regards Giving-Answer Strategies (***GAS***), they are moves in which the teacher directly gives the answer. ***GAS*** are realized by:

- **Modelling (*M*)**: giving the answer for the student(s), providing an example or correcting a student's contribution
- **Repetition (*Rep*)**: repeating the students' contributions verbatim.
- **Reformulation (*Ref*)**: rephrasing a student's contribution in other words.
- **Extension (*Ex*)**: extending students' contributions.

On the basis of the afore-mentioned discussion, the following conventions will be considered at each move of the ***IRF***:

1) Initiation

a- The Initiation move 'referential questions' and 'display questions' acts. A ***display question*** (***DQ***) is a question to which the teacher already knows the answer. A ***referential question*** **(*RQ*)** is question to which the teacher does not know the answer.

b- The term '***Inform***' is used to refer teacher talk where there are no questions (or elicitations) involved, and can also be used prior to a question. The term '***Inform***', used here, is also referred in Sinclair and Coulthard's model as *Framing* and *Focusing* moves. It is used to distinguish the adjacent responses, if any, that follow an '***Inform'*** move from those that are produced in response to a ***DQ, RQ, PAS*** or ***GAS***.

c- The bound move *Re-initiation **(i)*** is used to describe structure of discourse- along with the ***IRF***, and functions as ***PAS***. *Re-initiation **(i)*** realized by an ***elicitation (El)***, a ***clue (Cl)*** or a ***prompt (P)***, as explained above. In case ***(i)*** is realized by a question, it is also described in terms of ***DQ, RQ***.

d- After asking a question, or re-asking the question ***(i)***, the teacher has the option of providing the answer herself using ***GAS***. In ***(i)***, ***GAS*** are realized by the act '***modelling***'.

e- The interval of deliberate silence that the teacher leaves before a student responds to a question, and before she provides either ***PAS*** *or* ***GAS*** is termed *Wait Time I* ***(WTI)***. This definition is adapted from Rowe (1987:96). It is calculated into three types *No Wait Time I* (***No-WTI***: zero seconds to approximately one second), *Short Wait Time I* (***Short-WTI***: one to three seconds) and *Extended Wait Time I* (***Extended-WTI***: more than three seconds).

2) Response

a- The term ***Response*** is used to describe all instances where students respond to the teacher. Risk-taking is described in terms of different types of participation in the classroom, and is divided into ***High Risk-Taking*** or ***Moderate Risk-Taking*** (referring to phenomena described in section **c-** below.) and ***Low Risk-Taking*** or ***No Risk-Taking*** (Characterised by participation forms described under section **d-** below)

b- *Pupil elicit* and *pupil inform* will be referred to as '***Volunteer***' in the same sense of self-initiation, but coding them as self-initiation confuses between teacher initiation and student initiation. Thus, '***Volunteer***' describes unsolicited students' utterances within the system of description; later, in the counting and analysis of talk, the term '***Self-Initiation***' (Brown, 2007) is retained to describe '***Volunteer***'.

c- ***Response*** and ***Volunteer*** are considered in terms of:

1- Number of words: ***n-Word (1,2,3,…n)***. Responses and Self-initiations (volunteer) can be referred to as ***One-Word*** or ***Multi-Word***. Turns resulting in one-word responses and self-initiations are considered as tokens of ***Moderate Risk-Taking***, and multi-word responses and self-initiations are considered as representative of ***High Risk-Taking***.

2- The quality of ***Response*** and ***Volunteer*** (***self-initiation***) is related to three factors, which are relevance, correctness and thoroughness, as explained below:

- Relevance to the point being discussed (***Relevant*** Vs ***Irrelevant***)

- Correctness in terms of lexis, grammar and pronunciation (***Accurate*** Vs ***Inaccurate***)
- Thoroughness of the statement (***Complete*** Vs ***Incomplete***)
- Finally, the number of the occurrences of ***Moderate*** and ***High Risk-Taking*** in students' turns is singled out from the various forms of participation, in the quantitative description, as an indicator of the amount of or ***Actual Risk-Taking***.

3- Different patterns of participation may emerge varying between ***No Response*** , ***Unspecified, Hesitation, Acknowledgement, Repetition*** and ***Choral Response***. ***No Response*** reflects a tendency to avoid taking risks. As for, ***Unspecified*** responses or replies that are so quiet that they cannot heard or understood in the same manner of private speech (van Lier, 2001; Tsui, 1995), they are also classified as no ***No Risk-Taking*** together with ***No Response***. The remaining patterns of participation are fit for a ***Low Risk-Taking*** classification. These are ***Hesitation*** (stuttering and indecision), ***Acknowledgement*** (manifestation of comprehension such as 'yes' and 'ok'), ***Repetition*** (repeating or echoing the teacher's or peer's words to respond), and ***Choral Response*** (where two or more students speaking together).

The considerations about Risk-Taking above lead to the operationalization of the construct along a scale reflected by **Table 8** below.

Type of Risk-Taking	**Type of Response**
Amount of Risk-Taking	Number of Students' Turns
No Risk-Taking	No Response Unspecified
Low Risk-Taking	Hesitation Acknowledgement Repetition Choral Response
Moderate Risk-Taking	One-Word Response One-Word Self-Initiation
High Risk-Taking	Multi-Word Response Multi-Word Self-Initiation
Actual Risk-Taking	One-Word Response One-Word Self-Initiation Multi-Word Response Multi-Word Self-Initiation

Quality of Risk-Taking	Relevant Vs Irrelevant Accurate Vs Inaccurate Complete Vs Incomplete

Table 8: Types and Levels of Risk-Taking

3) **Follow-up**

a- *Re-initiation* ***(ii)*** is described in terms ***PAS***. In case it is a question, it is also described in terms of ***DQ, RQ***. ***PAS*** in ***(ii)*** are realized by ***elicitation (El)***, a ***clue (Cl)*** or a ***prompt (P)***, and ***clarification requests (CR)***.

b- The interval of deliberate silence that the teacher leaves after a student responds to a question, and before the teacher speaks again is termed ***Wait Time II (WTII)*** (Rowe, ibid.). Similar to ***WTI***, ***WTII*** it is calculated into three types ***No-WTII***, ***Short-WTII*** and ***Extended-WTII***.

c- ***Accept***: used to refer to acts which are akin to ***GAS*** in nature. However, they include no ***modelling***, ***reformulation*** or ***extension*** of the students' utterances; they are realized by 'yes'. 'uhum', 'good', "fine", and indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the ***inform*** or ***response*** or ***volunteer*** was appropriate.

The system that obtains of the discussion above is shown in **Table 9** below.

Structure	**Acts/ Interaction Features**		**Code**
Initiation **(I)**	• Inform		• **Inform**
	• Display question Vs Referential question		• **DQ/ RQ**
	• Wait Time I: No Vs Short Vs Extended		• **WTI**
	• Giving-Answer Strategies: Modelling		• **GAS: M**
Re-initiation **(*i*)**	• Display Vs Referential question		• **DQ/ RQ**
	• Prompting-Answer Strategies: Clue Vs Elicitation Vs Prompt.		• **PAS: Cl/ El/ P**
	• WTI: No Vs Short Vs Extended		• **WTI**
	• Giving-Answer Strategies: Modelling		• **GAS: M**
Response	• No Response		• **No-R**
	• Unspecified		• **Unsp**
	• Hesitation		• **Hes**
	• Acknowledge		• **Ack**
	• Repetition		• **Rep**
Volunteer **(R)**	• Choral		• **Cho**
	• Response (R) or Volunteer (V):	n-Word (1,2,3,…n words)	• **n-W R/V**
		Relevant Vs Irrelevant	• **r/ ir**
		Accurate Vs Inaccurate	• **ac/ ic**

		Complete Vs Incomplete	• **c/ it**
Follow-up **(F)**	• Accept		• **Accept**
	• Wait Time II (WTII): No Vs Short Vs Extended		• **WTII**
	• GAS: Modelling Vs Reformulation Vs Extension		• **GAS: M/ Rep/ Ref/ Ex**
Re-initiation **(*ii*)**	• WTII: No Vs Short Vs Extended		• **WTII**
	• Display Vs Referential question		• **DQ/RQ**
	• PAS: Clue Vs Elicitation Vs Prompt Vs Clarification Request.		• **Pas: Cl/ El/ P/ CR**
	• WTI: No Vs Short Vs Extended		• **WTI**

Table 9: A System for Describing Teacher-Students Interaction

Having designed a system for describing classroom interaction, one last issue that need to be considered is the principles that guide the transcription conventions.

3.1.5. Principles for Transcription Conventions

Some conventions of transcription need to be addressed before embarking on the description and analysis of the corpus. The integral list of conventions preface the corpus in ***Appendix*** section of this study, and should be consulted if some symbols are hard to understand; however, guiding principle are necessary to divulge here.

First, names of participants as well as their identities remain anonymous to the public. To do so, the teacher is referred to with the symbol **T**. An unidentified speaking student is dubbed **S**, while a group of two or more students answering together chorally is given the symbol **SS**. Moreover, individual students who are identified in the video recording are given numbers. These are ranked according to participation i.e., **S1** refers to the student who is ranked first in participation; **S2** refers to the student ranked second, and so forth. Only five students are identified with numbers; other students are not identified because they either contributed minimally to the discussion, making them equal to the rest of the class, or are unidentified clearly.

The next sections turn to applying the System for Describing Teacher-Students Interaction designed above to the qualitative description and analysis of the corpus.

4. Qualitative Description of Teacher-Students Interaction

The lesson is divided into three big transactions, as **Figure (4)** shows. Description proceeds by commenting on the first big transaction and the sub-transactions within, and proceeds in the same manner with the second and third transactions. The main focus throughout is the types of questions, waiting times and whether the teacher gives answers or prompts for responses and self-initiations.

I Picture-Centred Discussion

This big transaction marks the first part of the lesson spans the floors from 1 to 679. It is the biggest transaction in the lesson, in which the teacher starts a discussion centred around pictures on the handout. It involves eight transactions labelled **I-1**, **I-2**, **I-3**, **I-4**, **I-5**, **I-6**, **I-7** and **I-8**. These latter transactions are further divided into sub-transactions and exchanges. The description starts with a short summary of each of the eight transactions, and proceeds in the same manner until minimal exchanges are reached. At this lowest level, which is defined by a single theme, a detailed description is given for the features that constitute the focus of this study.

I-1 Picture '4' (001-043)

Picture "4" stretches from the first turn to turn 043, and shows a car in the main street awaiting the green light. Opposite to the car, there is a phone booth. This transaction encompasses three sub-transactions **I-1.1**, **I-1.2** and **I-1.3**.

I-1.1 Pavement (001-007)

The first sub-transaction deals with eliciting the word 'pavement', spelling and differentiating it from the word 'road'. It comprises two exchanges **I-1.1.1** and **I-1.1.2** eliciting the word for pavement and spelling it as described below.

I-1.1.1 Pavement not Road! (001-003)

001	**T**	**I**	*people who walk… usually take this part of the street* ***(picture on handouts),*** *we call it?* **(2)**	DQ Short WTI
002	**S**	**R**	*the road=*	1-W R: r-ic-c
003	**T**	**F**	*=PAVEMENT; the road is the place where the car is. This is the road, cars move on a ROAD, or on roads, but pedestrians, people who walk, move on the PAVEMENT…*	No WTII GAS: M No R

Extract (3): Appendix II

This exchange marks the start of the recording which, it should be made noted, shows that the teacher has already begun the lesson before setting about the camera. The teacher asks a *display question*, allows students some time to think of an answer i.e., a *short Wait Time I*. A word is proposed by a student, but it is not the right one. The teacher directly comments and gives the correct answer i.e. the teacher used chooses the strategy of *Modelling* from *Giving-Answer Strategies* or *'GAS'*. By giving this final answer, the teacher prevents other possible answers; she could have pointed out where the word 'road' fits using an illustration, then given a *Clue* to elicit other responses such as 'the road is that part of the street designed for car traffic, but what do we call the other part assigned for pedestrians?'. Besides, the teacher does not wait long after student S has finished her response (*no Wait Time II*) nor does she nominate other students to respond (using *Prompting-Answer Strategies 'PAS'* such as a *Prompt*). However, a short *Wait time I* proved sufficient to get a response, albeit it is an inaccurate one.

I-1.1.2 Spelling Pavement (003-007)

003	**T**	**I**	*spell it pavement?***(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
004	**SS**	**R**	*P-A: P-I*	Cho R
005	**T**	**F**	*...P-A not I but A [P-A-V-E-M-E-N-T]=*	No WTII- GAS: M
006	**SS**	**R**	*=[P-A-V-E-M-E-N-T]*	Cho R
007	**T**	**F**	**=** *pavement as it is, ok, pronounced P-A-V-E-M-E-N-T=*	No WTII- GAS: M- No R

Extract (4): Appendix II

In turn 003, the teacher asks another *display question*. Because the question is thrown open to all the class to respond, students start spelling together, noisily. Then the teacher immediately interrupts them at the sound of an error. It is clear that *no Wait Time II* is given to students to come up with a complete answer, even a wrong one. The teacher corrects the error (*Modelling*), and goes on with providing of the rest of the answer. Simultaneously, some students are striving to supply the correct answer, but others are struggling with the spelling. In this exchange too, the teacher has not made use of *PAS* to check if students know the spelling of the word.

I-1.2 Lights (007-028)

Transaction **I-1.2** deals with light: traffic lights on the pavement (**I-1.2.1**) and lights in the classroom ceiling (**I-1.2.2**).

I-1.2.1 Traffic Lights (7-23)

007	**T**	**I**	*=well, go on…on the pavement, near the car, what is there?* **(2)**	DQ- Short WTI
008	**S1**	**R**	*erm=*	Hes
009	**T**	**F/ii**	*=what is there?...*	No WTII-DQ- PAS: El- No WTI- No R
			that object, that device with usually what? …	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI- No R
			three?=	DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
010	**SS**	**R**	*=colours=*	Cho R
011	**T**	**F**	*=colours, three colours, yah, three lights with different colours,[red, green] =*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
012	**S1**	**R**	*[organize the…er street]*	3-W V: r-ac-c
013	**T**	**F Ii**	*=and yellow or orange to [organize yah, um-hum, yes?]*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
014	**S1**	**R**	*[organize the er streets] of different cars=*	6-W R:r-ac-c
015	**S**	**R**	*= movement of cars*	3-W R:r-ac-c
016	**T**	**F**	**(1)** *the movement of cars=*	Short WTII- GAS: Rep
017	**S1**	**R**	*= it's, it replace the er policeman of er*	5-W R: r-ic-it
018	**T**	**F**	**(1)** *uh huh, well, sometimes we have the policeman also, at the same time=*	Short WTII- GAS: Ref
019	**S1**	**R**	*= yes=*	Ack
020	**T**	**F ii**	*=yes, so, how do we call these?* **(1)**	No WTII-DQ- PAS: El- Short WTI- No R
			These lights that regulate the circulation the traffic, of the movement of cars in the street	PAS: P- Short WTI- No R
			...TRAFFIC LIGHTS=	GAS: M
021	**S2**	**R**	*=yes, traffic lights=*	Rep
022	**T**	**F**	*=traffic lights, yah , traffic T-R-A-F-F-I-C , lights like lights L-I-G-H-T-S, like the lights here …* **(points to the ceiling)**	No WTII- Inform
023	**SS**	**R**	*yes=*	Ack

Extract (5): Appendix II

The teacher signposts the movement to another point in the discussion saying, "Well, go on". She describes the place of the traffic lights, asks a *display question* and provides short thinking time (*short WTI*). It is evident that the students don't recall the exact words referring to the device of 'traffic lights, as the stuttering of student S1 demonstrates. In turn 009, the teacher continues the 'rapid firing' i.e., repeats the question twice, leaves no interval for students to think and does not nominate. These two attempts prove useless. Thus, the teacher opts for *PAS* i.e., giving some clues about the shape, the position and role of traffic lights to students in a bid to help them retrieve the name of the device. Thus, she provides the clue 'three' which is essentially a *display question*. Turns 012, 014 and 015 reveal that using a *PAS* proves fruitful in that two students (student S1 and another student S) take these floors to initiate information about the role of traffic lights, and supply more

than one word voluntary responses and reactive responses. The teacher in floor 013 repeats part of the answer only by way of asking more clarification on the part of the talking student. Inviting students to expand their contribution yielded a longer response '*organize the streets' of different cars*' than the original contribution '*organize the street*', and a more appropriate response from a student supplying the phrase '*the movement of cars'*. The teacher repeats the correct response, and S1 stands out again and provides extra information about the role of traffic lights being similar to that of a policeman. However, the teacher overlooks the mistake in the third person form of the verb (*it replace* in turn 017) and focuses on meaning instead. To keep with the spirit of risk-taking, the teacher should have pointed out the erroneous spot and allowed the student to correct for herself. Finally, in turn 020, the teacher gets back at the original question, *reinitiates* it, *prompts* gain and eventually resorts to giving the answer (i.e., *Modelling* the response for students). The answer is echoed by the students and the teacher spells the word for them i.e., she chooses to *inform* them rather than asking to check if they are good with spelling. Students show understanding by *acknowledge* teacher's spelling.

I-1.2.2 The Ceiling (024-028)

024	**T**	**I**	*=we have lights over , ok, our heads, um-hum ... Well, where are the lights in the class? ...*	No WTII- No R- DQ- No WTI No R
			at the CEIling…	GAS: M- No WTI
025	**S**	**R**	*yes=*	Ack
026	**T**	**F/ii**	*= um-hum, the traffic lights here are on the… border of the road, or on the? ...*	No WTII- No R- DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
027	**SS**	**R**	*pavement=*	Cho R
028	**T**	**F**	*=pavement, yes, um-hum…*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No WTI- No R

Extract (6): Appendix II

The lesson seems to be geared towards testing enriching and reinforcing students' vocabulary because the pattern of asking for referents starts to take shape in teacher's initiations 024 and 026. This is carried out by asking *display questions*, of course. The teacher does not allow Wait Time (neither *WTI* nor *WTII*), and this reduced the students' replies to *acknowledgement* and *repetition* of the new learned word 'pavement'. This is what Dillon (1984) refers to as recitation. However, when the teacher gives the answer in 024, there is only an acknowledgement on the part of one student; this suggests that the

teacher has interrupted students who are thinking about or retrieving the response, and might have done so. By contrast, a *clue* given to students in 026 is positively reacted to by several students at once.

I-1.3 Description of the Phone Box (028-045)

The word for phone box is elicited in (**I-1.3.1**); the phone box is subsequently described in terms of the materials it is made of, with specific illustration of the red colour (**I-1.3.2**), and location (**I-1.3.3**)

I-1.3.1 Phone Box (028-033)

028	**T**	**I**	*opposite the car, [opposite the car on the other side of the road, what do you see]?*	DQ- No WTI
029	**SS**	**R**	*[phone box : phone box] …*	Cho R
030	**T**	**F**	*yes, a phone box,*	No WTII-GAS: Rep
		ii	*can you describe this phone box?... for example, its shape, what it is made of …*	DQ- No WTI PAS: P
031	**S**	**R**	*made of glass =*	3-W R: -r-ac-it
032	**S**	**R**	*=made of glass and metal…*	5-W R:r-ac-it
033	**T**	**F**	*made of glass and metal…*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R

Extract (7): Appendix II

The teacher focuses the discussion on the location of the car to ask a *display question*. She gets an immediate *choral response* from students. Next, the other *display question* gets two different responses, one building upon the other, and the teacher closes the discussion by agreeing to and repeating the last response. The students seem to be acquainted with the absence of *Wait Time* and nomination, and are quick to answer, but this happens only when they are sure about the answer, as the previous examples show.

I-1.3.2: The Red Colour in England (033-043)

033	**T**	**I**	*in er London, how are the phone boxes?=*	DQ- No WTI
034	**SS**	**R**	*red : red*	Cho R
035	**T**	**F**	*…exactly like the buses=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex- No WTI
036	**SS**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
037	**T**	**i**	*=and also what? …*	DQ- No WTI
038	**S**	**R**	*the guird=* ***(pronounced /gwɪəd/)***	1-W R: r-ic-c
039	**T**	**F**	*=the GUARDS of the queen=*	No WTII-GAS: M
040	**S**	**R**	*= yes*	Ack
041	**T**	**F**	*… have a red jacket too; so, most things in English =*	Inform
042	**S1**	**R**	*=are red =*	2-W R: r-ac-c

043	**T**	**F**	*=or, sorry, in England… yah, in English peoples are red, especially in London , yes…*	No WTII- GAS: Ex- No R

Extract (8): Appendix II

The teacher takes the discussion to the colour of the phone box and establishes that buses and Queen Guards are also red in colour. Here, rapid and successive turns are noticed, with the teacher asking *display questions*, allowing *no Wait Time* and no nomination either. While the *choral response* at turn 034 was correct, a student in 038 mispronounces the word 'guard'. *Wait time II* lacking, the teacher opts for *GAS* rather than asking the student or transfer the question to other students to correct. It can also be noticed, from turn 042, that students have a tendency to complete teacher sentences as a sign of showing that they know the answer and cooperate with the teacher. This tendency can also be interpreted as attempts to participate within the strict space that the teacher allows.

I-1.3.3 The Opposite Position (043-045)

043	**T**	**I**	*well… the car is far where?=*	DQ- No WTI
044	**S**	**R**	*=opposite the er [opposite the er phone box]*	6-W R: r-ac-ic
045	**T**	**F**	*[opposite the phone box] yes,* **(2)**	No WTII- GAS: Rep- NO R

Extract (9): Appendix II

This exchange marks the end of Transaction **I1**. It can also be seen that the question is *display* in nature, the responding student is in a race against the clock to provide an answer and so is the teacher who does not allow a space after the student response for her to formulate a fuller response and overcome hesitation. This is clear in the overlap of the student's completion and teacher's use of *GAS* i.e., repeating the response for the student.

I-2 Picture '5' (046-201)

Picture "5" shows a man standing behind a tree. To describe the picture, the teacher uses several exchanges: the man is first described (**I-2.1**), then the tree is described (**I-2.2**), and later, the teacher goes back to the hiding man to supply more details (**1-2.3**). Each of these three transactions is sub-divided further into smaller exchanges as the next section portray.

I-2.1 Description of the Man (046-116)

In describing the man, the teacher elicits his position behind the tree (**I-2.1.1**), his hat (**I-2.1.2)**, describes fancy dresses **(I-2.1.3)**, differentiates between suits and costumes **(I-2.1.4)** and talks about white collars **(I-2.1.5)**

I-2.1.1 A Man Behind a Tree (046-059)

046	**T**	**I**	*we move to picture five, yes…[what does it show you?]*	DQ- No WTI
047	**SS**	**R**	*[big tree :big tree]*	Cho R
048	**S**	**R**	*[tree]*	1-W R: r-ac-it
049	**T**	**F**	*…a large, [a large tree, uh huh]* **(uses open arms to illustrate)**	No WTII- GAS: Re
050	**S**	**R**	*[a man, a man] behind a tree*	5-W V:r-ac-c
051	**T**	**i**	**(1)** *do you see the man completely?...* **(pointing from the neck up)**	Short WTII- DQ - PAS: P- Short WTI
052	**SS**	**R**	*no: no… the head: head*	Cho R
053	**T**	**F/ii**	*…you see his?...*	No WTII- DQ-PAS: Cl –No WTI
054	**SS**	**R**	*[head]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
055	**T**	**F/ ii**	*[head] can you describe his head?...*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
056	**S1**	**R**	*he has, [he has a long er a long nose]*	7-W R: r-ac-c
057	**SS**	**R**	*[a hat]=*	Cho R
058	**T**	**I**	*=[he has a moustache, ok, a mou-stache]=***(shapes a moustache)**	No WTII- GAS: M
059	**SS**	**R**	*long nose: long nose*	Cho

Extract (10): Appendix II

The transaction starts when the teacher directs students to move to picture "5". A *display question* is posed that is not like the previously asked display questions. It is an open question i.e., one that has many possible responses, and yet these options are known to the teacher. No student is singled out from the group of students responding chorally, and thus the responses were identical and simplistic. However, a student in 050 manages to get her voice heard, and the teacher turns her attention to this interesting response by prompting this student to continue her response. Again, the question is thrown to all the class and a *choral response* yields the essence of the answer. In turn 056, S1 seizes a very short moment to deliver a *response* that is overlapped by another *choral response*. The teacher does not, however, react to either responses (hat and nose) and gives an answer concerning another aspect of the man's face (his moustache). In other words, the teacher chooses to give the answer to students and describe from her standpoint.

I-2.1.2 *Chapeau Melon* (Derby) (060-070)

060	**T**	**I**	*and?=* **(the teacher shapes a hat over her head)**	No WTII-DQ - No WTI

061	**SS**	**R**	*=a hat=*	Cho R
062	**T**	**F**	*=a hat, yah=*	No WTII- GAS: Rep
063	**S1**	**R**	*=a long nose also=*	4-W R:r-ac-c
064	**T**	**I**	*=is it a… an ordinary hat like … [those used, for example, of simple people now], wear now?=*	No WTII- DQ- NO WTI
065	**SS**	**R**	*[no: no]*	Cho R
066	**S**	**R**	*thieves …*	1-W R:r-ac-it
067	**T**	**F**	*yes, it seems to be a classical hat; a hat that accompanies usually a suit=*	Short WTII- GAS: E-
068	**SS**	**R**	*= yes=*	Ack
069	**T**	**F**	*= yah, it is a hat we usually put on with suits… so in French, we call it chapeau melon … yes …chapeau melon; it is, ok, special or, yah, it has a special form. nowadays, people don't [wear such hats] =*	No WTII- Inform-
070	**S**	**R**	*[* **((1))** *]*	Unsp

Extract (11): Appendix II

The teacher uses gestures to help the class supply the word for hat. Student S1 in turn 063 still insists to get her point recognized, but in vain as the teacher moves to further describe the 'hat'. The teacher asks if the hat is one that students are accustomed to, but she is in fact looking for specific term that describes this special hat. Students misunderstanding of the teacher's intention results in a *choral response* denying the ordinariness of the 'hat', while a student suggests that it is fit to be worn be thieves. The teacher does not attend to this last point, maybe because she has not heard it in the first place, but as she gives the term '*chapeau Melon'*, it is clear that she chooses to carry on with a different agenda. Later, in turn 070, the teacher provides cultural and social connotations of wearing such a hat.

I-2.1.3 Fancy Dress (071-078)

		I	*= except perhaps for what?* ***(1)***	DQ- Short WTI- NO R
071	**T**	**i**	*when they participate to a party or a feast or a festival, they … how do we say... when people, yah, put special clothes to be like this or that person? …*	DQ- PAS: Cl - Short WTI
072	**S1**	**R**	*they disguise =* **(pronounced /dɪsˈgɪz/)**	2-W RES: r-ic-c
073	**T**	**F**	*= yes, to be the same as another person...they disguise…*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: M- Short WTI
074	**S**	**R**	*disguise.*	Rep

075	**T**	**F** **ii**	*...yes, and how do we call such a way of clothing or such clothes ...that are put on in surprise parties ... when you want to be, for example , like Zorro?=*	Short WTII- DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
076	**S1**	**R**	*= disguise clothes*	2-W R: r-ac-c
077	**T**	**F**	*...yes… we disguise, we put on a costume =*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex
078	**S**	**R**	*= yes*	ACCEPTANCE

Extract (12): Appendix II

The transaction sets out with a rather vague question, but it is one that requires students to guess. Reacting to the students' failure to guess, the teacher decides to *re-initiate* the question and supply *clues*. S1 takes the risk of supplying the called-for term, and she is right in choosing the word, but fall short of pronouncing the word correctly (turn 072). The teacher corrects straight away, and uses another *clue* (Zorro) to help students describe his clothes. The response coming from student S1 shows that she has incorporated or uptaken the correction into her output. This is one of the clearest examples for the benefits of risk-taking i.e. the student gets feedback on her response which confirms the term, but corrects the pronunciation.

I-2.1.4 Suit or Costume (079-103)

079	**T**	**I**	*=so, don't confuse the word costume in English and the word costume in French; un costume in French corresponds to a? ...*	DQ- No WTI
080	**S**	**R**	*a suit=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
081	**T**	**F**	*=a suit S-U-I-T, a suit.*	No WTII- GAS: Ref- No R
			What is a suit? **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI- No R
		ii	*[the kind of clothes that consists of what]?*	DQ- PAS: P- Short WTI
082	**S**	**R**	*[* **((1))** *]*	Unsp
083	**S**	**R**	*[it's classical clothes]*	4-W R: r-ac-c
084	**S**	**R**	*[er…]*	Hes
085	**T**	**F**	*...usually, a jacket =*	Short WTII- GAS: M
086	**S**	**R**	*= jacket=*	Rep
087	**T**	**F**	*= and a pair of trousers, yah,*	No WTII- GAS: M- No R
		I	*that are made of the same?=*	DQ- No WTI
088	**S1**	**R**	*=material=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
089	**T**	**F**	*=material, of the same cloth…*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
090	**S1**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack
091	**T**	**I**	*... yes, and usually there is also an under… an under-?=*	DQ- Short WTI
092	**S1**	**R**	*= yes=*	1-W R: ir-c-it
093	**T**	**F**	*= [jacket*	No WTII- GAS: M- No R
		I	*which has no?]* **(point to the arms and wrists)**	DQ- No WTI
094	**S1**	**R**	*[a shirt]=*	1-W R: r-ic-c

095	**T**	**F/ ii**	*= no, with the shirt=*	No WTII- PAS: P
096	**S1**	**R**	*=ah, yes, yes=*	Ack
097	**T**	**F**	*=an under- jacket which has no sleeves=*	No WTII- GAS: M
098	**SS**	**R**	*=yes: yes=*	Ack
099	**S**	**R**	*=sleeveless*	1-W V: r-ac-it
100	**T**	**F**	*…SLEEVELESS, yes, a sleeveless under-jacket of the same cloth, and of course*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex- No R
		I	*this kind of clothing is put on with or is worn with?***(2)**	DQ- Short WTI
101	**S1**	**R**	*a tie=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
102	**T**	**F**	*=a [shirt… and a…tie]=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
103	**SS**	**R**	*=[shirt… tie]*	Rep

Extract (13): Appendix II

The French word 'costume' is quite a familiar to all students who use this word as part of their dialect; it is a false cognate though, and students need to know its counterpart in English. A student shows that she is aware of the distinction in turn 080. As for the spelling, the teacher chooses to give the answer (*GAS* in turn 080) without questioning. In the same turn (081), the teacher uses *PAS* for eliciting a description of a suit. The teacher judges the three responses that follow unsatisfactory, and lists herself the items that make a suit. The students are only *acknowledging* the teacher's information with casual *completion* of the teacher turns (in 086, 088, 090 and 092). Two students already have a good idea about clothing articles including the 'sleeveless' blouse or shirt and the 'tie'. Therefore, the teacher could have waited longer for students to elaborate answers after she used the *PAS* in turn 081. The intensive use of *GAS* seems to condition students' responses into the shortest and most economic phrasing possible. This can be attributed, in part, to the fact that students know that the answer is coming up soon whether they try or not. In other words, students don't feel responsible for building to the discourse, and regard it as the sole property of the teacher.

I-2.1.5 White Collars/ clerks (104-116)

104	**T**	**I**	*in England, people who work in offices are obliged [to do what?]*	DQ- No WTI
105	**S1**	**R**	*[to wear], to wear =*	1-W R: r-ac-it
106	**T**	**F**	*=to put on a suit with a white jac...shirt, sorry, and a tie.*	No WTII- GAS: M- No R
		I	*how do we call them, such people?* **(2)**	DQ- Short WTI- No R
		i	*the shirt is white* **(2)**	DQ- PAS: Cl- Short WTI
107	**S**	**R**	*white er =*	1-W RES:R-C-I

108	**T**	**F/ ii**	*=white… yah?...*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI- No R
			White COLLARS=	GAS: M
109	**S**	**R**	*=white collars=*	Rep
110	**T**	**F**	*=yes, we call them white collars; these people are CLERKS …*	No WTII- Inform No R
		I	*you know what are clerks?...*	DQ- Short WTI
111	**S**	**R**	*no=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
112	**T**	**F**	*=employees who work behind the desk in an office …=* **(uses gestures)**	No WTII- GAS: M
113	**S1**	**R**	*yes…*	Ack
114	**T**	**F**	*= yah, we call them clerks C-L-E-R-K. A clerk is an employee who works in an office, ok, It means that he sits at a desk and, ok, does his job=*	Inform
115	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
116	**T**	**I**	*= which consists of, perhaps, organizing documents or filling, ok, some orders and so on …checking...*	Inform- No R

Extract (14): Appendix II

The *display question*, in turn 104, could have easily been answered by students had they made the connection between it and the talk about suits, shirts and ties, but it is rather answered by the teacher due to the lack of *Wait Time I*. This is evident in the next response supplied by student S1 who has been cut short. The teacher is interested in eliciting the word for 'clerk' or 'white collar'. Thus, *clues* are supplied and *Wait Time* too, but students fail to respond for lack of the word. Hence, the teacher turns to an informing mode in which the words are provided for the students, and students are contented by acknowledging comprehension. In other words, when the teacher uses the informing mode, students are only passively reacting, and take no risks at all.

I-2.2 Describing the Tree (116-185)

To describe tree, the teacher makes use of six sub-transactions. Thus, the teacher draws attention to its shade **(I-2.2.1),** evokes a rule concerning adjective formation (**I-2.2.2)**, describes the leaves (**I2.2.3)** and rules for plural formation of words ending with –f **(I-2.2.4)**, the word trunk is then elicited **(I-2.2.5)** and finishes by making the difference between dark and light colours **(I-2.2.6)**.

I-2.2.1 Shade (116-127)

116	**T**	**I**	*well, we come back to our large tree… what does this tree provide the place it is in with?***(3) (uses gestures)**	DQ- Extended WTI- No R
		i	*yah, when you sit under such a tree* **(1)**	PAS: Cl- Short WTI
117	**S**	**R**	*fresh air =*	2-W R: r-ac-c
118	**T**	**F/ii**	*= yes, there is fresh air because we [are in nature]=*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: Ex- PAS: P
119	**S2**	**R**	*[shadow, shadow]*	1-W R: r-ic-c
120	**T**	**F/ii**	*= in a natural place, is it shadow?...*	No WTII -DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
121	**S**	**R**	*No*	1-W R: r-ac-c
122	**T**	**F**	*uh huh, yah* **(2)**	No WTII- PAS: El- Short WTI
123	**SS**	**R**	*because … under the person =*	4-W R: r-ac-it
124	**T**	**F**	*= we call this shade, I think, SHADE…*	No WTII- GAS: M- Short WTI
125	**S2**	**R**	*Shade*	Rep
126	**T**	**I**	*...yes, we call this shade, the large tree provides you or the place where you are with [shade] =*	No WTII- Inform- No WTI
127	**SS**	**R**	*[shade]*	Rep

Extract (15): Appendix II

Transition to a new aspect of the picture is shown by the teacher using *framing* 'well' and *focusing* 'we come back to…', and a *display question* is asked coupled with extended Wait Time, but students seem to be lost for words again. A *Prompting Strategy* is used as hint, and a relevant response that diverges from the one expected by the teacher is supplied by a student in turn 117. The teacher *accepts* the response and extends it (*GAS*), but uses a rising tone to indicate that she is looking for another word (*PAS*). Student S2 shows that she understood that the teacher is looking for another word, and tries the word 'shadow' which is close to meaning to the word shade except that shade designates place that is protected from the heat of the sun whereas shadow is only the darkness that forms when light shines on an object. Other students show that they are aware of the distinction, but can neither supply the alternative nor explain the difference in a complete response as shown in turns 121 and 123. As the teacher provides the answer, students are contented to repeat the word (turns 125 and 127).

I-2.2.2 Adjective formation « noun + y » (128-138)

128	**T**	**I**	*= so, we say the place is?=*	DQ- No WTI
129	**S1**	**R**	*=shady*	1-W R: r-ac-c

130	**T**	**F**	*… shady, yes. Some adjectives in English are obtained out of what, the noun plus the subject –Y- and we get the corresponding adjective.*	No WTII- Accept- Inform- No R
		I	*when we talk about a place where it rains, we say the place is?=*	DQ- No WTI
131	**S**	**R**	*=rainy=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
132	**T**	**F**	*=rainy;*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R
		I	*when the place is covered with sun?=*	DQ- No WTI
133	**SS**	**R**	*=[sunny : sunny]=*	Cho R
134	**T**	**F/I**	*= [we say it is… sunny] and so on. For example, people or let's say men especially have a lot of hair, yes, on their faces=*	No WTII- Inform
135	**S**	**R**	*=hairy=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
136	**T**	**I**	*=if they don't shave, their face is?=*	No WTII- DQ- No WTI
137	**SS**	**R**	*[hairy]*	Cho R
138	**T**	**F**	*=[hairy] and so on, ok , we have many other adjectives like that. so, remember that when we want to qualify something, to use an adjective, it is possible for you to form it out of a noun plus, ok, -Y- and you get the corresponding adjective*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R Inform- No R

Extract (16): Appendix II

Some adjectives in English are formed using a noun and the suffix 'y'. Application of this rule is the topic of this transaction which resulted in correct responses consisting of a single word from individual students (turn 129, 131, and 135) and groups of students too (turns 133 and 137). There is only minimal *Wait Time* or *No Wait Time* at all, but students find it easy to answer nevertheless. Teacher-meta-talk about the rule continues until the end of the exchange to provide more input for consolidating the point.

I-2.2.3 Green Leaves (138-147)

138	**T**	**I**	*= …yes, continue with this famous tree, can you talk about the colours and what the tree consists of? …yes…*	DQ- Short WTI No R
		i	*[are there colours in this tree?]*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
139	**S**	**R**	*[of er… green] =*	2-W R: r-ac-it
140	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	1-W R: r-ac-it
141	**S**	**R**	*=no=*	1-W R: r-ic-it
142	**T**	**F/I**	*=yes! not on the picture but on the tree naturally=*	No WTII- PAS: Cl
143	**SS**	**R**	*=green: green=*	Cho R
144	**S**	**R**	*=green and brown=*	3-W R: r-ac-it
145	**T**	**F/ii**	*yes, what is gree in the tree what is green, sorry?*	No WTII- Accept- DQ- No WTI- No R

			you say [the green colour, what is green?]	DQ - PAS: El- No WTI
146	**SS**	**R**	*[the leaves :the leaves]*	Cho R
147	**T**	**F**	*the leaves, yah =*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- Accept- No R

Extract (17): Appendix II

The beginning of this transaction is signaled using the *framing* word 'yes' and the theme was opened to describe other characteristics of the tree. Yet, the teacher immediately limits the scope of the question to the colours of the tree, leaving minimal *Wait Time* for students to describe freely, from their own perspective. The students agree that trees are generally of green and brown colours in nature (turns 143 and 144) after arguing for a bit that the tree in picture is colourless or just back-and-white. When asked to display the word 'leaves', the students needed a second *elicitation* to find it in turn 146. This instance testifies to the fact that students need to be prompted and pushed continually to help them activate their schemata.

I-2.2.4 Plural of Leaf (147-160)

147	**T**	**I**	*what is the singular of leaves?* **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
148	**SS**	**R**	*leaf: [leaf]*	Cho R
149	**T**	**F**	*[a leaf] L-E-A-F and leaves is an irregular [plural] =*	No WTII- GAS: Ex- No WTI
150	**S**	**R**	*[plural]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
151	**T**	**F**	*= yes, in English there are regular [and irregular plurals] =*	Inform
152	**SS**	**R**	*[and irregular plurals]*	Cho R
153	**T**	**F/I**	*yes, this word makes its plural form with a small change=*	accept-Inform
154	**S2**	**R**	*= change –F- V-E-S=*	3-W V: r-ac-c
155	**T**	**F**	*= the –F- changes into V-E-S*	No WTII- GAS: R- No R
		I	*like what?*	DQ- No WTI - No R
			give other words that are like that...	PAS: P
156	**S**	**R**	*knife=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
157	**S**	**R**	*=wife*	1-W R: r-ac-c
158	**T**	**F**	*... knife, knives; wife, wives, yes uh huh…*	Short WTII- GAS: Ref- Accept- No R
		I	*life? =*	DQ- No WTI
159	**S**	**R**	*= self, selves=*	1-W V: r-ac-c
160	**T**	**F**	*= lives… c'est bon…*	No WTII- GAS: M- No R

Extract (18): Appendix II

The teacher evokes plural formation and spelling, and checks that the students know the rules and can give example. Thus, this exchange is realized mostly through *display questions* about the rule which resulted in *one-word responses* (148 and 150), continuations of the teacher turns (152 and 154) and listing examples (156, 157 and 159).

I-2.2.5 The Trunk's Colour (160-164)

160	**T**	**I**	*ok, we continue, you said the green colour, the leaves are green, what about the support of the tree?...* **(uses gestures to shape a tree trunk)**	DQ- Short WTI
161	**SS**	**R**	*brown: brown…*	Cho R
162	**T**	**F/ii**	*What d'we call it?* **(1)**	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- Short WTI- No R
			the TRUNK T-R-U-N-K; the trunk,	GAS: M- No R
			the support of the tree, how is it?=	DQ- No WTI
163	**SS**	**R**	*[brown]*	Cho R
164	**T**	**F**	*=[usually brown]*	No WTII - GAS: Ref- No R

Extract (19): Appendix II

The word for 'trunk' is aimed for in turn 160, in a loosely-phrased question which led to a response concerning the colour of the trunk. Hence, the teacher *reinitiates* the question, supplies a short thinking time, and then resorted to supplying the word and spelling it. In the same turn (162), the teacher wants to attend to the students' earlier response so as not to dismiss it as irrelevant and as a way to reinforce the word 'trunk', thus she asks again for the colour 'brown'.

I-2.2.6 Dark and Light Colours (164-185)

164	**T**	**I**	*yes, it can be dark brown or light brown, yes, when we speak about colours, uh huh, when we speak about colours, the same colour can be?...*	Inform DQ- No WTI
165	**SS**	**R**	*dark and =*	Cho R
166	**T**	**F/ii**	*= dark or? ...*	No WTII - DQ-PAS: Cl- No WTI
167	**S**	**R**	*light=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
168	**T**	**F**	*=light; dark meaning very coloured=*	No WTII - GAS: Ex
169	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack
170	**T**	**F**	*= or violent or… tone; let's have a look here; of course, not the black, neither black colour nor a white=*	Inform
171	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
172	**T**	**I**	*= the black and white colours can make the extremes, but in the tree we have other colours blue, green, grey, red, pink, yes,… orange and*	Inform- No WTI

			here we may have …slight differences in the TONE of the colour; it can be dark=	
173	**S**	**R**	*= or light*	Rep
174	**T**	**F**	*very coloured, yes, or light…*	GAS: Ref- No R
		I	**(Teacher nominates a student in the class) S!***… has ?* **(3)**	DQ- Extended WTI
175	**S**	**R**	*a dark blue in her veil*	6-W R: r-ac-it
176	**T**	**F**	*... yes, blue, blue colour, but there are different blues, let's say bright here* **(points to the student's veil)** *and a bit darker as far as the jacket is concerned.*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex No R
		I	*If we look at er…what's his name… sorry! yes, what's your name?...*	RQ- No WTI
177	**S**	**R**	**((1)) (s!! gives his name)**	Unsp
178	**T**	**F/I**	*ok, what about his blue, if you want, clothes , light or dark?* **(2)**	DQ- Short WTI
179	**S**	**R**	*dark=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
180	**SS**	**R**	*=between the two: between the two*	Cho R
181	**T**	**F**	*…darker than hers, the blue he is wearing is darker than* **S!** *,ok, well, what about another colour … the green perhaps* **(points to a veil)** *green* **(points to another)** *and green , she has some green…*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex
182	**S**	**R**	*yes=*	Ack
183	**T**	**I**	*=here it is light and here it is=*	Inform
184	**SS**	**R**	*[dark]*	Cho R
185	**T**	**F**	*=[dark] all right, well, perhaps we haven't chosen the colours.*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex- No R

Extract (20): Appendix II

Though the teacher opens this exchange by introducing the two shades of colour (dark and light) in turn 164, students fail to uptake the terms in turn 165. This can be imputed to the lack of *Wait Time*. When the question is rephrased, a student is able to recall the term in turn 167. This example lends more support to the benefit of using *PAS*. Difficulty in describing tones of colours led the teacher to inform students further about them in turns 168, 170, 172, 174 which are intermitted by students' *acknowledgement*. To check that students are able to make the difference, the teacher asks about the colours of clothing items that some students are wearing. Though the differences are subtle, students manage to apply the terms (turns 179, 180 and 184)

I-2.3 The Hiding Man (185-201)

The teacher turns to the man lurking behind the tree to discuss reasons for hiding (**I2.3.1**) and the man's standing position (**I2.3.2**).

I-2.3.1 Reasons for Hiding (185-196)

185	**T**	**I**	*Let's continue, so, the man seems to, to do what behind the tree?* **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI- No R
		i	*what is he doing here?***(1)**	DQ- No WTI-PAS: El
186	**SS**	**R**	*he is hiding: hiding*	Cho R
187	**T**	**F**	*… he is hiding* **(uses mime)***, yes, he is perhaps followed by the police =*	Short WTII - GAS: Ex
188	**SS**	**R**	*= yes: yes…*	Cho R
189	**T**	**F**	*=or by someone=*	Inform
190	**S**	**R**	*yes: yes…*	Ack
191	**T**	**I**	*usually, who hides? …*	DQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*people who have committed what?*	DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI- No R
			crimes and =	PAS: Cl
192	**S**	**R**	*= criminals=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
193	**S**	**R**	*= yes, yah, who have created problems=*	6-W R: r-ac-it
194	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
195	**T**	**F**	*=well, or perhaps simply, he doesn't want his [wife…to find him]*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex
196	**S**	**R**	*[yes]***(students laugh)***]*	Ack

Extract (21): Appendix II

This transaction is all about the advantages of *PAS*. Initial questions are not responded to in 185 and 191 until the teacher *reinitiates* the questions by *eliciting* in turn 185 and *giving clues* in turn 191. The outcome can be seen in the number of turns taken by the students (turns 186, 192 and 193) as well as the number of words per turn (193). However, the questions could have been rendered *referential* by personalizing them to individual students to discuss their own reasons for hiding which, in turn, could have led to more and better responses.

I-2.3.2 The Man's Position (197-201)

197	**T**	**I**	*um-hum, the man is how: sleeping , lying…?*	DQ- Short WTI
198	**S**	**R**	*No*	1-W R: r-ac-it
199	**T**	**F/ii**	*he is like me, he is?*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
200	**S**	**R**	*[standing]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
201	**T**	**F**	*[standing] yes, the man is standing behind the tree.*	No WTII - GAS: Ex- No R

Extract (22): Appendix II

In this short exchange, the teacher establishes that the man is standing, but the question in 197 is not clear enough. Aware of this pitfall, the teacher makes amends by giving a *clue* to which the response comes immediately in turn 200.

I-3 Picture '6' (201-269)

The picture depicts a stony small bridge over a river. This bridge is likened to local bridges in the city of Constantine (**I-3.1**), and the word 'lift' is introduced in English and its translations in French and Arabic (**I-3.2**) evoking an example of 'broken French' (**I-3.3**); subsequently, the discussants describe a small stony bridge (**I-3.4**), the bridge' position (**I-3.5**), London Bridge (**I-3.6**), before the teacher presents the Thames river and divulges its spelling as well as capitalization for rivers (**I-3.7**) and pets (**I-3.8**). Finally, a recapitulation of description is supplied (**I-3.9**).

I-3.1 Local 'Constantine' Bridges (201-207)

201	**T**	**I**	*let's look at this famous picture six…what does it remind you of?* **(2)** *it reminds you of Constantine =*	DQ- Short WTI- No R GAS: M
202	**SS**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
203	**T**	**F**	*= Constantine is, yes, the town of bridges, we have many bridges in Constantine, we have the suspended or the hospital=*	Inform
204	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack
205	**T**	**I**	*= we have what?* **(3) (uses gestures)**	DQ- Extended WTI- No R
		F	*the lift bridge, the bridge that permits you to reach the lift which takes you to…, how do we say…Trik Djdida=* **(gives name of the street)**	GAS: M
206	**S**	**R**	*= the new road=* **(literal translation of the street's name above)**	3-W V: r-ac-c
207	**T**	**F**	*= near Café Nedjma…*	No WTII- Inform- No R

Extract (23): Appendix II

As the teacher marks the progression to describing a new picture in turn 201, she asks the students to relate the bridge that is shown in the picture to other bridges in the town of Constantine. However, she only gives them one chance to answer before turning to an *informative* mode in the rest of the exchange. Aside from the literal translation supplied by a student in turn 206, the students stuck to *acknowledging* the teacher taking them in a guided tour to the bridges of the town.

I-3.2 *L'ascenseur* or The lift (207-217)

207	**T**	**I**	*you know what a lift is, what is a lift?...*	DQ- No WTI
208	**S**	**R**	*l'ascenseur=*	1-W R: r-ac-it:FR

209	**T**	**F**	*= that device, that, if you want, cabin that permits you to, ok, go upstairs; instead of going upstairs, you get into the lift and you reach the place where you want to be, ok…*	No WTII- GAS: M No R
		I	*have you gone there?=*	DQ- No WTI
210	**S**	**R**	*= yes*	1-W R: r-ac-c
211	**T**	**I**	*have you taken the lift?=*	No WTII - DQ- No WTI
212	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
213	**S**	**R**	*=no=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
214	**T**	**F**	*=no! some with yes, say yes and the others say no; so you must try it, you must go to the lift and get up…yes,*	No WTII- GAS: Ex- No R
		I	*can you translate what a lift is?=*	DQ- No WTI
215	**SS**	**R**	*l'ascenseur:l'ascenseur* **(in French)**	Cho R
216	**S**	**R**	*elmisaad* **(in Arabic)**	1-W R: r-ac-c:AR
217	**T**	**F**	*… elmissad ,yes, l'ascenseur*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R

Extract (24): Appendix I

The teacher asks *display questions* in turns 207, 209, 211 and 214 to elicit, consolidate and translate the word for lift. The outcome of these questions are *single-word responses* that show understanding on the part of students.

I-3.3 *Broken French* (217-223)

217	**T**	**I**	*and people ordinarily say what? … Essonseur…* **(local dialect)**	DQ- No WTI- No R GAS: M- No WTI
218	**SS**	**R**	**((1)) (students laugh)**	Unsp
219	**T**	**F**	*yes, we try to use French but a bit hard =*	Inform
220	**S**	**R**	*= broken French=*	2-W V: r-ac-c
221	**T**	**F**	*=broken French, yah, changed French [because people who use such French] =*	GAS: Ex
222	**S1**	**R**	*[colonised er]*	1-W V: r-ac-it
223	**T**	**F**	*= are illiterate…*	GAS: M- No R

Extract (25): Appendix II

Closely related to the previous exchange, this transaction looks for the term used in local dialect to refer to the lift. The origin of the term is hypothesized by the teacher to be a mal-pronunciation adopted by illiterate people. Student S1 begs to differ in turn 222, but her response is not attended to by the teacher who continues her theory. Most students, however, seem to agree with the teacher in an amusing mood characterised by laughter.

I-3.4 A Small Stony Bridge (223-239)

223	**T**	**I**	*so, here we see a?...*	DQ- No WTI
224	**S**	**R**	*bridge=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
225	**T**	**F/ii**	*=how is the bridge here?* **(1)**	No WTII- PAS: El- DQ-Short WTI

226	**S**	**R**	*small=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
227	**T**	**F**	*=small, yes…*	No WTII - GAS: Rep
228	**S1**	**R**	*small bridge=*	2-W R: r-ac-c
229	**T**	**F**	*=it is a small bridge,*	GAS: Ref- No R
		I	*what is it made of?*	DQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*Is it metallic? =*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
230	**SS**	**R**	*= no =*	Cho R
231	**T**	**F/ii**	*= like the hospital bridge or the lift bridge?...*	No WTII- DQ-PAS: P- No WTI
232	**SS**	**R**	*no=*	Cho R
233	**T**	**F/ii**	*=it is like what?...*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
234	**S**	**R**	*stone=*	1-W R: r-ac-it
235	**T**	**I**	*it is like the other bridges in Constantine, the Roman bridges, Sidi Rached=*	No WTII – Inform
236	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
237	**T**	**I**	*= and El Kantara. These bridges look like this one or resemble this one*	DQ- Short WTI
		i	*because they are made of?*	PAS: P
238	**SS**	**R**	*[stone]*	Cho R
239	**T**	**F**	*[stone] , it is a stony bridge, yes, this is a small stony bridge.*	No WTII - Recast: Ex- No R

Extract (26): Appendix II

This exchange should have marked the start of the transaction **I-3** owing to the fact that the teacher gets back to elicit the word for 'bridge' and what it is made of. The display questions about the bridge are readily answered, though a *PAS* was necessary for students to determine the material that makes the bridge (i.e., stone). Once again, the teacher turns into an informative mode, and supplies examples from the famous bridges that distinguish the town of Constantine.

I-3.5 The Bridge' Position (239-242)

239	**T**	**I**	*Where is it, the bridge?* **(1) (draws an elevated curved line with her hands)**	DQ- Short WTI
240	**S**	**R**	*over the… the river=*	3-W R: r-ac-c
241	**T**	**F**	*=it is [over the river]*	No WTII- GAS: Ref
242	**SS**	**R**	*[the river]*	Rep

Extract (27): Appendix II

This short exchange deals with what the bridges crosses. The teacher allows a *Short Wait Time*, and uses gestures to clarify the question for students. A student is able to describe the position, and overcome the pause in the middle of the response (turn 240). Interrupting the student, therefore, could have stopped the student's struggle, and the

teacher, here, is more patient than in previous instances in which students were not granted enough time to continue their responses.

I-3.6 London Bridge (243-246)

243	**T**	**I**	*well, what about London's Bridge… and London's, if you want, river?...*	DQ- No WTI
244	**S**	**R**	*over the city town=*	4-W R: r-ac-it
245	**T**	**F** **ii**	*= yes,* *how is the bridge of London called?***(2)**	No WTII- Accept- DQ- PAS: El- Short WTI- No R
			Westminster Bridge=	GAS: M
246	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack

Extract (28): Appendix II

The teacher moves to asking students whether they know of any bridges in London. A student knows that there is a famous bridge in the city of London, but doesn't recall the name. Though the teacher uses *PAS* and repetitive pauses, the name escapes the student who shows recall of the name as soon as the teacher gives the name.

I-3.7 The Thames -spelling and capitalization (247-251)

		I	*=Westminster, and it is over what?*	DQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*It is a very big bridge over what?* **(1)**	DQ- PAS: El- Short WTI- No R
			the river called?...	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI- No R
			the river that crosses London?	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI- No R
247	**T**		**(2)** *the THAMES, the Thames, yah T-H-A-M-E-S, the Thames. In French, we call it La Tamise , la Tamise and even in French it is not written like in English, I remember we write it T-A-M-I-S-E, but in English we write it T-H ,sorry, T-H-A-M-E-S and of course it is capitalized=*	GAS: M
248	**S**	**R**	*=yes: yes=*	Ack
249	**T**	**I**	*=because [it's a name of a]*	DQ- No WTI
250	**S**	**R**	*[It's a name]*	3-W R: r-ac-it
251	**T**	**F**	*=river and names of rivers are capitalized exactly like the proper names of people and places, countries, villages and so on, mountains, seas, oceans, ok, and even animals,*	No WTII- GAS: Ex No R

Extract (29): Appendix II

Students don't know the name of the most famous river in England. Therefore, the three *re-initiations* or rephrasing of the questions were useless. The second and third question modifications are redundant and excessive because there is no indication that shows students having a clue about rivers of England. Where capitalization should be used is a question that students could have provided several examples, but a student is not given enough space to continue the response in 250 nor has the teacher elicited the cases for using capital letters, and opts for giving the answer herself before forging ahead with more explanation about spelling.

I-3.8 Pets (251-265)

251	**T**	**I**	*pets; we can have an animal which we consider like what?... like our child=*	DQ- No WTI- No R GAS: M
252	**S1**	**R**	*= a member of the er family=*	5-W R: r-ac-c
253	**T**	**F**	*= a member of the family, right; we [give it also a proper name] which is capitalized*	GAS: Ex
254	**SS**	**R**	*[name: name]*	Cho R
255	**S2**	**R**	*and special food=*	5-W V: r-ac-it
256	**T**	**F/ii**	*=special?=*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
257	**SS**	**R**	*food: food…*	Cho R
258	**T**	**F/ii**	*for example?=*	Short WTII- RQ- PAS:CR- No WTI
259	**S1**	**R**	*= Couscous …* **(students laugh)**	1-W R: r-ic-c
260	**T**	**F/ii**	*Couscous!... what?...*	No WTII- RQ- PAS:CR- No WTI
261	**S1**	**R**	*Couscous of cats=*	3-W R: r-ac-it
262	**T**	**F**	*=yes, the food special for cats=*	No WTII –GAS: Ex
263	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
264	**T**	**F**	*=the mark you mean because we usually don't capitalize foods , but marks of foods, yes; Wiscass or, I don't know, kit Cat, things like that, yes, because it is a mark more than, ok food*	Inform- No R
265	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack

Extract (30): Appendix II

An example of the words that need to be capitalized is that referring to names given to pets. When the teacher asks a *display question* in 251, she has not waited long before supplying the answer (*No WTI*), as though the question she asked was a rhetorical one. Student S1, in 252, gives an answer after approximately a one second thinking. This answer is followed-up by the teacher's *extension* that still focuses on the formality of capitalizing the names given to a pet. The students' interest is different, however, from that of the

teacher. Turn 255 shows that students want to talk about their pets, and how they treat them. As of turn 256, the teacher lets go of sticking to form, and follows-up the responses given by students by asking genuine (i.e., *referential*) questions. The responsibility of clarifying ideas is taken by S1 in turns 259 and 261. The teacher corrects that food is not capitalized except for the brands. However, students don't seem to have given examples of this spelling rule, but of real life examples that reflect their experiences.

I-3.9 Recap of Description (266-269)

266	**T**	**I**	*so, here the bridge is stony, and it..., yah,* **(uses mime)** *it is over?...*	DQ- No WTI
267	**SS**	**R**	*[a river]*	Cho R
268	**T**	**F**	*[a river]*	No WTII- GAS: Rep
269	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack

Extract (31): Appendix II

The teacher closes the discussion about picture '6', by giving a short summary that has a final word omitted as in information-gap activities. In other words, instead of asking the students to deliver a summary of the discussion about picture '6' – something that would presumably result in more opportunities and various ways of expressing ideas, the teacher poses a *display question* that has been answered before in transaction I-3.5, and is rather quite easy to answer. The recap implemented as such, therefore, does not allow the teacher to gauge what the students can take up, and ultimately remediate problem areas.

I-4 Picture '7' (270-306)

The picture shows a book placed under a table. Description is developed in three exchanges as follows: the teacher leads a general description of the picture (**I-4.1**), elicits the table's shape (**I-4.2**) and draws the distinction between legs and feet (**I-4.3**)

I-4.1 General Description (270-274)

270	**T**	**I**	*look at number seven* **(2)**, *uh huh, what is it?...*	DQ- Short WTI
271	**SS**	**R**	*table: table*	Cho R
272	**S**	**R**	*there is a book under the table*	7-W R: r-ac-it
273	**SS**	**R**	*[book: under the table]*	Cho R
274	**T**	**F**	*[the book is under the table]*	No WTII- GAS: Ref- No R

Extract (32): Appendix II

A typical teaching exchange in which the teacher starts by *informing*, in the sense of directing in this example, about the *focus* of the exchange, asks a *display question* to which a sufficient answer is provided by individual as well as cohorts of students.

I-4.2 The Table's Shape (274-289)

274	**T**	**I**	*how is the form of the table?*	DQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*what can you say about this table?...*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
275	**SS**	**R**	**((1))**	Unsp
276	**S**	**R**	*Rectangular*	1-W R: r-ac-c
277	**T**	**I**	*it has four sides, but they are not equal, the four sides of the table are unequal=*	No WTII- Inform
278	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
279	**T**	**F/ii**	*=they are not ?=*	DQ- No WTI- PAS: Cl
280	**S**	**R**	*= equal=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
281	**T**	**F/ii**	*= they don't have the same…what?…* **(uses gestures)**	No WTII-DQ- No WTI-PAS: Cl
282	**SS**	**R**	*[length]*	Cho R
283	**T**	**F**	*[length] yah,*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R
		I	*two parallel, what?…*	DQ- No WTI- No R
			sides of the table are equal and the two others are unequal	GAS: M- No R
		i	*it gives you what?=*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
284	**S**	**R**	*a rectangle=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
285	**T**	**F/I**	*=a RECTANGLE ;*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R
			so, the table is? …	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
286	**SS**	**R**	*[rectangular, yes]*	Cho R
287	**T**	**F/ii**	*[rectangular] the table is rectangular,*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R
			or has a?...	DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
288	**SS**	**R**	*[form: shape]*	Cho R
289	**T**	**F**	*[rectangular form], shape,*	No WTII- GAS: Ref- No R

Extract (33): Appendix II

In discussing the shape of the table, the teacher asks a *display question* to which two responses are given: one is unspecified (275) and the other is correct (276). It seems that the teacher has not heard any of them because they are left unattended to in the next teacher *initiation* which *informs* in lieu of providing feedback to these responses. Gradually, the teacher introduces the term 'rectangle' through a series of *one-word responses* (turns 280, 282, 284 and 286) that were realized by *display questions*. It should be noted that the word for rectangle is first restated by the same student in turn 284. Next, the teacher supplies two other constructions for describing the table. These are given in the form of *display questions* that are elliptically phrased. Therefore, the teacher's questions provide only minimal opportunities for students to practise.

I-4.3 Legs or Feet? (289-306)

289	**T**	**I**	*yes; what about… the support for the table?...*	DQ- No WTI
290	**SS**	**R**	*four legs=*	Cho R
291	**T**	**F/ ii**	*=four legs?=*	No WTII-DQ- No WTI-PAS: CR
292	**SS**	**R**	*=yes*	Cho R
293	**T**	**F/ ii**	*... well, it's as commissioned, and er I am not used to saying legs… I have always said =*	No WTII- PAS: P
294	**S**	**R**	*=feet=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
295	**T**	**F/ii**	*= I have always used ?...*	PAS: P
296	**S**	**R**	*Feet*	1-W R: r-ac-c
297	**T**	**F**	*the word feet for objects or animals; legs for me are special to humans, but anyway, I think that it is acceptable and we can say it. One of the students of the other group said "madam, we say legs"; I said "we say feet"=*	Inform
298	**S**	**R**	*= because more appropriate for human beings not =*	7-W R: r-ic-it
299	**T**	**F**	*= no, I am habituated even in different activities I gave to my students, or I used to give to my students, I said… feet; we have always found the word feet as far as tables and animals are concerned. Well, let's accept also legs =*	GAS: Ex
300	**SS**	**R**	*=legs*	Cho R
301	**T**	**F**	*... well, don't look in the dictionary, I'm sure of that, your friend has already, ok, checked, and we can say the legs of the table, but I'm habituated to saying the [feet of the table]*	Inform
302	**S**	**R**	*[feet]*	Rep
303	**S2**	**R**	*no problem*	2-W R: r-ac-c
304	**T**	**I**	*...well, how many [feet or legs]?*	DQ- No WTI
305	**SS**	**R**	*= [four]: four=*	Cho R
306	**T**	**F**	*=four legs, yah, uh huh…*	No WTII- GAS: Ref- No R

Extract (34): Appendix II

The teacher marks the *boundary* of a new transaction dealing with a different aspect of the picture using the word ‘well’, and asks a question to *display* the word ‘feet’. Students at once supplied the word ‘legs’ that it *rejected* by the teacher in some specific way she explains in later turns. Thus she asks students to *clarify* the response in another word (291), then *prompts* them to remember the ‘feet’ is the word she has always used in 293 and 295, but she does not attend to the correct responses that are interposed between her *PAS*. There is even a long response supplied by a student in 298 that is lacking both subject and verb and is incomplete because the teacher *cut it short* and *rejected* the idea it bears. Thus, the student may be led to think that there is nothing wrong with the utterance, grammatically

speaking. By the end of the exchange, the teacher settles on both words 'feet' and 'legs' to describe the support of the table.

I-5 Picture '8' (306-360)

The picture shows a dog lying beside the fireplace. Description is developed in five exchanges: (**I-5.1**) describes the dog's lying position, (**I-5.2**) describes the chimneys, (**I-5.3**) handles the plural of nouns ending in –y, (**I-5.4**) summarizes the description, and (**I-5.5**) revisits the spelling of the word 'chimney'.

I-5.1 The Dog's Position (306-316)

306	**T**	**I**	*let's look at picture [… number eight] =*	Inform
307	**S**	**R**	*[eight]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
308	**SS**	**R**	*=a dog: a dog*	Cho R
309	**T**	**F**	*... well, it's a dog…*	GAS: Ref- No R
		I	*what is the dog doing?=*	DQ- No WTI
310	**SS**	**R**	*=sleeping: sleeping=*	Cho R
311	**T**	**F**	*=lying=,*	No WTII- GAS: Ref
312	**S**	**R**	*=[relaxing]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
313	**T**	**F**	*[the dog is] lying.*	GAS: Ref- No R
		I	*where is it lying?...*	DQ- No WTI
314	**S**	**R**	*in front of the fire=*	5-W R: r-ac-c
315	**S**	**R**	*= in front of the fire=*	Rep
316	**T**	**F**	*=yes, in front of the fire…*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R

Extract (35): Appendix II

The following point of description is eagerly recognized by students given that discussion proceeds in an orderly fashion. For the next question in turn 309, the responses are rephrased by the teacher who is reluctant to leave *some time* for student to formulate responses. However, the students seem to have adapted to this quick pace, and two students manage answer thoroughly in turns 314 and 315. The teacher *accepts* and *repeats* these responses.

I-5.2 Chimneys! (316-324)

316	**T**	**I**	*where is the fire?***(2)**	DQ- Short WTI- No R
		i	*how do we* **(uses gestures)** *call this device where we make fire usually inside houses?... the chimney=*	DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI- No R GAS:M
317	**SS**	**R**	*=chimney=*	Cho R

318	**T**	**F**	*= chimney, yah ; we have already spoken about the chimney in picture one, that device* **(uses gestures)** *over, or getting out of the roof=*	Inform
319	**S**	**R**	*= of houses*	2-W R: r-ac-it
320	**T**	**F**	*= yes, of the building in the middle* **(points out to the picture)**	GAS: ex
321	**S**	**R**	*Chimneys*	Rep
322	**T**	**I**	*...chimney, C-H-I-M-N-E-Y.in plural we add the –S- =*	Inform
323	**SS**	**R**	*= chimneys*	Cho R
324	**T**	**I**	*because it is a regular plural=*	Inform- No R

Extract (36): Appendix II

While the first question that opens the transaction above is somewhat general and unspecified, the *clue* supplied by the teacher makes it more specific and students instantly answer *collectively*, then the teacher provides more explanation and spelling in the remainder of turns. Her pauses are filled by the students' continuing her turns (turn 319), *repeating* the word (turn 321) and *chorally* responding (turn 323).

I-5.3 The Plural of Nouns Ending in "y" (324-332)

324	**T**	**I**	*yah, chimneys, alright! The –Y- here is not transformed; do you know your spelling rule as far a the final –Y- is concerned?=*	DQ- No WTI
325	**SS**	**R**	*=yes*	1-W R: ir-ac-it
326	**T**	**F/ ii**	*...yes, when do you change the –Y- into an –I- before adding ... What you must add…*	No WTII-PAS: Cl
327	**SS**	**R**	*consonant er =*	Cho R
328	**T**	**I**	*= when the -Y- is preceded by a consonant. Here, chimney, the -Y- is preceded by ?...*	DQ- No WTI
329	**SS**	**R**	*[a vowel]*	Cho R
330	**T**	**F**	*[a vowel]; so, no change, you just add the -S- like in boys, toys and so on=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
331	**S**	**R**	*= yes=*	Ack
332	**T**	**I**	*= you make the plural of such a word by adding -S- without changing anything; the -Y- is preceded by a vowel, ok; so, I repeat C-H-I-M-N-E-Y- and the -S- for the notion of plural…*	Inform- No R

Extract (37): Appendix II

This is a '*Teacher Inform*' exchange, according to Sinclair and Coulthard's classification of the different exchanges that typify classrooms (*op. cit.*). It is so because the teacher spends most of the time explaining the grammar rule, and students are *acknowledging* and taking notes. In turn 329, students show that they are aware of the rule. If the teacher had had in mind to hand over the responsibility to students and give them

more opportunities to speak, she could have asked the students to spell out the rule themselves and supply examples too.

I-5.4 Recap of Description (332-335)

332	**T**	**I**	*well, so the dog is lying where?=*	DQ- No WTI
333	**SS**	**R**	*= in front of the fire=*	Cho R
334	**SS**	**R**	*Near*	1-W R: r-ac-it
335	**T**	**F**	*…near the fire, in front of the fire, ok, he is in front of the fire* **(2)**	No WTII- GAS: Ex- No R

Extract (38): Appendix II

As with the recapitulation of talk about the previous picture, the teacher follows the same technique of asking a *close-ended question*, *elicits* a short response from the class and takes the responsibility of *extending* students' choral responses.

I-5.5 Re-Spelling Chimneys! (335-360)

335	**T**	**I**	*well***(2)** *look at picture =*	Inform
336	**S**	**R**	*= nine*	1-W R: r-ac-c
337	**T**	**I**	*= what what* **(to a student speaking in a low voice)** *what are you talking about? …*	RQ- No WTI
338	**S3**	**R**	**((…))**	Unsp
339	**T**	**F/ii**	*… well, say it loudly so that the others react or, perhaps they need the information you are giving to your friend...repeat...*	PAS: P- No WTI
340	**S3**	**R**	*spelling* **((1))**	Unsp
341	**T**	**F/ii**	*uh huh, spell it [...louder !]*	PAS: P
342	**S3**	**R**	*[C-H-E-] … C-H-I-=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
343	**T**	**F/ii**	*=C-H-?*	DQ-PAS: CR- No WTI
344	**S1**	**R**	*-I-*	1-W R: r-ac-c
345	**T**	**F/ ii**	**(speaking to S1)** *no, is it –I-?*	Reject- DQ –PAS:CR- No WTI
346	**S**	**R**	*C-H-[***((…))***]*	Unsp
347	**T**	**F/ii**	*[no,]wait a minute* **(to the student who is correcting)** *what's –E- and what's –I-?=*	DQ- PAS:CR -No WTI
348	**S**	**R**	*-I- … -E-*	1-W R: r-ic-it
349	**T**	**F**	*no, compare these letters to the French; it will be better to not apply the alphabet=*	Short WTI- PAS: CR
350	**SS**	**R**	*/ i:/ is /ə/* **(French "e")**	Cho R
351	**T**	**F/ii**	*yah, in French is it /ə/? =*	DQ-PAS:CR -No WTI- No R
			no, it is the French / i / **(letter "I")** *. [C-H-I, in this case yes] =*	No WTII- GAS: M
352	**S**	**R**	*[/aɪ/, yes]*	Rep

353	**T**	**F**	*C-H-I that's why I told her to say it loudly because I heard her, ok, talking to her friend, ok, [C-H-I-M-N-E-Y now it's the French "e"]*	Inform
354	**SS**	**R**	*[/M-N-E … /ə/]*	Cho R
355	**T**	**F**	*=-Y-,it is the French /igrek / "y" =*	Inform
356	**S**	**R**	*= /igrek /*	1-W R: r-ac-c: FR
357	**T**	**I**	*and then the –S-, do we need an –S- here?*	DQ- No WTI- No R
			no! we don't need an –S-	Inform- No R
		i	*because we are in front of ?=*	DQ- No WTI
358	**S**	**R**	*=[one chimney, yes]*	2-W R: r-ac-c
359	**T**	**F**	*[one chimney, yes] but, I have just mentioned that a plural is obtained by the addition of the-S-*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
360	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack

Extract (39): Appendix II

Student S3 makes the teacher change her mind from moving to discussing the next picture to helping her out with spelling. The teacher does not provide the answer, and prefers to let the student have a go at spelling the word 'chimney' i.e., she uses *PAS* to push the student to answer. This word has already been spelled by the teacher, but S3 seems to have been outrun by teacher's speed at spelling. As soon as the student confused the two letters of the alphabet, the teacher intervenes in turn 343 to ask the student for *clarification*. However, other students step in thinking that they possess the right answer. Discussion turns rather messy with the teacher *rejecting* three successive responses because they are vague: student S1 corrects in turn 344 and is immediately *rejected*, another student's attempt to spell in 346 is also turned down, and a third student answers vaguely, thus contributing to more vagueness in turn 348, is also rejected. The teacher makes the instruction more specific in turn 349 to overcome this confusion. This resulted in clearer attempts. What the previous exchanges lack is the imposition of order or participation orchestration that does not interrupt or interfere with others. In other words, the teacher should *nominate* individual students to *clarify,* and discourage random answers that overlap with each other. The remainder of the exchanges are led by the teacher re-spelling the word and repeating the rule.

I-6 Picture '9' (361-484)

The picture shows a crystal vase full of flowers around which the discussion unfolds in nine sub-transactions as follows: talk starts describing a vase full of flowers **(I-6.1)**; these flowers are distinguished into natural and artificial flowers **(I-6.2)**; the former are preferred

to the latter **(I-6.3)**, then the teacher discusses how to take care of flowers **(I-6.4)** before turning to discuss the vase's material **(I-6.5)** which is essentially pottery **(I-6.6)**. Pottery articles are decorated **(I-6.7)**, are put to many uses **(I-6.8)** including baking various forms of local bread **(I-6.9)**.

I-6.1 A Vase Full of Flowers (361-372)

361	**T**	**I**	*ok, if you have nothing to add about this, move to the following picture=*	Inform
362	**S1**	**R**	*=we have a vase full of flowers=*	7-W R: r-ac-c
363	**S2**	**R**	*=full of flowers…*	3-W R: r-ac-it
364	**T**	**F I**	*yes, uh huh, we have a device called vase which we use to? =* **(the teacher uses gestures)**	DQ –PAS: El- No WTI
365	**S**	**R**	*= put flowers*	2-W R: r-ac-c
366	**S**	**R**	*= inside, inside the vase=*	3-W R: r-ac-it
367	**T**	**F**	*=ok to decorate the place especially houses, ok, in houses, we have vaSES =*	Accept- No WTII- GAS: Ex
368	**S**	**R**	*= on the table=*	3-W R: r-ac-it
369	**T**	**F/ ii**	*= listen we have vaSES for, yah, the decoration of houses and a vase contains what? …*	Inform- No R DQ – PAS: El- No WTI
370	**SS**	**R**	*=flowers: flowers=*	Cho R
371	**T**	**F**	*=flowers, yes=*	No WTII-Accept- GAS:Rep
372	**S1**	**R**	*=roses*	1-W R: r-ac-c

Extract (40): Appendix II

After making sure that students have no other ideas to add to the previous picture, the teacher refers students to the next picture. Student S1 is quick in providing a thorough answer, and S2 wants to catch up with her; thus, she produces an elliptical response. The teacher, while accepting these two response, wants to push the discussion further. To do this, she uses a *PAS* to *elicit* more responses about the uses to which a vase is put. Students in 365 and 366 describe the process of putting flowers inside the vase rather than expressing the decorative function of vases. Their responses are *accepted*, *reformulated* and *extended* by the teacher. The latter digresses from the discussion to stress the correct pronunciation of the last syllable in the word vases whereas a student is talking of a suitable place where a vase can be decorative. The teacher attends in the final sequences to the words flowers that usually fill vases whereas students' responses in 368 and 372 pass unnoticed to the teacher.

I-6.2 Natural and artificial flowers (373-385)

373	**T**	**I**	*… are always.. are the flowers, sorry, always natural?...*	DQ- No WTI
374	**SS**	**R**	*no: no*	Cho R

375	**S**	**R**	*Artificial=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
376	**T**	**F**	*some people use artificial, yah, plastic flowers, or perhaps strong paper flowers =*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
377	**S**	**R**	*= yes=*	Ack
378	**T**	**F**	*= with a lot of colours, as it is the case nowadays in markets…*	Inform No R
		I	*what do we have in markets nowadays?=*	DQ- No WTI
379	**SS**	**R**	*=artificial er : artificial flowers=*	Cho R
380	**T**	**F**	*=yah, a lot of artificial flowers are sold and people are running and buying=*	Accept- No WTII- GAS: Ex
381	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
382	**S**	**R**	*=beautiful…*	1-W V: r-ac-c
383	**T**	**F**	*=because they are really beautiful, yes…but, natural flowers are [better]*	Accept- GAS: Ex
384	**SS**	**R**	*[better]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
385	**T**	**F**	*yes,=*	Accept

Extract (41): Appendix II

The teacher wants the students to make the difference between natural and artificial flowers and explain why they would choose one type over another. This theme is developed in this and the next exchange. The *display question* is matched by correct responses from students in turns 374 and 375. Another *known-information question* is *chorally answered* by students in 379. A student in floor 382 explains that people nowadays prefer artificial flowers to natural ones because they are more beautiful. However, she only uses the adjective 'beautiful'. The teachers ok's the response, does not ask for reformulation, and takes it upon herself to express what the student should have said (GAS: extension).

I-6.3 Natural Flowers are Better (385-403)

385	**T**	**I**	*=…why are they better?* **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
386	**S**	**R**	*smell=*	1-W R: r-ac-it
387	**S**	**R**	*=because sometimes they[smell]=*	4-W R: r-ac-c
388	**S**	**R**	*[beauty]…*	1-W R: r-ac-it
389	**T**	**F**	*they have a good smelling…, or a good smell; they are colorful*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex
390	**S2**	**R**	*but, natural flowers wilt er… so quickly*	6-W V: r-ac-c
391	**T**	**F/ii**	*… they?*	RQ- PAS: CR - No WTI
392	**SS**	**R**	*wilt quickly=*	Cho R
393	**T**	**F/ii**	*=uh huh, repeat what you said?...*	No WTII- RQ- No WTI- PAS: CR
394	**S2**	**R**	*natural flowers wilt quickly*	4-W R: r-ac-c
395	**S**	**R**	*welt*	1-W R: r-ic-it
396	**S2**	**R**	*WILT=*	1-W RES:R-C-C
397	**T**	**F/ii**	*=spell it!=*	No WTII- PAS: El- No WTI
398	**SS**	**R**	*=W-I-L-T : W-I-L-T*	Cho R

399	**S2**	**R**	*W-I-L-T*	1-W R: r-ac-c
400	**T**	**F/ii**	*... wilt?=*	RQ- PAS: CR – No WTI
401	**S2**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack
402	**T**	**F**	*... well, I don't know the word, I'm sorry but, I would say faint* **(3)** *I would say ...yah…* **(noise)** *yes , ok, alright, we learn from you*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex
403	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Cho R

Extract (42): Appendix II

In the previous exchange, the teacher mentioned that natural flowers are better than artificial ones. In this exchange, she looks for the reasons that led to this judgment. The *Short Wait Time* that the teacher left after the student's *one-word response* in 386 encourages another students to give a more *acceptable response*. This stands in contrast to 388 in which the teacher makes *no room for* other students to prepare full sentences. In turn 390, student S2 argues against natural flowers. Here, the term 'wilt' constitutes an addition to the teacher who asks *genuine questions* over the next turns to clarify the word and spell it. There is an instance of a student S in 395 and student S2 in 396 negotiating the pronunciation of the word which is resolved by the teacher asking students to spell out the word. Here, the teaching exchange is inverted i.e., it is a '*Pupil Inform Exchange*', according to Sinclair and Coulthard (*op. cit.*)

I-6.4 Taking Care of the Flowers (404-418)

404	**T**	**I**	*but, it is better; we can do what?… replace them*	DQ- No WTI- No R GAS: M
405	**S**	**R**	*replace, yes*	Ack
406	**T**	**I**	*= we get ,yes, new flowers [each time] =*	Inform
407	**S**	**R**	*[every day]*	1-W R: r-ac-it
408	**T**	**I**	*= and we have to, to do what? to care of the flowers, to care of the flowers[we* **((…))** *to change the water]=*	DQ- No WTI- No R Inform
409	**S2**	**R**	*[put in a building er]*	3-W R: r-ac-c
410	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack
411	**S**	**R**	*[every day]*	1-W R: r-ac-it
412	**T**	**I**	*[and to cut] , to cut what? ...*	DQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*the roots?*	DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
413	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	1-W R: r-ic-c
414	**SS**	**R**	*yes!* **(students laugh)**	Cho R
415	**T**	**F**	*... we don't cut the roots because the flowers don't have roots when we put them in a vase, we cut the STEMS=*	No WTII- GAS: M
416	**SS**	**R**	*=stems*	Cho R

417	**T**	**F**	*=the support of the flowers, we cut it from time to time to permit the flowers to... stay as long as possible=*	Inform
418	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack

Extract (43): Appendix II

The teacher turns to an informing exchange in which she guides students into the ways of taking care of flowers over three turns that are separated by students' *acknowledgment* and additions. These latter occurring in turns 407, 409 and 411 are not *followed up* by the teacher, however. The teacher asks a *display question* to *elicit* the word for 'stem', and supplies a *clue* for help, but students confuse the words 'stem' and ' root' which resulted in a climate of joke. The word is finally given by the teacher who continues her informative mode until the end of the exchange.

I-6.5 The Vase's Material (419-428)

419	**T**	**I**	*…what are the vases made of?***(2)**	DQ- Short WTI- No R
		i	*what are the [vases made of]?*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
420	**SS**	**R**	*[glass: glass]*	Cho R
421	**T**	**F**	*they can be made of glass…*	No WTII- PAS: P
422	**S1**	**R**	*[crystal]*	1-W R: r-ac-ic
423	**S**	**R**	*[yes]*	Ack
424	**T**	**F**	*=they can be made of…yah, crystal is [a valuable kind of glass, yes]*	PAS: P
425	**SS**	**R**	*[mud, mud]*	Cho R
426	**T**	**I**	*…and crystal is very expensive*	Inform
427	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack
428	**T**	**I**	*but we may have some ordinary glass,=*	Inform- No R

Extract (44): Appendix II

The materials of which vases are made are successfully *elicited* by the teacher who has recourse to *PAS* and *Short Wait Time I* in the opening turn (419). Three turns are *elicited* by *prompting* students to think of other materials when the teacher accepts, extends, but at the same time, is using a rising tone to encourage students supply more examples. The response in 455 is not addressed by the teacher immediately, and is mentioned in the next transaction as a part of a new question.

I-6.6 Pottery (428-445)

428	**T**	**I**	*it can be also made of what?* **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
429	**S**	**R**	**((…))**	Unsp
430	**T**	**F/ii**	*mud! is it mud?*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
431	**S2**	**R**	*with silver also*	3-W R: r-ac-c

432	**T**	**F**	**(2)** *pottery*	Short WTII- GAS: M
433	**S**	**R**	*yes, pottery*	Rep
434	**T**	**F/I**	*it can be a pottery ,ok, vase and pottery vases are made of what?* **(1)** *a kind of, let's say, mud=*	DQ- Short WTI No R- GAS: M
435	**S**	**R**	*= a special mud=*	2-W R: r-ac-c
436	**T**	**F**	*= special… earth=*	GAS: Ref
437	**SS**	**R**	*yes: yes*	Cho R
438	**T**	**F**	*=earth which is mixed to water and perhaps other things to get a paste which is moulded, ok, which is given a shape either by hand, manual or put into a mould to get a certain form and then…=*	GAS: Ex
439	**S1**	**R**	*put in the er…*	2-W R: r-ic-it
440	**T**	**F**	*= we put it to dry…*	GAS: M
441	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack
442	**T**	**I**	*when it is dried, what do we do?***(1)** *we bake it =*	DQ- Short WTI- No R GAS: M
443	**S1**	**R**	*= yes, yes=*	Ack
444	**T**	**I**	*= we put it in an oven and we bake it*	Inform
445	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Cho R

Extract (45): Appendix II

Over the course of 18 turns the teacher develops the process of making vases out of pottery. The exchange starts with eliciting the material of pottery, and gets the word mud instead. This word is not really accepted by the teacher who looks for a more precise term using *PAS* and *Short Wait Time*, but ends with *giving the answer* herself. The teacher explanation is intermitted by students' contributions which take the form of *acknowledgements* (437, 441 and 443) and an attempt to build a sentence (439). This latter is not supported by the teacher who forges ahead with explaining the process of making pottery.

I-6.7 Painting Pottery (446-459)

446	**T**	**I**	*then what do we do?=*	DQ- No WTI
447	**S1**	**R**	*=we paint it=*	3-W R: r-ac-c
448	**T**	**F**	*=we can, yes, paint it, [and make drawings for it] , yes=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
449	**SS**	**R**	*[by different colours and , drawings]*	Cho R
450	**S1**	**R**	*= to be more beautiful…*	4-W R: r-ic-it
451	**T**	**F/**	*for decoration, yah, to…to make it more beautiful*	GAS: M- No R
		Ii	*and also for what?***(3)**	DQ- Extended WTI- No R
			uh huh, according [to the drawings and colours=	PAS: Cl
452	**S**	**R**	*= [colour of drawing]*	3-W R: ir-ac-it

453	**T**	**F/ii**	*= we can do what?***(2)**	DQ- PAS: El- Short WTII
454	**S**	**R**	*choose the flowers*	3-W R: ir-ac-c
455	**T**	**F**	*uh huh,* *associate.. the pot, yah, or the object to Tizi Ouzo, to the Aures =*	Accept No WTII- GAS: M
456	**S1**	**R**	*= oh, yes, yes*	Ack
457	**T**	**F**	*= a part of here in Algeria, to Shahara: to the Touareg or Targui …we say this is made by the Targui, this is made by the [Kabail] =*	Inform
458	**S1**	**R**	*[Kabils]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
459	**T**	**F**	*= this is made by the Chawi, ok! and so on, alright!*	Inform- No R

Extract (46): Appendix II

The teacher asks a *display question* about the final steps of preparing a vase. Three turns are taken by the students to answer this question, and they are quickly *interrupted* by teacher *comments* and *reformulations*. To put it differently, whereas student S1 quickly answered the questions (447), other students needed more *Wait Time* to answer, and this resulted in overlap of teacher and students-talk in 448 and 449. Another step to finalize the process proves hard to find though the teacher asks the question twice (two *display question*s in turns 451 and 453) and allows *extended WTI*. The teacher *models the answer*, ultimately and elaborates more on this cultural theme.

I-6.8 Pottery Articles (459-464)

459	**T**	**I**	*yes, ok, and a lot of things are made of pottery=*	Inform
460	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
461	**T**	**I**	*=vessels, place in which we eat, ok, Pans in which we cook...well, the famous* **(draws a circular line)** *tray which is usually circular which we use for what?...*	Inform-No R DQ- No WTI
462	**S1**	**R**	*Kesra*	1-W R: r-ac-c: Arabic
463	**T**	**F**	*yes, for making our famous Algerian bread called Kesra. All of you, ok, make bread at home*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: Ex
464	**S1**	**R**	*No*	1-W R: ir-ac-c

Extract (47): Appendix II

Different devices are made of pottery, and the teacher chooses to supply examples for students rather than asking them to do so. In other words, the teacher opts for an *informing* mode except for turn 461 where she asks a *display question* of a local bread prepared at home.

I-6.9 Various Forms of Local Bread (465-484)

465	**T**	**I**	*it is special and we have different breads what?* **(1)** *yah, the one with yeast* **(2)** =	DQ- Short WTI No R GAS: M
466	**S**	**R**	*yes=*	Ack
467	**T**	**I**	*= which mutates or become thicker* **(2)**	Inform- No R
		i	*the one with what?***(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
468	**SS**	**R**	*oil : oil*	Cho R
469	**T**	**F/I**	*...with oil, yes, Rakhsisse ;*	No WTII-Accept- GAS: Ref
			the one with what?... *with water and , just water and salt, and we have a lot of breads, or a lot of kinds of…*	DQ- No WTI- No R Inform
		i	*sorry!* **(to a student speaks in a low voice)**… *we have those we… do what?*	RQ- PAS: El- Short WTI
470	**S1**	**R**	*khobz Eddar*	1-W R: r-ac-c:AR
471	**T**	**F**	*…yah?***(2)**	No WTII- RQ-PAS: CR-Short WTI
472	**S2**	**R**	*the bread of house…***(literal translation of khobz Eddar)**	2-W R: r-ac-c
473	**T**	**F**	*yes, and usually, this kind of bread is not baked at home, it must be baked in an oven, ok=*	No WTII- Accept-GAS: Ex
474	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack
475	**T**	**I**	*we have bread which, which is baked [in an oven] I mean between two fires =*	Inform
476	**S1**	**R**	*[in an oven]*	Rep
477	**S**	**R**	*= yes*	Ack
478	**T**	**I**	*= and the one we call Kesra which is, if you want, baked on?*	DQ- No WTI
479	**SS**	**R**	*[a tray] , yes*	Cho R
480	**T**	**F**	*[a tray] a kind of, yes, flat…a flat what… vessel or device, object, ok, these are, of course, a part of our culture =*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: Ex
481	**SS**	**R**	*= yes*	Cho R
482	**T**	**I**	*= when we speak about life, about things, we must, ok, give a deep part to our own culture*	Inform
483	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Cho R
484	**T**	**I**	*yes, traditions and customs, they concern us, it is our life, of course…*	Inform- No R

Extract (48): Appendix II

In a similar fashion to the previous exchange, the teacher continues in supplying examples of the different kinds of bread leaving, now and then, minimal slots for students' contributions (turns 466, 468, 470 and 472). The latter turn shows an attempt made by student S2 to anglicize the term of the local flat galette made at home. The remainder of the exchanges can be summarized by repetitive pattern of *teacher-inform* and *students-acknowledge*.

I-7 Picture '10' (484-529)

Picture '10' shows two buildings: a cinema and a restaurant shop, and uses three transaction to build a description. In transaction (**I-7.1**), the two building are distinguished, compared and located; in (**I-7.2**), more details are added to the description in respect to windows and curtains while the last transaction (**I-7.3**) deals with the names of the buildings.

I-7.1 Preliminary Description (484-507)

Students initial attempts to describe the building result in them talking of two buildings (**I-7.1.1**), comparing them (**I-7.1.2**) and distinguishing building on the right and left of the picture (**I-7.1.3**).

I-7.1.1 Two buildings (484-488)

484	**T**	**I**	*well, let's move to the following picture, number ten=*	Inform
485	**S1**	**R**	*=cinema and restaurant*	3-W R: r-ac-c
486	**T**	**F/ii**	**(3)** *uh huh, yah?=*	DQ- No WTI-Accept- PAS: CR
487	**SS**	**R**	*=we have two buildings: we have two buildings*	Cho R
488	**T**	**F**	*…two buildings, yes…*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: Rep 6-W V: r-ac-c

Extract (49): Appendix II

As soon as the teacher marked the transition toward the new picture, student S1 provides an answer that needs to be elaborated, according to the teacher *extended pause* and *clarification request*. The students are only contented by answering *chorally* to this teacher *re-initiation*, and the teacher *rephrased* and *accepted* the response in the follow-up turn.

I-7.1.2 Comparing the Two Buildings (489-503)

489	**S1**	**R**	*one is higher than the other=*	6-W V: r-ac-c
490	**T**	**F**	*=yes, it is=*	Accept- GAS: Ref
491	**S2**	**R**	*[cinema on the left]*	3-W R: r-ac-c
492	**T**	**F/ii**	*[not only is it] higher, but! …=*	PAS: Cl
493	**S1**	**R**	*= larger =*	1-W R: r-ac-c
494	**T**	**F**	*= [larger, yes]*	Accept- GAS: Rep
495	**S2**	**R**	*= [larger, yes]*	Rep
496	**T**	**I**	*not only is it [higher, but larger]*	Inform
497	**SS**	**R**	*[higher…larger]*	Cho R
498	**T**	**F**	*…what am I doing here with this form?* **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
499	**S**	**R**	*Comparison*	1-W R: r-ac-it

500	**SS**	**R**	*describing: describing…*	Cho R
501	**T**	**F**	*uh huh, and I'm emphasizing; I'm insisting on the importance of…the size of the buildings here=*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: Ex
502	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack
503	**T**	**F**	*…I said not only is it …large or high but large as well, yah!...*	Inform

Extract (50): Appendix II

Student S1 opens up this exchange by comparing between the two buildings using a *complete response* that is readily *accepted* by the teacher. Following her example, student S2 points to the location of the cinema in the next turn (491). The teacher chooses to *expand* on the previous response giving students a more formal construction to describe the two buildings that leaves one word for students to find. At first (493), only student S1 is able to complete the construction. As the meaning sank in, other students repeat with the teacher in turns 495 and 497. Next, the teacher asks student for the function of the said construction, and provides a *Short Wait Time* which led to two different responses: an *individual response* in floor 499 demonstrates that the students has understood the meaning, whereas the *choral response* in turn 500, representing most students in the classroom, is only stating the obvious. Thus, the teacher resorts to *model* the uses to which the construction is put.

I-7.1.3 Right and Left (504-507)

504	**S2**	**R**	*we have the restaurant on the left and a cine… no, on the right and cinema on the left=*	18-W V: r-ac-c
505	**T**	**F**	*= yes, to be precise here, we can, yes, situate the two buildings according to our body, according to our hands…*	Accept- GAS: Ref
506	**S**	**R**	*yes=*	Ack
507	**T**	**F**	*we have a right hand and a left hand, and we usually situate things and places according to this; so, on the left and on the right; on our left and on our right… well* **(4)**	Inform- No R

Extract (51): Appendix II

Student S2 reiterates her point about the locations of the buildings. This time round, the response is *more articulate and more complex*. The teacher is satisfied with this response and echoes it back to the rest of the class.

I-7.2 More Details about the Buildings (507-529)

Other details can be supplied by students; hence, they ask the teacher to continue with the same picture (**I-7.2.1**) in which there are windows and curtains (**I-7.2.2**) while (**I-7.2.3**) deals with role of curtains, and names of the buildings are divulged (**I-7.2.4**)

I-7.2.1 Stay with the current picture (507-510)

507	**T**	**I**	*can we move to the next picture, if you have nothing to add?…*	DQ-No WTI
508	**S**	**R**	*yes=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
509	**T**	**F**	*=we can give more details about the buildings=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
510	**S1**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack

Extract (52): Appendix II

The teacher wants to moves to another exchange but judges that more details can be supplied about the current picture on the basis of the students' replies in 508 and 510.

I-7.2.2 Windows and Curtains (511-518)

511	**T**	**I**	*...for example, as far as what?=*	RQ- No WTI
512	**S1**	**R**	*= the restaurant has two er… windows with curtains=*	6-W R: r-ac-c
513	**T**	**I**	*= yes, the restaurant looks like a house*	No WTII- Inform
514	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack
515	**T**	**F/I**	*...it has two windows with? =*	RQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
516	**SS**	**R**	*= curtains : [curtains]*	Cho R
517	**T**	**F/I**	*=[beautiful] curtains ,yah,*	Accept- No WTII- GAS: Ref- No R
			you know what curtains are?=	DQ- Short WTI
518	**SS**	**R**	*=yes: yes*	Cho R

Extract (53): Appendix II

Student S1 who preferred on staying on the current picture supplies a *complete response* to the *teacher's referential question*. The teacher seems to not have hear the response, at first. Thus, she goes back to the student S1 to *clarify*, but the response comes from the class *chorally* in the absence of *nomination* of student S1 specifically. In turn 517, the teacher wants to ask about the utility of 'curtains', but she first makes sure that all students know the word by asking for confirmation using a *'yes/no' question*.

I-7.2.3 Roles of Curtains (519-523)

519	**T**	**I**	*... yes, curtains are used to decorate and also to...to do what?***(1)**	No WTII- Inform- DQ- Short WTI
520	**S**	**R**	*to protect=*	1-W R: r-ac-it
521	**T**	**F**	*[to protect, yes,] =*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- Accept
522	**S**	**R**	*[from the sun]*	3-W R: r-ac-c

523	**T**	**F**	*= the house or place from light or from sunshine or anything else,*	GAS: Ex- No R
		ii	*even from what? ...from cold, when we have those heavy, those thick curtains, yes…=*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI- No R GAS: M 10-W V: r-ac-c

Extract (54): Appendix II

The benefits of the curtains is the centre of discussion in this exchange. A student provides an *incomplete answer* that is *interrupted* by the teacher's comment. Nevertheless, student S insists on continuing her turn in 522. This an exchange shows how constant intervention and lack of *Wait Time* are indications that the teacher wants to inform rather than make students themselves find out and negotiate the answer. To substantiate this claim, the subsequent turns show the teacher *interrupting* in floor 521, and *providing the answer* (*GAS*) to the question she asked in turn 523.

I-7.2.4 Names of the Buildings (524-529)

524	**S1**	**R**	*= and we have both of the names of the cinema and the restaurant =*	13-W V: r-ac-c
525	**T**	**F**	*…uh huh, we have also the names which are written in big, yes, the restaurant's name is [Chez Nous, yes, it is French, of course]*	GAS: Ex
526	**SS**	**R**	*[Chez Nous: Chez Nous]*	Cho R
527	**T**	**F**	*Chez Nous ,yah, means in our house… and* **(2)**	GAS: Ref- No R
		I	*what about the cinema's name?***(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
528	**SS**	**R**	*ballet=*	Cho R
529	**T**	**F**	*ballet, ballet,*	No WTII-GAS: Rep- No R

Extract (55): Appendix II

Another example is *initiated* by student S1 in accordance with her indication in turn 510 that there are more details to the picture than the ones already mentioned. Hence, she infers from the words written on the buildings that they represent 'a cinema and a restaurant'. While the teacher *appreciates* and *extends* this response, she does not stop there, and goes on to give more information about this aspect leaving only a room for a *one-word response* that only involves reading the word 'ballet'

I-8 Picture '11' (529-624)

The picture shows a man looking through a window. Within, the teacher and students describe the large window (**I-8.1**), spell the word 'curtains' (**I-8.2**), describe the position of the man (**I-8.3**), try to guess who the man is based on his looks (**I-8.4**), revisit some

words along their spelling (**I-8.5**), describe the physical appearance of the man (**I-8.6**), his clothing (**I-8.7**) before finally wrapping up description of this picture (**I-8.8**).

I-8.1 A Large Window (529-539)

529	**T**	**I**	*ok, we move to number what?*	DQ- No WTI
530	**S**	**R**	*[eleven]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
531	**T**	**F**	*[eleven]*	No WTII-GAS: Rep
532	**S**	**R**	*we have a thief, we have a thief, here=*	5-W R: r-ac-c
533	**T**	**I**	*=here again, we are in presence of a big [window] =*	Inform
534	**SS**	**R**	*[window]*	Cho R
535	**T**	**I**	*=or a large window with?***(2)**	DQ- Short WTI
536	**S**	**R**	*curtains=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
537	**T**	**F**	*=yes, [curtains],*	No WTII- accept- GAS: Rep
538	**S1**	**R**	*[and very big flowers]*	4-W R: r-ac-c
539	**T**	**F**	*= uh huh* **(1)**	Accept

Extract (56): Appendix II

The teacher is assisted by students in determining the next picture around which to build more exchanges. A student's response consisting of two repeated sentences goes unnoticed to the teacher who chooses to focus the discussion on a different aspect in turn 533. A quite similar practice can be seen in turn 539 where the teacher *accepts* the response, but does not follow it up.

I-8.2 Spelling Curtains (540-545)

540	**S**	**R**	*how do we spell curtains?*	5-W V: r-ac-c
541	**T**	**F/I**	*…curtains, how do you spell curtains? …*	DQ- PAS: El-No WTI
542	**S1**	**R**	*[C-U-R-T-A-I-N]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
543	**T**	**F**	*[C-U-R-T-A-I-N-S] a curtain and curtains; usually, we say curtains because…=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
544	**S1**	**R**	*Pair*	1-W R: r-ac-c
545	**T**	**F**	*= yah, we have a pair of curtains, yes, or the curtain has two parts; so, we say curtains…*	GAS: Ex- No R

Extract (57): Appendix II

A student in turn 540 interrupts the discussion to enquire about spelling at the outset of this exchange. The teacher forwards the question to the students' peers to check if other students have the same problem. Student S1 is sure of spelling and the teacher *repeats* her response then asks a *display question* which is dealt with in a rather parsimonious and elliptical response by student S1 again. Instead of asking this student to elaborate the response, the teacher *accepts* and *models* the sentence for her.

I-8.3 The position of the Man (545-558)

545	**T**	**I**	*well, [where's the man?]*	DQ- No WTI
546	**S1**	**R**	*[we have a thief] , outside the window*	7-W R: r-ac-c
547	**T**	**F/ ii**	**(2)** *outside or inside?=*	Short WTII- DQ- PAS: CR– No WTI
548	**SS**	**R**	*=outside: outside =*	Cho R
549	**T**	**F**	*=yes, he is outside because the window is shut =*	No WTII- GAS: Ex-
550	**SS**	**R**	*= yes=*	Cho R
551	**T**	**F/ii**	*= the window is?...*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
552	**SS**	**R**	*shut=*	Cho R
553	**T**	**I**	*the man is looking?...* **(uses gestures)**	No WTII- DQ- No WTI
554	**S**	**R**	*for something*	2-W R: r-ac-c
555	**T**	**F**	*through … [through the glass]=*	No WTII- GAS: M
556	**S**	**R**	*[through the glass]*	Rep
557	**S2**	**R**	*[he looks like]*	3-W R: r-ac-it
558	**T**	**I**	*= …of the window, the man is looking through the glass of the window,*	GAS: Ex- No R

Extract (58): Appendix II

Having addressed the student's problem, the teacher goes back to the description, asks a *display question* that is thoroughly answered by student S1. It is clear that *Wait Time* after the student's response is sufficient enough for her to continue the response in turn 546. One aspect of this response is taken by the teacher to ask *close-ended questions* that are easily answered in 548, 550 and 552 in *chorus*. Rapid succession as well overlap between teacher talk and students' responses occur from turn 554 to the end of this transaction. This makes the teacher miss on reacting to the students' responses in 554 and 558, and follow her plan with description from her exclusive vantage point.

I-8.4 Resemblance of the Man (558-567)

558	**T**	**I**	*[can you give?]=*	DQ- No WTI
559	**S2**	**R**	*[he has the appearance of a thief]*	7-W R: r-ac-c
560	**T**	**F**	*=yes=*	No WTII- Accept
561	**S1**	**R**	*= he looks like a thief=*	5-W R : r-ac-c
562	**T**	**F**	*= he seems to be a thief …*	GAS : Ref
563	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Cho R
564	**T**	**F**	*he has the appearance of a thief , he seems to be a thief =*	GAS: Ex
565	**S**	**R**	*= yes*	Ack
566	**T**	**F**	*= ok, he looks like a thief , he resembles a thief*	GAS: Ex
567	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack

Extract (59): Appendix II

The first question that marks the start of this transaction was formerly addressed by student S2. This latter claims the turn to reiterate her *response*, but in a creative manner. Earlier, she used an *incomplete response* prefaced by the expression 'he looks like'; and here, she uses a different expression 'he has the appearance of' which serves the same meaning. The response in 559 is *complete*, and is followed by a *reformulation* by student S1 in turn 561. The teacher *accepts* and *extends* these responses and gives other constructions 'he seems' and 'he resembles'. Looking back, the students were able to use various expressions, and the teacher could have used more *PAS* to *elicit* other expressions from students rather than supplying them herself.

I-8.5 Repetition and Spelling (568-598)

568	**T**	**I**	*well, and he is certainly here* **(uses gestures) (2)**	Inform
569	**S**	**R**	**((1))**	Unsp
570	**T**	**F/ii**	*sorry!* **(to the student)**, *do you want me to repeat?...*	RQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
571	**S**	**R**	*yes=*	Ack
572	**T**	**F/ii**	*=to repeat what?=*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
573	**S1**	**R**	*= seem=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
574	**T**	**F**	*=I said he seems to be a thief, to SEEM=*	No WTII- GAS: M
575	**S1**	**R**	*=yes, to look like=*	4-W R: r-ac-c
576	**T**	**I**	*S-E-E-M…it is a regular verb seem, seemed, yah, he seemed, or he seems, sorry, yah, because we are describing; he seems to be a thief.*	Inform- No R
		i	*Do you want me to spell "thief"?*	DQ- PAS: CR- No WTI- No R
			it is an irregular noun, [an irregular plural] =	GAS: M
577	**SS**	**R**	*Thief*	Cho R
578	**S**	**R**	*= T-H-I-E-F*	1-W R: r-ac-c
579	**T**	**I**	*= like leaf and wife and…ok! and shelf, and so on=*	Inform
580	**SS**	**R**	*=yes: yes=*	Cho R
581	**T**	**I**	*=it ends with an –F- so, [it changes, THIEVES]=*	Inform
582	**S2**	**R**	*[in the plural, we change it]*	6-W R: r-ac-c
583	**S1**	**R**	*= T-H-I-E-F*	1-W R: r-ac-c
584	**T**	**F**	*a thief T-H-I-=*	GAS: Rep
585	**S1**	**R**	*= -E-F*	1-W R: r-ac-c
586	**T**	**F**	*= -E-F; thieves the same, but the -F- changes into –V-E-S-*	GAS: Ref

587	**S1**	**R**	*–V-E-S-*	Rep
588	**T**	**F**	*yah, thieves. so, the man seems to be a thief,*	Accept- Inform- No R
		I	*he appears to be?*	DQ- No WTI
589	**SS**	**R**	*= [a thief]*	Cho R
590	**T**	**F/I**	*= [a thief] yah, he looks, we said, like?… =*	No WTII- GAS: Ex- Accept- DQ- No WTI
591	**S**	**R**	*[a thief]*	Rep
592	**T**	**F**	*= [a thief] , he RESEMBLES, he looks like or he [resembles]=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
593	**SS**	**R**	*[resembles]*	Rep
594	**T**	**F/I**	*= yes, to resemble how do you write it?=*	DQ- PAS: Ex- No WTI
595	**SS**	**R**	*=R-E-S-[* **(students spell with the teacher but unintelligibly)** *]=*	Cho R
596	**T**	**F**	*[uh huh, R-E-S-E-M-B-L-E- it is] also a… a regular verb; resemble, resembled…*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
597	**S**	**R**	*R-E-S-E-M-? =*	1-W V: r-ac-c
598	**T**	**F**	*=R-E-S-E-M-, sorry, R-E-S-E-M-B-L-E-, as it is pronounced, ok* **(3)**	Inform- No R

Extract (60): Appendix II

As big as this transaction is, spanning 31 turns in total, it is a rapid exchange that evolved at a fast rate. It begins with the teacher reacting to a student asking for repetition. This student seems shy as she utters quiet words that were only discernible to S1 in turn 573. Instead of enquiring more about the area that poses difficulty for the previous student, the teacher endorses a vague question that asks for repetition, and reacts to it. Many aspects can be given about the words that have been reviewed earlier including the word 'seem': its pronunciation (574), its spelling (576), the expression in which it was used (588, 590 and 592) as well as the spelling, pronunciation of other words 'resemble' (596 and 598) 'thief' (from turn 577 up to turn 592) which include also plural formation of this latter word. In the case of spelling the word ' resemble' the teacher interrupts students' turn (596) to continue the spelling herself, and respond to a student's struggle in (597). Most of the discussion here occurs in an informing mode interspersed by *display questions* that revise the words that have already been discussed earlier in the lesson.

I-8.6 Physical Appearance of the Man (598-615)

598	**T**	**I**	*well, can you give some description of the man?=*	DQ- No WTI
599	**S1**	**R**	*=he has a hat*	4-W R: r-ac-c
600	**T**	**F**	**(uses gestures to shape a hat)** *he has a kind of hat over his head=*	No WTII- GAS: Ref
601	**S1**	**R**	*=has a moustache*	3-W V: r-ac-c

602	**T**	**I**	*...uh huh, well, he has a very big... large?* **(1) (point to her nose)**	DQ- Short WTI
603	**SS**	**R**	*[nose, yes]*	Cho R
604	**T**	**F** **I**	*[nose, yes],* *his eyes are?=*	No WTII- GAS: Rep- No R DQ- No WTI
605	**S1**	**R**	*=horrible er..eyes* **(laughs)**	2-W R: r-ac-c
606	**T**	**F** **ii**	*uh huh, yes…* *he has a fearful?...***(points to her eyes)***,ok…*	Accept- Short WTII- DQ- No WTI
607	**S1**	**R**	*he tries to, to er =*	4-W R: r-ac-it
608	**T**	**F/ii**	*what?... sorry!...*	No WTII- RQ-No WTI - PAS:CR
609	**S5**	**R**	*fearful look*	2-W R: r-ac-it
610	**T**	**F/ii**	*... fearful, yes?...*	No WTII- RQ- PAS:CR- Short WTI
611	**S5**	**R**	*look =*	Rep
612	**T**	**F**	*=look; very good, yes*	No WTII-Accept- GAS: Rep
613	**S1**	**R**	*=ugly, he is ugly=*	4-W V: r-ac-c
614	**T**	**I**	*=he has a moustache*	Inform
615	**SS**	**R**	*=yes*	Cho R

Extract (61): Appendix II

The teacher marks the start of this transaction using the word 'well' which serves for making boundaries according to Sinclair and Coulthard's model (*op. cit.*). The specific *display question* is answered appropriately by student S1 in turn 599 and reformulated by the teacher in the next turn. The teacher guides the discussion in the same manner, pointing to different areas of her face i.e., the nose and the eyes. S1 responses in turns 601, 605 and 613 are not followed up by the teacher immediately because she looks for other students to respond. She, therefore, turns to student S5 to ask him for clarification in turns 608 and 610. The teacher closes this exchange by repeating S1's description in turn 614.

I-8.7 The Man's Clothing (616-621)

616	**T**	**I**	*...well er as far as his clothes are concerned, we don't see clearly what kind of clothes, but he seems to wear ...yah?...*	DQ- No WTI
617	**S1**	**R**	*dark clothes=*	2-W R: r-ac-it
618	**T**	**F**	*=dark and ... perhaps woolen, or...I don't know* **(3)** *perhaps a jumper, a very big what?* **(1) (uses gestures)**	No WTII- GAS: Ex- DQ- Short WTI
619	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	1-W R: ir-ac-ic
620	**T**	**I**	*kind of pullover, large and long and…woolen; it seems to be woolen because thick and er it corresponds to the thing he has over his head, a hat=*	No WTII- Inform
621	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack

Extract (62): Appendix II

The teacher asks a *display question* about the clothes worn by the man, but stirs doubt rather than letting students freely describe things that she may not have seen. Later, upon close observation of the picture, the teacher discerns some items, and describes them from her point of view. Because of this, the students find it hard to comply with what the teacher sees, and only student S1 provides part of the answer i.e., an elliptical response in turn 617.

I-8.8 Recap of Description (622-624)

622	**T**	**I**	*=yes, so there is a man where?***(2)**	DQ- Short WTI
623	**S**	**R**	*outside the window =*	2-W R: r-ac-c
624	**T**	**F**	*= outside the window, yes* **(1)**	No WTII- GAS: Rep- Accept- No R

Extract (63): Appendix II

The summary of the description is initiated by the teacher supplying part of the answer in her *display question*; the other part is provided by a student in turn 623. The teacher is satisfied with discussion on this picture, and prepares to progress to the next one.

I-9 Picture '12' (624-673)

The picture shows a park which is described in (**I-9.1**), and the teacher draws a distinction between chairs and seats (**I-9.2**), while in (**I-9.3**) the word 'couple' is reinforced and the (**I-9.4**) the physical appearance of the couple is discussed. (**I-9.5**) is the last transaction that is used by the teacher to introduce Scottish kilts.

I-9.1: A Park! (624-633)

624	**T**	**I**	*we can move to the following=*	Inform
625	**S**	**R**	*= last one=*	2-W R: r-ac-c
626	**T**	**I**	*= number twelve=*	Inform
627	**SS**	**R**	*=yes: yes*	Cho R
628	**T**	**I**	*yes, where are we?***(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
629	**S1**	**R**	*in a park…*	2-W R: r-ac-c
630	**T**	**F/ii**	*in a ?...*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
631	**S1**	**R**	*park…*	1-W R: r-ac-c
632	**T**	**F**	*=PARK=*	Short WTII- GAS: Rep
633	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack

Extract (64): Appendix II

The last picture in the handout is indicated by students. Student S1 describes the picture in a predicative statement to that of the teacher, then clarifies her response to the teacher who *accepts* this response in 634 which starts the next exchange.

I-9.2 Chairs or Seats! (634-646)

634	**T**	**I**	*yes, how do you know that it's a park?...*	DQ- No WTI
635	**S1**	**R**	*trees and er…chairs*	3-W R: r-ac-c
636	**S**	**R**	*Yes*	Ack
637	**T**	**F/ii**	**(1)** *yes, what is it there, a chair ?...*	Short WTII -DQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
638	**SS**	**R**	*[yes]*	Cho R
639	**S2**	**R**	*[it's very organized]*	4-W R: r-ac-c
640	**T**	**F**	*…it's not a chair, [you are sitting on the chairs]=*	Reject- No WTII- PAS: P
641	**S1**	**R**	*[a public chair, a public chair]*	3-W R: r-ic-c
642	**T**	**F/ii**	*= but this is what ? …* *a SEAT, simply; it is better to say a seat=*	DQ- No WTI- PAS: El- No R GAS: M
643	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
644	**T**	**F**	*=it is something on which people sit especially in public places=*	Inform
645	**SS**	**R**	*= yes=*	Cho R
646	**T**	**F**	*= gardens and, ok, public gardens or…public place… here it is a park…=*	Inform 1-W V: r-ac-c

Extract (65): Appendix II

While the student S1 has the term 'chair', the teacher looks for the term 'seat'. This resulted in the teacher *rejecting* the answer in some way in turn 637, 640 and 642 before giving the answer since the students don't have a better term. It can be seen that student S2 is interested in appreciating the scene depicted by the picture in turn 639, but her response does not go in line with the teacher agenda and pass unnoticed.

I-9.3 A Couple (647-652)

647	**S**	**R**	*= couple, couple…*	1-W V: r-ac-c
648	**T**	**F/ii**	*= you see a?...*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: El- No WTI
649	**SS**	**R**	*couple=*	Cho R
650	**T**	**F**	*=a couple, yes, and we usually say a couple whenever we mean two, but we usually say a couple also and it is very correct to use the word couple when talking about a man [and a woman]*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
651	**SS**	**R**	*[and a woman] , yes=*	Cho R
652	**T**	**F**	*=ok… we mean also that they are married; most of the time, when we see a couple we mean that we are in presence of a man and woman who are married, but it also means two; we can speak about a couple of books, or a couple of dogs, or anything… ok…in pair, two, ok, it means two. here, it's clear that it's a man and a woman…*	Inform No R

Extract (66): Appendix II

As soon as a student *volunteered* a description consisting of one word, the teacher provides feedback in the form *extension*, then moves to inform students more about the word in the next turn. The exchange is characterised by a lengthy teacher monologue that is minimally contributed to by students in turn 651.

I-9.4 Physical Appearance (652-665)

652	**T**	**I**	*how do you know that it's a man and a woman?…*	DQ- No WTI
653	**SS**	**R**	*she er… : wears dress: … : clothes*	Cho R
654	**T**	**F**	*… yah, their physical appearance or their clothes*	Short WTII- GAS: Ref
655	**S2**	**R**	*she has an English hair, long hair*	7-W R: r-ac-c
656	**T**	**F**	*… uh huh, yah, the woman has [long hair] =*	Accept- GAS: Ref
657	**S1**	**R**	*[not long]*	2-W R: r-ac-it
658	**T**	**I**	*= and she wears what?* **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
659	**SS**	**R**	*dress: dress***(1)**	Cho R
660	**T**	**F**	*=yah, it seems to be a dress or perhaps a coat, yah=*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex
661	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	Ack
662	**T**	**F**	*=it reaches her knees, and usually women put on dresses and such coats, but men always wear trousers=*	Inform
663	**SS**	**R**	*=yes=*	Cho R
664	**T**	**F**	*=well, this doesn't mean that women don't put on trousers, women nowadays, ok, put also trousers*	Inform
665	**S2**	**R**	*yes, always*	Ack

Extract (67): Appendix II

Students are asked to explain the physical appearances that distinguish the man and the woman in the picture. The responses come *chorally* (turns 653 and 659), and the teacher summarizes the different responses in her words. It should be pointed out that responses could have been richer if individual students were nominated. The next distinct individual response of student S2 (655) is illustrative of the claim that students can describe in an accurate and creative way. The remainder of talk is done by only one actor i.e., the teacher until the end of the exchange.

I-9.5 Scottish Kilts (666-673)

666	**T**	**I**	*…do you know that there are men in England =*	Inform

667	**SS**	**R**	*= yes, Scotland*	Cho R
668	**T**	**I**	*= who wear …*	Inform
669	**SS**	**R**	*= skirts*	Cho R
670	**T**	**F/ii**	*= a kind of skirt we call?*	DQ- No WTI- PAS: El- No R
			how is it called, this kind of… skirt? …	DQ- Short WTI -PAS: El- No R
			a KILT=	GAS: M
671	**S**	**R**	*=kilt=*	Rep
672	**T**	**F**	*=kilt yes, K-I-L-T. in Scotland, the Scots use to, in the past; now, of course, you don't see Scots wearing kilts, but they do on special occasions, yah, in festivals, [feasts and so on… they wear kilts].*	Inform
673	**SS**	**R**	*[yes: yes]*	Cho R

Extract (68): Appendix II

An aspect of culture is evoked by the teacher who asks a *display question* about 'kilts', but students don't have more than the word 'skirt' to describe this item of clothing. It is also evident from the two *PAS* that they confronted a gap in students' knowledge.

This transaction marks the end of the interaction based on the handouts; in the next, transaction, the teacher is going to change the source of interaction, and make it grounded in describing classroom objects.

II Discussion about Classroom Objects (674-791)

The transition to interact about classroom object starts by differentiating between the inside and the outside of the classroom (**II-1**) then moves to talk about the ceiling (**II-2**), the lamps (**II-3**), describe oval windows (**II-4**) and classroom walls (**II-5**). Moreover, the TV set is described (**II-6**) as well as the white board (**II-7**) . Finally, a distinction is made between instructions and orders (**II-8**)

II-1: Inside and Outside the Classroom (674-683)

674	**T**	**I** **i**	*… uh huh, well, I think …it's enough for this* **(2)** *these pictures. ... do you have any comment?...*	RQ- No WTI- No R
			can you speak about anything? **(2)**	RQ- PAS: El- Short WTI- No R
			I would like you **(2)** *to imagine … a situation, for example, at home, in the street, in your district, perhaps in the market, or… near your car or inside your parents' car, or something like that…and speak. Let's give an example; we are here….*	Inform- No R

			where are we?... **(teacher points to the inside of the class)**	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
675	**S**	**R**	*in the class=*	3-W R: r-ac-c
676	**SS**	**R**	*= inside the classroom*	Cho R
677	**T**	**F/I**	*...* **(points to the outside of the classroom)** *[the students ...] =*	No WTII- PAS: Cl
678	**SS**	**R**	*[outside, outside]*	Cho R
679	**T**	**I**	*= are?=*	DQ- No WTI
680	**SS**	**R**	*=outside=*	Cho R
681	**T**	**F/I**	*= the students who are outside the classroom are making?=*	No WTII- DQ-PAS: Cl-No WTI
682	**SS**	**R**	*=[noise]*	Cho R
683	**T**	**F**	*[noise], they are disturbing us, ok, they speak loudly and they move continuously ...*	No WTII- GAS: Ex No R

Extract (69): Appendix II

The teacher indicates that the transaction about pictures comes to an end, and asks students to supply their comments, if any. The teacher does not dwell long on this question before posing another loosely-phrased question that asks students to speak their minds on anything of interest to them. The abrupt change of discussion from tightly-guided question-and-answer centred on describing pictures to completely free discussion seems to have lost the students. Therefore, the teacher goes back to imposing some structuring on the discussion by confining the discussion to classroom objects. The teacher uses questions coupled with gestures to *elicit* the prepositions 'inside' and 'outside', and students find it comforting to reply in *chorus* in most exchanges (turns 676, 678, 680 and 680). Similarly, the teacher phrased the last question in turn 680 in such a way that only one word is elicited from all students speaking together. Opportunities of for *risk-taking*, therefore, are restricted by this type of questioning that does not allow more than *single-word responses* rather than giving free rein for expression.

II-2 The Ceiling (683-703)

683	**T**	**I**	*well, look at* **(points out to the ceiling)***...how do we call this?=*	DQ- No WTI
684	**S**	**R**	*=the lights=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
685	**T**	**F/ii**	*=the upper part?***(1)**	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El-Short WTI
686	**S**	**R**	*the roof, the roof=*	1-W R: r-ic-c
687	**T**	**F**	*=it's not the roof; we said it last time, the roof is ... [outside the house]=*	No WTII- Reject- PAS: Cl
688	**S2**	**R**	*[the cover of the]*	1-W R: r-ac-it
689	**T**	**F**	*= it covers , yah, the house or the building from the outside, we call this the roof, and we said that*	GAS: Ex - No R

		I	*it is usually what?...*	DQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*the roof consists usually of these…small pieces=*	PAS: Cl
690	**S**	**R**	*= small pieces =*	2-W R: r-ac-it
691	**T**	**F/ii**	*= yah, which are =*	Accept- PAS: Cl
692	**S**	**R**	*=pottery=*	1-W R: ir-ac-it
693	**T**	**F**	*= yes, which are made of a kind of, if you want, pottery …they are made of earth and water mixed together and baked in an oven, and…we use them =*	Accept- GAS: Ex
694	**S1**	**R**	*= special shape, special colour =*	4-W R: ir-ac-it
695	**T**	**F/ii**	*= yes, and we use them to make the roof of the houses or buildings in general; what else…* **(points to the ceiling)** *This is inside the house…*	Accept- PAS: Cl
696	**S**	**R**	*= above our head =*	3-W R: r-ac-c
697	**T**	**F/ii**	*= what is uh huh, above… over … our heads, what's, what's that?***(3)**	DQ- PAS: Cl- Extended WTI
698	**S**	**R**	*Lamps…*	1-W R: r-ic-c
699	**T**	**I**	*…yah , the … it begins with –C- and ends with –G-, -I-N-G-, if you want* **(4)**	Short WTI- PAS: Cl
700	**S**	**R**	*the covering=*	1-W R: r-ic-c
701	**T**	**F/ii**	*no, C-E-I-L-I-N-G …*	Reject- PAS: Cl
702	**S**	**R**	*ceiling…* **(pronounced / saılıŋ/)**	1-W R: r-ic-c
703	**T**	**F**	*the CEILING, yes; over our heads is the ceiling,*	Reject-GAS: M- No R

Extract (70): Appendix II

The teacher starts this transaction to *elicit* the word 'ceiling'. The interaction goes sideways in the next turns as the students interpret the gestures of the teacher to refer to 'the lights' in turn 684 and 'lamps' in 694. As the teacher attempts to *give clues*, student S attempts a hunch by choosing the word 'roof' (in turn 686) which is *accepted* by the teacher. The teacher builds on this response and deviates more with the discussion to review what was said earlier in the lesson. However, instead of coming up with the word 'concrete', a student confounds it with the word 'pottery' which was introduced before. Aware of this digression and the irrelevant responses it might lead to, the teacher prefers to *give clues* again in 695, 697 and 698. *Extended Wait Time* allows for a student to put the word 'covering' to the test, but the teacher directly *rejects* it and spells the correct word without pronouncing it. Immediately afterwards, a student manages to win the race to assemble the individual letters into the targeted word, but mispronounces it ultimately. The teacher follows up with the *correct spelling*. In this last instance, more *Wait Time II* could have led other students to attempt pronouncing the word. All in all, aside from discussion

about the materials that the roof is made of, other exchanges show students actively guessing with the help of teacher *clues* to find the referent for the 'ceiling'

II-3 The Lamps (703-707)

703	**T**	**I**	*ok, at the ceiling…what do we have?...*	DQ- No WTI
704	**S**	**R**	*lamps=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
705	**T**	**F**	*=many lamps, yah, many lamps are at the ceiling;*	No WTII- GAS: Ex- No R
		I	*they provide us with?=*	DQ- No WTI
706	**S**	**R**	*= light =*	1-W R: r-ac-c
707	**T**	**F**	*= light, ok…*	No WTII- GAS: Rep-Accept-No R

Extract (71): Appendix II

Two simple words (i.e., lamps and light) that were already mentioned by students in the previous exchange are re-elicited in this exchange rapidly by the teacher. The teacher wants to make sure that the rest of the class know the words, but also to appreciate earlier contributions. Therefore, no more than *repetition* is achieved by this exchange by students.

II-4 Oval Windows (707-715)

707	**T**	**I**	*look at the back of the classroom …* **(points to the windows)**	Inform
708	**S**	**R**	*Windows*	1-W R: r-ac-c
709	**SS**	**R**	*small windows…*	Cho R
710	**T**	**F**	*we have small [windows]=*	GAS: Ex
711	**S2**	**R**	*[oval]*	1-W V: r-ac-it
712	**T**	**F/ii**	*= what's [the shape?]*	DQ- No WTI-PAS: CR
713	**SS**	**R**	*[oval : oval, closed windows]*	Cho R
714	**T**	**F**	*they are egg-shaped; they have the form of an egg, or oval*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
715	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Cho R

Extract (72): Appendix II

The short journey is still guided by the teacher, and she takes students to inspect the windows. The students find it easy to retrieve the response small windows, but student S2 goes further to describe their shape (turn 711). The adjective 'oval' is then repeated *chorally* by other students upon teacher's *prompting.*

II-5 Classroom Walls (716-752)

Transaction II-5 revolves discussion around classroom walls. First, the concrete, cement and other materials are discussed in (**II-5.1**), evokes the adjective 'concrete' as well as its opposite 'abstract' (**II-5.2**). Then, components of concrete are enumerated (**II-5.3**) before the teacher describe the formica walls (**II-5.4**).

II-5.1 Concrete not Cement (716-726)

716	**T**	**I**	*…our classroom has four walls, are all the walls similar?...*	DQ- No WTI
717	**SS**	**R**	*no=*	Cho R
718	**T**	**F/I**	*=uh huh, are all the walls made of the same material?=*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
719	**SS**	**R**	*=no=*	Cho R
720	**T**	**F/ ii**	*=no… yah,*	No WTII- Accept- No R
			the back wall and the front wall are made of ?=	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
721	**S**	**R**	*= cement =*	1-W R: r-ic-c
722	**T**	**F**	*= cement! is it cement?* **(2)**	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- Short WTI
723	**SS**	**R**	*no=*	Cho R
724	**T**	**F**	*=the material … the two walls are made of, I mean the back and the front walls, is what we call in English concrete…*	No WTII- GAS: M
725	**S**	**R**	*yes=*	Ack
726	**T**	**F**	*=concrete C-O-N-C-R-E-T-E, C-O-N-, yah , C-R-E-T-E- ,*	Inform- No R

Extract (73): Appendix II

The teacher goes back to the material that is used in constructing the walls of the classroom. It is worthwhile to point out that this transaction comes as a reaction to transaction **II-2** where students used pottery to describe the material. Here, students use the word 'cement' (turn 721), and have no alternative even in the presence of teacher-*prompting strategies* and *Short Wait Time*. Therefore, the teacher supplies the word along with its spelling. Other questions are reduced to a *yes-no form* and elicited no more than what the form suggests (turns 717, 719 and 723).

II-5.2 Concrete and Abstract (726-738)

726	**T**	**I**	*of course, ,it is written exactly like the word concrete which is the opposite of ?...*	DQ- No WTI
727	**S**	**R**	*[abstract]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
728	**T**	**F**	*[abstract] what is concrete is what you can see, what you touch, what you hold…*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
729	**SS**	**R**	*yes: yes*	Cho R
730	**T**	**F/I**	*…ok, and what is abstract, is […. usually… what?] …* **(points to her head)**	DQ-PAS: El- No WTI
731	**S2**	**R**	*[inside er… the mind]=*	2-W R: r-ac-c
732	**T**	**F**	*= yes, happens in our minds=*	No WTII- GAS: Ref
733	**S2**	**R**	*=liberty, for example, honour, liberty and honour=*	7-W V: r-ac-c
734	**T**	**F**	*=uh huh, yes, there are words that are called abstract=*	Accept- GAS: Ref

735	**S1**	**R**	*= feelings=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
736	**T**	**F**	*= yes, because we feel them; we think of them*	Accept- GAS: Ex
737	**S2**	**R**	*= we can't touch=*	3-W R: r-ac-c
738	**T**	**F**	*= we cannot touch them or keep them in, ok, a cupboard or in a drawer or in a bag. ok, these are abstract words, if you want, or notions produced by such words. concrete is a material, it is very hard, very solid and we use it in building, yes;*	GA: Ex- No R

Extract (75): Appendix II

By the way of mentioning the word 'concrete' as a noun, the teacher refers students to its use as an adjective and its opposite. Student S provides the opposite, then the teacher starts explaining the difference between concrete and abstract before she judges that it is better that the students do this by themselves. When the teacher lets go, student S1 (turn 735), but mainly student S2 (in three turns 731, 733 and 737) step in to explain and give examples. Their contributions are accompanied by the teacher's *extension* and instruction throughout.

II-5.3 Components of Concrete (738-750)

738	**T**	**I**	*what is it made of, concrete?* **(2)**	DQ- Short WTI- No R
		i	*what does it consist of?* **(2)**	DQ- PAS: El - Short WTI
739	**S**	**R**	*Cement*	1-W R: r-ac-c
740	**T**	**F**	*...uh huh , cement, yah C-E-M-E-N-T , like the French ciment with –I-, the difference between the two words is, ok, the second letter. In French we say ciment and in English we say cement,*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: Ex- No R
		I	*but it's not cement only, the wall consists of?=*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
741	**S1**	**R**	*=iron, iron=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
742	**T**	**I**	*=cement…*	No WTII- Inform
743	**S2**	**R**	*wood=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
744	**T**	**F**	*=gravels; big er pieces of stone, or small pieces of stone; what we call gravels… =*	Inform
745	**SS**	**R**	*= and wood =*	Cho R
746	**T**	**F**	*= iron, pieces of iron, bars of [iron and water]*	GAS: Ex
747	**SS**	**R**	*[wood]*	Cho R
748	**T**	**F**	*well, wood is removed, we just use it to support, as a support and when we finish we remove it=*	GAS: M
749	**S**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack
750	**T**	**F**	*... ok, so, concrete is cement, gravel and iron and water all mixed together to give a solid material we use for building;*	Inform- No R

Extract (76): Appendix II

The teacher's first *display question* yield *no response*. Thus, the teacher *re-initiates* the questions, provides *Short Wait Time* and gets a response that constitutes a segment of the answer. After the teacher finished following-up this response 'cement', students S1 and S2 provide other components (turns 741 and 743) that are left unattended until later turns because the teacher is suggesting other components herself. The teacher, in this exchange, chooses to *inform* rather than *wait* for students to remember the words used for description. This may have been for good reasons, given that the best that students came up with after three questions is the words 'cement', 'iron' and 'wood'. However, the teacher could have handed over the explanation of the process of making concrete, though a technical one, to students in a bid to provide room for practice. Practice is used here to denote the part of the lesson in which the teacher gives situations that calls for the application of the information that was introduced in the presentation phase of the lesson. In other words, describing such a process can be likened to that of making pottery or as a rehearsal of describing a process (transaction **I-6.6** above).

II-5.4 Formica Walls (750-752)

750	**T**	**I**	*well,…what about these two walls?=*	DQ- No WTI
751	**S**	**R**	*=plastic walls, plastic walls*	2-W R: r-ac-c
752	**T**	**F/ii**	*… yah, the two walls on your right and on your left… ?*	No WTII- Accept- DQ- PAS: El - No WTI- No R
			the walls on your right and on your left, what are they made of? …	DQ- PAS: El - No WTI- No R
			a kind of plastic material, yes, it looks like plastic; I think it is called formica, but I'm not sure… it is a kind of plastic , ok, material…	GAS: M- No R

Extract (77): Appendix II

The teacher supplies students with a new word 'formica' to describe the walls. Throughout three *display questions* students could not provide more than the word 'plastic'. In fact, formica is a type of plastic, a solid one; it is therefore correct to describe walls using the word plastic without being wrong about it. Thus, this transaction qualifies for another *teacher-inform* exchange

II-6 TV Set (752-764)

752	**T**	**I**	*what else…what can you say about your classroom?...*	RQ- Short WTI
753	**S2**	**R**	*I see a TV*	3-W R: r-ac-c
754	**T**	**F**	*what! there's a TV, yah …*	No WTII- Accept- GAS: Ref

755	**S1**	**R**	*speaker er…*	1-W R: r-ac-c
756	**T**	**F/ii**	*uh huh , there are… yes?*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: CR - No WTI
757	**SS**	**R**	*VCD : VCD*	Cho R
758	**T**	**F/ii**	*… are they speakers?* **(1)**	No WTII- DQ- PAS: CR- Short WTI
759	**SS**	**R**	*no, er*	Cho R
760	**T**	**F/ii**	*… how do we call them?* **(3)**	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- Extended WTI- No R
			loudspeakers=	GAS: M
761	**SS**	**R**	*=yes, loudspeakers=*	Cho R
762	**T**	**I**	*=they …provide you with? …*	DQ- No WTI
763	**S1**	**R**	*to hear er =*	1-W R: r-ic-it
764	**T**	**F**	*=the sound of the TV so that all of you can hear, yes…*	No WTII- GAS: M 4-W V: r-ac-c

Extract (78): Appendix II

The teacher directs students' attention to other classroom objects and gets an immediate response from student S2 in turn 753, and a response that falls short of providing the exact description in 755. The teacher gives students opportunities to come up with an answer in 756 and 758 through asking them *clarification requests* and in 760 by allowing them *Extended Wait Time*, then decides to *give the answer*. Next, the response that student S1 provides in turn 762 is *incomplete* due to the fact that it is completed by the teacher instead of asking S2 to elaborate more.

II-7 White Board (765-776)

765	**S1**	**R**	*we have a white board*	5-W R: r-ac-c
766	**T**	**F/**	*… uh huh, we have a white board;*	GAS: Rep- No R
		ii	*can you write on this white board?=*	DQ- PAS: El -No WTI
767	**SS**	**R**	*=yes=*	Cho R
768	**T**	**F/ii**	*=with chalk?=*	No WTII-DQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
769	**SS**	**R**	*=no : no=*	Cho R
770	**T**	**F/ii**	*=do you use chalk to write on this white board?=*	No WTII-DQ- PAS: El -No WTI
771	**SS**	**R**	*=no=*	Cho R
772	**T**	**F**	*=you [must use] =*	No WTII- PAS: Cl
773	**S1**	**R**	*[marker]*	1-W R: r-ac-c
774	**T**	**F**	*= a special marker=*	GAS: Ref
775	**SS**	**R**	*=yes=*	Cho R
776	**T**	**F**	*=we call it a board, a white-board marker, yes, a marker used for the board …*	Inform 7-W V: r-ac-it

Extract (79): Appendix II

Continuing with the description of classroom objects, student S1 points to the white board, but the teacher does not continue with her in order to ask her to describe more. On

the contrary, the teacher turns to asking the whole class *yes-no questions* that aim to find the word 'marker' which is provided ultimately by the same student S1. The teacher's summary of this exchange is what she should have asked students to do in the first place, had she had in mind to open more opportunities for practice.

II-8 Instructions or Orders! (777-791)

777	**S1**	**R**	*we have instruction on the on the er…*	7-W V: r-ac-it
778	**T**	**F/ii**	*uh huh, are these instructions?* **(2)**	DQ- PAS: CR- Short WTI
779	**S**	**R**	*orders=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
780	**S**	**R**	*=er…. er….*	Hes
781	**S2**	**R**	*advice=*	1-W R: r-ic-c
782	**S1**	**R**	*=not advice*	2-W R: r-ac-c
783	**T**	**F**	**(1)** *well, she's right. why have you changed you mind! yes, these are instructions to show to the students what is good to do in such a place =*	Short WTII-GAS: Ex
784	**SS**	**R**	*=yes=*	Cho R
785	**T**	**F**	*= when we show to people what is good to do and what is bad not to do, we give instructions=*	Inform
786	**SS**	**R**	*= yes=*	Cho R
787	**S**	**R**	*=instruction or order=*	3-W R: r-ac-c
788	**T**	**F**	*=instruct, yah, and instructions, yes, are orders; they are in the...*	GAS: Ex- No R
		I	*which tense is this?...*	DQ- No WTI
789	**SS**	**R**	*= imperative: imperative =*	Cho R
790	**T**	**F**	*= in the imperative; ok, you have negative instructions and positive ones or affirmative ones…*	No WTII- GAS: Ex - No R
		I	*can you talk to each other and er… give some instructions?...*	DQ- No WTI- No R
			when we talk about instructions, we may call them also advice …ok, and you can advise when you instruct…	Inform- No R
		i	*your mother, for example does what?*	DQ- No WTI- No R
			instructs you =	GAS: M
791	**S**	**R**	*= yes*	Ack

Extract (80): Appendix II

Student S1 provides an incomplete sentence to describe a note on the board. The teacher neither completes this *response* nor does she give a chance to the student to provide a more appropriate response. Instead, the teacher checks if the students know the difference between orders and instructions, but the talk is dominated by the teacher's explanation until

turn 790 where the teacher prepares to step up the discussion towards more unstructured discussion, setting the stage for the next phase of the lesson.

III Free Discussion (792-931)

Most of the topics of this final stage of the lesson are determined by the students, while the teacher retains her central place in structuring and informing students. Students start talking about frustrating exam of Methodology in which they felt hard done by (III-1), then move to talk about campus life (III-2), later they describe their rooms at the campus and back home (III-3) and finally land on a humorous chat about marrying that marks the end of the lesson (III-4)

III-1 The Frustrating Exam (792-836)

Students talk about yesterday's exam in the module of Methodology (**III-1.1**), explain that they felt flustered (**III-1.2**) partly because of time constraints (**III-1.3**) and partly due to the unfair treatment they received from the teacher (**III-1.4**).

III-1.1 Yesterday's Exam (792-797)

792	**T**	**I**	*= yah, she advises you to do or not to do some things. so, can you do so?* **(2)**	DQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*I have asked you before, I said choose a situation and talk about it… tell your friend, for example, about a situation you were confronted to yesterday at home, or in the street, or in the class…*	PAS: Cl No R
			have you had a test yesterday? **(1)**	RQ- PAS: El- Short WTI
793	**SS**	**R**	*yes : yes=*	Cho R
794	**T**	**F/ii**	*=or, did you have a test yesterday?*	No WTII- DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
795	**SS**	**R**	*=yes*	Cho R
796	**T**	**F/I**	*…uh huh, what was it, which test?…*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: El- No WTI
797	**SS**	**R**	*Methodology*	Cho R

Extract (81): Appendix II

Movement to a freer mode of discussion is still dominated by the teacher informing students about the situations that they can describe. No student volunteers; thus, the teacher evokes a subject that stirred much discussion among students before the lesson. However, the questions phrased in a *close format*, result in *choral responses* from students (turns 793, 795 and 797).

III-1.2 Feelings about the Exam (798-802)

798	**T**	**I**	*…how did you feel?* **(1)**	No WTI- RQ- Short WTI
799	**S**	**R**	*flustered=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
800	**T**	**I**	*=have you worked or did you work?* **...**	No WTI- RQ- PAS: El- No WTI
801	**SS**	**R**	*yes: no=*	Cho R
802	**S1**	**R**	*=normally, yes=*	2-W R: r-ac-c

Extract (82): Appendix II

The teacher does not dwell for a long time with the *referential question* in turn 798 before asking another is turn 800. The student's *elliptical response* in floor 799 goes unnoticed and 'feelings' are not yet tapped in this transaction.

III-1.3 Time Constraint (803-810)

803	**S2**	**R**	*=but the time doesn't enough*	5-W V: r-ic-c
804	**T**	**F/ii**	*…well, listen to her she said the time doesn't enough …*	Short WTII- PAS: P
805	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Cho R
806	**T**	**F/ ii**	*…correct!...*	PAS: El
807	**S2**	**R**	*yes, a lot of questions and… time is limited=*	9-W V: r-ac-c
808	**S1**	**R**	*=we must be quick=*	4-W V: r-ac-c
809	**T**	**F**	*the time… WAS not enough, or we DIDN'T HAVE [enough time] yes*	GAS: M
810	**SS**	**R**	*[enough time]*	Cho R

Extract (83): Appendix II

A contribution by student S2 is couched in incorrect grammar that the teacher wants corrected. However, the teacher *PAS* (in turns 804 and 806) are misunderstood as a call for other students to lend an ear to the interesting idea being put forward, not as a bid for correcting the grammar mistake. Surprisingly, students' focus on meaningful communication leads them to become more involved in discussion as shown by responses in turns 807 and 808. The teacher corrects the grammar mistake, but students' focus is still on meaning (turn 810)

III-1.4 Two Groups, Unequal Timing! (811-836)

811	**T**	**I**	*…what else?...*	RQ- No WTI
812	**S4**	**R**	*the other group had more than us* **((1))**	7-W R: r-ac-c
813	**T**	**F/ii**	*what do you mean by the other group had more… [time than…us?]*	Short WTII- RQ- PAS:CR- No WTI
814	**S4**	**R**	*[time than…us]*	3-W R: r-ac-c
815	**T**	**F/ii**	*= or more than we had?* **...**	No WTII-RQ- PAS: CR-No WTI
816	**S4**	**R**	**((2))** *and told the group* **((1))**	4-W R: r-ac-c
817	**T**	**F/ii**	*please, repeat what you said? …*	Short WTII- RQ- No WTI- PAS:CR- No R

			is it time? …	RQ- No WTI- PAS:CR- No R
			you want to speak? =	RQ- PAS:CR -No WTI
818	**S5**	**R**	*=yes*	Ack
819	**T**	**F/ii**	*…ok, yes, what do you want to say?...*	No WTII- RQ- PAS:CR-No WTI
820	**S5**	**R**	*the other teacher er…=*	3-W R: r-ac-it
821	**S4**	**R**	*our teacher*	2-W R: r-ac-it
822	**T**	**F/ii**	*…the other teacher …*	No WTII - RQ- PAS:CR - No WTI
823	**S1**	**R**	*supervised the others=*	2-W R: r-ac-c
824	**T**	**F**	*=the teacher, who helped them=*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
825	**SS**	**R**	*=yes=*	Cho R
826	**T**	**F/ii**	*=who gives a hand, your …teacher?... , yah!*	RQ- No WTI
827	**S5**	**R**	*a racist =*	1-W R: r-ac-c
828	**S4**	**R**	*=didn't provided us…*	3-W R: r-ic-it
829	**T**	**F/ii**	*didn't provide you, didn't give you what?...*	Short WTII- RQ- PAS: CR- No WTI- No R
			[enough time?]	RQ- PAS: Cl- No WTI
830	**SS**	**R**	*[enough time]=*	Cho R
831	**S4**	**R**	*= our teacher gave the other group er… time*	7-W R: r-ac-it
832	**SS**	**R**	*yes…*	Cho R
833	**T**	**F**	*um-hum , ok, the… teacher who helped was in a hurry to finish*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex
834	**SS**	**R**	*Yes*	Cho R
835	**T**	**F**	*you should tell your teacher that you didn't have enough time or the same time as the other group*	Inform
836	**S2**	**R**	*she gives us a lot of questions*	7-W R: r-ac-c

Extract (84): Appendix II

The transaction sets out by a response from student S4 who wants to explain that they have been unfairly treated by a teacher on an exam. As this student shows signs of struggle to formulate express what she experienced, the teacher assists her in turns 813 and 815. The ultimate response could not be specified in the recording, but it seems that the student has finally completed her response given that the teacher addresses some students who are talking eagerly to each other about the same subject. The next turns (820, 821 and 823) are *incomplete responses* that the teacher has not probed further. Only the gist of the discussion is endorsed by the teacher who goes back to an *informing* mode that is marked by students' *approval* and *choral responses* (830, 832 and 834). Other responses intersperse teacher talk in turns 827, 828 and 836, but the teacher does not follow them either as she heads toward exploring another topic of discussion.

III.2 Campus Life (837-874)

Students' views of campus life are varied and their feelings about it are mixed. For some it is a different experience (**III.2.1**), for others it is frustrating (**III.2.2**), yet certain students are overwhelmed by homesickness (**III.2.3**), but after all is said and done, it constitutes a good experience (**III.2.4**)

III.2.1 A Different Experience (837-840)

837	**T**	**I**	*…ok, can you describe another situation?*	RQ- No WTI- No R
			I don't know… what do you usually do when you go back home or when you go to your =	Inform
838	**S1**	**R**	*= campus=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
839	**T**	**F/ii**	*= yah, to your room in the campus uh huh, can you describe a bit?* **(4)**	RQ- Extended WTI- No R
			do you act or do you do the same things you do when you go home?=	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
840	**SS**	**R**	*=no*	Cho R

Extract (85): Appendix II

The start of talk about campus life proves quite awkward for students who seem reluctant to start describing their feelings and experiences. The teacher has utilized a *prompting strategy* to push students to talk, but a more focused strategy consisting of a *nomination* seems to be more suitable to have every student describe his or her personal experience than transforming a genuine question to a *known-information question* that asks for 'yes' or 'no' responses. The latter strategy, therefore, elicits simplistic answers in turns 838 and 840.

III-2.2 Feelings about Living at the Campus (841-848)

841	**T**	**F/ii**	*…those who live in the campus… no…so, can you give us an idea?...*	No WTI- RQ- No WTI- No R
			yes, just describe simply… don't, don't be frightened, just speak normally, simply, ok, describe what you do usually **(2)**	PAS: El- Short WTI
842	**S4**	**R**	*we feel frustrated=*	3-W R: r-ac-c
843	**T**	**F/ii**	*=sorry?=*	RQ- PAS:CR-No WTI
844	**S4**	**R**	*=we feel frustrated…*	3-W R: r-ac-c
845	**T**	**F/ii**	*you feel frustrated! why?...*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: El - No WTI- No R
			you are habituated now since the time …ok, since the beginning of the year,	GAS: M- No R
			why do you feel frustrated? normally, everything is alright now!=	RQ- No WTI-PAS: El
846	**SS**	**R**	*=no=*	Cho R
847	**T**	**F**	*[you are habituated … you have got friends]*	No WTII- GAS: M
848	**SS**	**R**	*[no: no]*	Cho R

Extract (86): Appendix II

The teacher's *PAS* coupled with a relatively *Short Wait Time* are followed by student S4's response that describes students' state of mind or how they feel generally at the campus. Student S4 is speaking for most students who agree to her response (turns 846 and 848). It should be pointed out that S4's reply is not thorough in that it does not explain why she or other students feel frustrated. It is, in some sense, *interrupted* by the teacher criticism of this opinion for its being unreasonable and childish without exploring the causes that made such attitudes so widespread and generalized.

III-2.3 Homesickness (849-861)

849	**T**	**F/ii**	*=no?=*	RQ- No WTI
850	**S**	**R**	*=it's not good =*	3-W R: r-ac-c
851	**S4**	**R**	*=homesick*	1-W R: r-ac-it
852	**T**	**F**	*...you still feel [homesick; right, ok]*	Short WTII- GAS: Ref
853	**SS**	**R**	*[homesick , yes]*	Cho R
854	**S2**	**R**	*I miss my mother* **(she laughs)**	3-W R: r-ac-c
855	**T**	**F/ii**	*...why does she prepare the feeding bottle for you?=*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
856	**S2**	**R**	*=no=* **(laughs)**	1-W R: r-ac-it
857	**T**	**F**	*does she feed you with the bottle?...*	No WTII- DQ- No WTI- No R
			you are, ok, ...big enough, let's say=	inform
858	**S2**	**R**	*but, I still er.., I still miss her=*	5-W R: r-ac-c
859	**T**	**F**	*=of course, we all , ok, feel the need to be with our parents even when we become adults and have children, ok, but, you must feel responsible =*	GAS: Ex- No R
860	**S2**	**R**	*= yes =*	Ack
861	**T**	**F**	*= [enough to take care of yourself]*	Inform 7-W V: r-ac-c

Extract (87): Appendix II

Students contradict the teacher's opinion in turns 850 and 851. Though this last turn is elliptical, it is Ok'd by the teacher who does the structuring of the sentence for student S4. Student S2 adds another opinion in turn 854 that the teacher finds worth following-up by a *prompting strategy* before she immediately suggests that student S2 should learn to detach herself from a caring environment, and learn to take some responsibility over her personal life. In response to the teacher, and in a more conversation-like fashion, student S2 insists that it is only natural for her to miss her mother, and the teacher subscribes to her opinion in the end.

III-2.4 A Good Experience

862	**S1**	**R**	*[but it's a good experience, I think]*	7-W V: r-ac-c
863	**T**	**F/ ii**	*=yah? ...*	RQ - PAS: CR – No WTI
864	**S1**	**R**	*it's a good experience, I want to… have this experience…*	10-W R: r-ac-c
865	**T**	**F**	*of course, you are [here for a temporary period of time]*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
866	**S2**	**R**	*[most difficult experience]*	3-W R: r-ac-it
867	**T**	**F/I**	*please!... you are in the campus, for those, ok, who are far from their families, you are here for an important task, ok, building your future.*	GAS: Ex - No R
			so, feeling homesick and so on is what?=	DQ- No WTI
868	**S2**	**R**	*=obstacle=*	1-W R: r-ac-it
869	**T**	**F/I**	*= is something you can't overcome, and this prepares you too*	No WTII- GAS: Ex - No R
			because you have a better purpose, what is it? **(1)**	DQ- Short WTI
870	**S1**	**R**	*succeed=*	1-W R: r-ac-it
871	**T**	**F**	*=to succeed, to get a diploma, to get the necessary luggage, ok, to face life…*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
872	**S2**	**R**	*I always make efforts and er… to make my mother happy…*	10-W V: r-ac-c
873	**T**	**F**	*of course, you must give satisfaction to your parents, ok! because they suffer from your separation…*	GAS: Ex
874	**S**	**R**	**((1))**	Unsp

Extract (88): Appendix II

Interaction in this exchange is led by students S1 and S2. The first suggests that leaving amidst other students away from family is purposeful and good while the second confesses that it is still hard. While the teacher's *scaffold* for student S1 resulted in her producing a more elaborate and *complete response*, student S1's response remains elliptical and this leads her to produce another similar response in turn 868. In turn 869, the teacher phrases the question in such a way as to restrict the response to a *single word* i.e., one that completes the teacher's utterance. Student S2 feels more connected to the subject of talk and initiates a *lengthy response* in turn 872 that is appropriately followed up by the teacher. An unspecified student's response seemingly pours an idea in this vein in the last turn.

III-3 Describing One's Room (875-931)

Describing one's room leads students to describe their private room back home (**III-3.1**), while what is intended is to describe campus rooms (**III-3.2**) where some students are habituated to cook for themselves (**III-3.3**). To attend to students who don't live at the

campus, transaction (**III.3.4**) explores whether students have their own room or they share it with some other members of the family.

III-3.1 Describing One's Private Room (875-886)

875	**T**	**F/I**	*well, stop talking about feelings and homesickness, I want you to describe a place with different people…say my room is small,…*	Inform
876	**S1**	**R**	*it is big a big room… [my room]*	8-W R: r-ac-c
877	**S2**	**R**	**(speaking with S1)** *[in your] house…*	3-W R: r-ac-it
878	**T**	**F/I**	*it is a big room*	GAS: Rep- No R
			and how many are you in the room? **(1)**	RQ- Short WTI
879	**S1**	**R**	*ah, I am alone=*	3-W R: r-ac-c
880	**T**	**F/ii**	*=you are alone in a large room? …*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: CR-No WTI
881	**S1**	**R**	*yes=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
882	**T**	**F**	*=right…*	No WTII- Accept
883	**S1**	**R**	*I am the last one….member in my family*	9-W V: r-ac-c
884	**T**	**F**	*… yah … so here we are talking about your house! I'm talking about the campus.*	Inform
885	**S1**	**R**	*I don't live in the campus =*	6-W R: r-ac-c
886	**T**	**F**	*=ok,*	Accept

Extract (89): Appendix II

In this transaction, the teacher asks to describe the rooms in the campus, but student S1 does not live in the campus and goes on describing her own private room at home. The teacher is surprised to hear that rooms are large before she finally realizes that S1 is speaking about their house. Turns alternate between the teacher and student S1 in this exchange with a single instance of student S2 (turn 877). The use of *referential questions* and *clarification requests*, and the teacher willingness to assist student S1 in expressing her opinions rather than interrupting them contribute to the natural flow of interaction between the two interlocutors in an atmosphere that emulates that of conversation.

III-3.2 Describing Campus Rooms (886-903)

886	**T**	**F/I**	*so you have … ok=*	Inform
887	**S**	**R**	*= small rooms=*	2-W R: r-ac-c
888	**S2**	**R**	*=it's a very small room; very, very small…*	8-W R: r-ac-c
889	**T**	**F/ii**	*in the campus, [the rooms are small]?*	RQ- PAS: CR-No WTI
890	**S2**	**R**	*[yes, we are four girls]*	5-W R: r-ac-c
891	**SS**	**R**	*yes…*	Cho R
892	**T**	**F/ii**	*ok, well, how do you do?...*	No WTII- Accept- RQ- PAS: El-No WTI
893	**S2**	**R**	*we can't move; while other girls sleep, we don't move*	10-W R: r-ac-c

894	**SS**	**R**	*yes***(students' unintelligible talk and laughter)**	Cho R
895	**T**	**F**	*… well, she had added something, she said there's just a place for praying =*	Short WTII- GAS: Ref
896	**S**	**R**	*= yes=*	Ack
897	**T**	**F**	*= so, the room is big enough because when you pray, you can put a carpet … on the floor =*	GAS: Ex
898	**S**	**R**	*= a small carpet =*	2-W R: r-ac-c
899	**T**	**F/ii**	*= and pray… you have, but you have the …necessary space for standing?…*	RQ- PAS: El- No WTI
900	**S2**	**R**	*in our room, we haven't=*	5-W R: r-ic-c
901	**T**	**F/ii**	*=sorry!...*	No WTII -RQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
902	**S**	**R**	*we haven't space=*	3-W R: r-ic-c
903	**T**	**F**	*=you don't have any space…*	No WTII- GAS: M - No R

Extract (90): Appendix II

The teacher attends to student S2's response in the previous transaction (turn 877) and makes it the theme of this exchange. Students S2, an unidentified student S and a group in the class (SS) describe how small their rooms are in all their turns. The responses are well-formulated and contributing one idea or response at a time until turn 900 where student S2 makes a grammatical mistake that is upheld or repeated by another student in turn 902. Hence, the teacher corrects the error, but in an implicit way in turn 903 without referring the two student out to the error, and making them aware of it or, at least, allow them to correct it by themselves.

III-3.3 Cooking and the Cooking Device (903-910)

903	**T**	**I**	*do you prepare, do you prepare food in your room?* **(1)**	RQ- Short WTI
904	**SS**	**R**	*yes, sometimes…*	2-W R: r-ac-c
905	**T**	**F/I**	*sometimes, ok; so, you have the device for cooking?=*	No WTII –Accept- DQ- PAS: El-No WTI
906	**S**	**R**	*=yes=*	1-W R: r-ac-c
907	**T**	**F/ii**	*=isn't it dangerous?...*	No WTII -RQ- PAS: El- No WTI
908	**SS**	**R**	*no* **((1))**	Cho R
909	**T**	**F**	*…yah, you must be careful=*	Short WTII- Inform
910	**S2**	**R**	*=yes, it's dangerous*	3-W R: r-ac-c

Extract (91): Appendix II

The teacher initiates a transaction about self-cooking in the campus, but shapes the discussion in *display questions* calling for *short responses*, and concluded by supplying students with motherly pieces of advice.

III-3.4 Private or Shared Room! (911-923)

911	**T**	**I**	**(4)** *well, your friend said I have a large room… my room is large enough, what about the others?...*	RQ- No WTI- No R
		i	*those who don't live in the campus, those who live with their families and come to the university just to study and go back home yah?* **(2)**	RQ- PAS: El- Short WTI- No R
			hey! **(2)** *you can say anything! just say a word! say my room is big or my room is small; I live in my room alone or I share it with my brother or my sister or my sisters or…*	PAS: Cl- Short WTI
912	**S1**	**R**	*it's better to live alone=*	5-W R: r-ac-c
913	**T**	**F/ii**	*=sorry?*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: CR-No WTI
914	**S1**	**R**	*=it's better to live alone=*	5-W R: r-ac-c
915	**T**	**F/ii**	*=sure?* **(1)**	No WTII-RQ- PAS: CR-Short WTI
916	**S1**	**R**	*yes, we have a private space, our private space, no one can er…*	12-W R: r-ac-it
917	**T**	**F**	*I think that it's better to be in contact with others… to prepare yourself for the future*	No WTII- GAS: Ex
918	**S2**	**R**	*in my house, I share my room with my sister…*	10-W V: r-ac-c
919	**T**	**F/ii**	*ok, nice, you are two?=*	DQ- PAS: El- No WTI
920	**S2**	**R**	*=yes*	1-W R: r-ac-c
921	**T**	**F/I**	*…ok, what about the others?* **(2)**	Short WTII- RQ- Short WTI- No R
		i	*well, the gentleman who is laughing, we haven't heard you; please, what about you, do you have your own room?***(1)**	RQ- PAS: El- Short WTI
922	**S5**	**R**	*no, I share it with my brother*	7-W R: r-ac-c
923	**T**	**F**	*…ok, you have a room with your brother, you share it with your brother, nice! so…*	Short WTII- GAS: Ex 13-W r-ac-c

Extract (92): Appendix II

The teacher wants to involve other students in describing their living rooms back at home. The discussion is dominated by students S1 and S2, as was the case with most previous exchanges, and the teacher remembers the need to involve other students in turn 921. Student S1 advocates in three turns that having a private room is better (turns 912, 914 and 916). The last of these three turns, however, is incomplete, and the teacher does not ask for completion nor helps S1 to do so. Student S2 chooses to share the living space

with her sister. Overall, students in this exchange, are responding to *referential questions* which create a personalized climate of interaction.

III-4 On Marrying and ending the lesson (924-931)

924	**S1**	**R**	*= I used I used to share it, but now I don't share it…*	13-W V: r-ac-c
925	**T**	**F/ii**	*=where has your sister gone?...*	No WTII- RQ- PAS: CR- No WTI
926	**S1**	**R**	*she's married*	2-W R: r-ac-c
927	**T**	**F/ii**	*... ah, and you will be the next=*	Short WTII- PAS: El
928	**S1**	**R**	*=no=*	1-W V: r-ac-c
929	**T**	**F**	*=sure, you will get married and you will be obliged to get in contact with others…*	Inform
930	**S2**	**R**	*she isn't responsible* **(laughing)**	3-W V: r-ac-c
931	**T**	**F**	*… she said it's good to be alone…* **(smiling)** *ok, well.* **(teacher uses gestures show the end of the lesson)**	GAS: Ex- No R

Extract (93): Appendix II

The class is dismissed on a subject that proves humorous and amusing to students as well as the teacher i.e., that of marriage. Student S1 feels free to produce a lengthy response insinuating that her sister is married. She also states that she will not marry, but her colleague (student S2) as well as the teacher take it as a joke.

Having provided a qualitative description of teacher-students interaction, it is high time quantitative counts are carried out to search for confirmation or disconfirmation of the hypotheses formulated above.

5. Quantitative Analysis and Interpretation of Results

As stated above, this section tests whether the selected aspects of teacher interactional behaviour (Referential Questions, Prompting-Answer Strategies and Short Wait Times I and II) are indeed scaffolding strategies for Risk-Taking. Accordingly, instances of Risk-Taking should be lower in number and quality when the teacher uses the counterpart of each of the selected items above (i.e., Display Questions, Giving-Answer Strategies, No Wait-Times I and II as well as Extended Wait-Times I and II).

Risk-taking is discussed as follows:

- The Number of Students' Turns created by each type of item on the dichotomies (**Table 10.1, Table 10.2, Table 10.3, Table 10.4, Table 10.5** and **Figure (5))**.

- The distribution of each category of Risk-Taking (i.e., No Risk-Taking, Low Risk-Taking, Moderate Risk-Taking and High Risk-Taking) along aspects of teacher interaction is highlighted. These are shown in **Table 11.1, Table 11.2, Table 11.3, Table 11.4, Table 11.5** as well as **Figure (6)**.
- The proportion of Actual Risk-Taking (Moderate Risk-Taking and High Risk-Taking) to each type of item on the dichotomies is calculated and singled out from the previous discussion on categories of Risk-Taking. **Table 12.1, Table 12.2, Table 12.3, Table 12.4, Table 12.5** in addition to **Figure (7)** are used for illustration.
- The proportion of Relevant, Accurate and/or Complete turns to the number Actual Risk-Taking occurrences (**Table 13.1, Table 13.2, Table 13.3, Table 13.4, Table 13.5** in addition to **Figure (8))**.
- **Figure (9)** and **Figure (10)** deal with the component parts of GAS (Modelling, Repetition, Reformulation and Extension) and PAS (Elicits, Prompts, Clues and Clarification Requests) to explore which individual component or components account for better Risk-Taking which is measured by the criteria mentioned in the previous sections.

5.1.Number of Students' Turns

Display questions are the dominant type, taking more than three fourths of teacher questions. However, the proportion of turns to the number of referential questions is higher than that created by than display questions, as **Table 10.1** shows. 08.89% as many turns are created by referential questions. It should be borne in mind that although most questions seem to be attended to, as the table below shows, it is not always the case that a question is followed by a single turn. Some questions are responded to with several turns while others are not responded to at all.

	Display Questions	Referential Questions
Number of questions (n=269)	212 78.81%	57 21.19%
Number of Students' Turns	182	54
Percentage of Students' Turns	85.85%	94.74%

Table 10.1 Relationship Between Question Type and Number of Turns

Table 10.2 demonstrates that though the number of Giving-Answer Strategies outnumber those of Prompting-Answer Strategies, the resulting students' turns from PAS outnumber those of GAS. To be more exact, GAS yielded 27.18% less turns than PAS.

	GAS	PAS
Number of Strategies (n=352)	200 56.82%	152 43.18%
Number of Students' Turns	143 71.5%	150 98.68%

Table 10.2 Relationship Between Answer Strategy Type and Number of Turns

Specifically speaking, GAS are defined in terms of Modelling, Repetition, Reformulation and Extension; and those of PAS contain Prompts, Elicits, Clues and Clarification Requests. Nearly each category of PAS is followed by a turn, giving a perfect percentage of 100% with Clarification Requests yielding more than one turn. On the other side, teacher Repetition correlated with only 45,71% of student's turns which means that after more than half of these Repetitions, students did not resume talking. More details are illustrated by **Table 10.3** below

	GAS				PAS			
	Modelling	Repetition	Reformulation	Extension	Prompt	Elicit	Clue	Clarification Request
Number of Strategies	52 100%	35 100%	29 100%	84 100%	16 100%	59 100%	30 100%	47 100%
Number of Students' turns	41 78.84%	16 45.71%	21 72.41%	65 77.38%	16 100%	55 93.22%	30 100%	49 104.25%

Table 10.3 Relationship Between Categories of GAS/PAS and Number of Turns

The last two tables examine wait times I and II. **Table 10.4** shows that the teacher tends to leave no pauses before students come up with responses. Ironically, No WTI corresponds with more turns than Short and Extended WTI. Short WTI pauses also correlated with an elevated number of turns whereas extended WTI are frequently followed by students' silence.

	No WTI	**Short WTI**	**Extended WTI**
Number of Categories of Wait Time I (n=269)	167 62.08%	95 35.32%	07 02.60%
Number of Students' Turns	156 93.41%	78 82.10%	02 28.57%

Table 10.4 Relationship Between WTI Categories and Number of Turns

WTII is the focus of **table 10.5** which, as in the case of WTI, shows that students' talk is immediately followed by teacher talk in 85.48%) of their turns. Leaving short pauses after students' responses (i.e., Short WTII) relates more positively with the number of turns than leaving no pauses. Students seem to have found some space to contribute more turns in order to elaborate on or add responses.

	No WTII	**Short WTII**	**Extended WTII**
Number of Strategies (n=186)	159 85.48%	27 14.52%	00
Number of Students' Turns	183 115.09%	35 140.74%	00 00%

Table 10.5 Relationship Between WTII Categories and Number of Turns

In summary, **Figure (5)** shows that the relationship between Referential Questions, Prompting-Answer Strategies, No WTI and Short WTII to the number of students' turns is established to be more positive than other alternatives. Therefore the hypothesis is confirmed for RQs, PAS, Short WTII but not for Short WTI; Instead, No WTI is the type of Wait Time that plays the role of scaffolding.

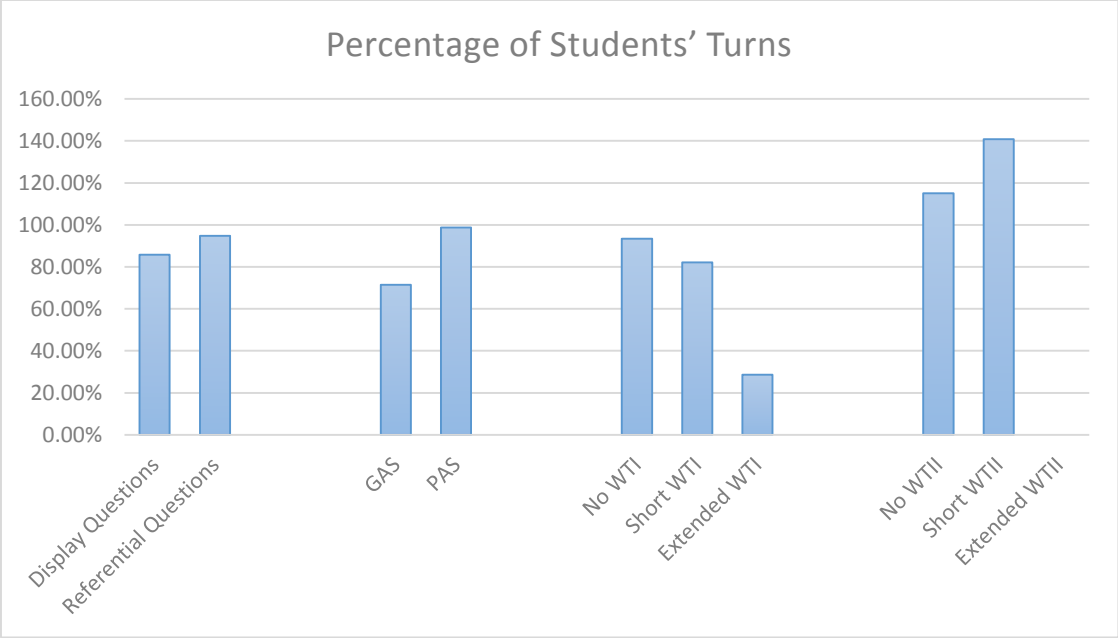

Figure (5): Percentage of Students' Turns

5.2. Risk-Taking Categories

Table 11.1 shows that Referential Questions are better than Display Questions on High Risk-Taking and No Risk-Taking categories, whereas Low and Moderate Risk-Taking are better following Display Questions.

	Display Questions	**Referential Questions**
Number of Risk-Taking Categories	236 100%	67 100%
- **No Risk-Taking**	54 22.88%	12 17.91%
- **Low Risk-Taking**	76 32.20%	16 23.88%
- **Moderate Risk-Taking**	68 28.81%	10 14.93%
- **High Risk-Taking**	38 16.10%	29 43.28%

Table 11.1 Distribution of Risk-Taking Categories Along Question Type

As for PAS, they are three positive categories of Risk-Taking i.e., less No Risk-Taking categories, and more Moderate and High Risk-Taking categories than GAS which outdo PAS on Low Risk-Taking instances. This is shown by **Table 11.2** below.

	GA S	PAS
Number of Risk-Taking Categories	209 100%	173 100%
- **No Risk-Taking**	68 32.53%	23 13.29%
- **Low Risk-Taking**	85 40.66%	57 32.94%
- **Moderate Risk-Taking**	18 8.61%	48 27.74%
- **High Risk-Taking**	38 18.18%	45 26.01%

Table 11.2 Distribution of Risk-Taking Categories Along Answer Strategies

According to Table 11.3, the most used Answer Strategies are those of Extension and Elicit. Comparing the different components of GAS and PAS shows that more than half of teacher repetitions are followed by No Risk-Taking, and along with Modelling correlate with minimal Moderate Risk-Taking. Elicits, by contrast, are succeeded by less No Risk-Taking categories.

	GAS				PAS			
	Modelling	Repetition	Reformulation	Extension	Prompt	Elicit	Clue	Clarification Request
Number of Risk-Taking Categories	55 100%	35 100%	31 100%	88 100%	18 100%	70 100%	31 100%	54 100%
- No Risk-Taking	14 25.45 %	19 54.29 %	12 38.71 %	23 26.14 %	02 11.11 %	15 21.43%	01 03.23 %	05 09.24 %
- Low Risk-Taking	30 54.55 %	04 11.43 %	09 29.03 %	42 47.73 %	07 38.89 %	22 31.43%	10 32.26 %	18 33.33 %
- Moderate Risk-Taking	03 05.45 %	02 5.71%	04 12.91 %	09 10.23 %	06 33.33 %	17 24.28%	14 45.16 %	11 20.36 %
- High Risk-Taking	08 14.55 %	10 28.57 %	06 19.35 %	14 15.90 %	03 16.67 %	16 22.86%	06 19.35 %	20 37.07 %

Table 11.3 Distribution of Risk-Taking Categories Along Answer Strategies Categories

The two instances of Extended WTI corresponded with Moderate and High Risk-Taking, while once again No WTI proved better than Short WTI on every measure of Risk-Taking except for a slight precedence of this latter on Moderate Risk-Taking, as can be clearly seen in **Table 11.4**.

	No WI	Short WTI	Extended WT I
Number of Risk-Taking Categories	187 100%	108 100%	02 100%
No Risk-Taking	31 16.58%	30 27.78%	00 0%
Low Risk-Taking	65 34.76%	27 25%	00 0%
Moderate Risk-Taking	47 25.13%	29 26.85%	01 50%
High Risk-Taking	44 23.53%	22 20.37%	01 50%

Table 11.4 Distribution of Risk-Taking Categories Along WTI Categories

With regard to WTII, illustrated in **Table 11.5** below, No WTII corresponds with slightly better Risk-Taking Categories than Short WTII except for Low-Risk-Taking where the order is reversed.

	No WTII	Short WTII	Extended WTII
Number of Risk-Taking Categories	186 100%	36 100%	00
No Risk-Taking	03 1.61%	01 02.78%	00
Low Risk-Taking	69 37.10%	15 41.67%	00
Moderate Risk-Taking	69 37.10%	10 27.78%	00
High Risk-Taking	45 24.19%	10 27.78%	00

Table 11.5 Distribution of Risk-Taking Categories Along WTII Categories

Figure (6) sums up all the findings in this section. Referential Questions, PAS, Extended WTI and Short WTII co-occurred with High Risk-Taking Categories. As for Moderate Risk-Taking, it is contributed to more by Display Question, GAS, Extended WTI and No WTII. Low Risk-Taking Categories are contributed to by Display Questions, PAS, No WTI and Short WTII. No Risk-Taking is more present after Display Questions, GAS, Short WTI and Short WTII.

Taking every aspect of scaffolding separately, Referential questions co-occurred More High Risk-Taking, less Low Risk-Taking and No Risk-Taking occurrences.

For PAS, they can be said to serve as scaffolding for High Risk-Taking as well as avoiding No Risk-Taking. For the rest i.e., Moderate Risk-Taking and fewer Low Risk-Taking categories, they seem to be better scaffolded by GAS.

Last, Short Wait Time I is superseded by Extended Wait Time I as a scaffolding strategy for High Risk-Taking and Moderate Risk-Taking, whereas Short Wait Time II

retains its place as a scaffolding strategy for the same category. Nonetheless, it correlate with more silence (No Risk-Taking) and not-so-good-quality responses (Low Risk-Taking). Instead, No Wait Time II accounted for less such categories, and serve as better scaffolds in this regard.

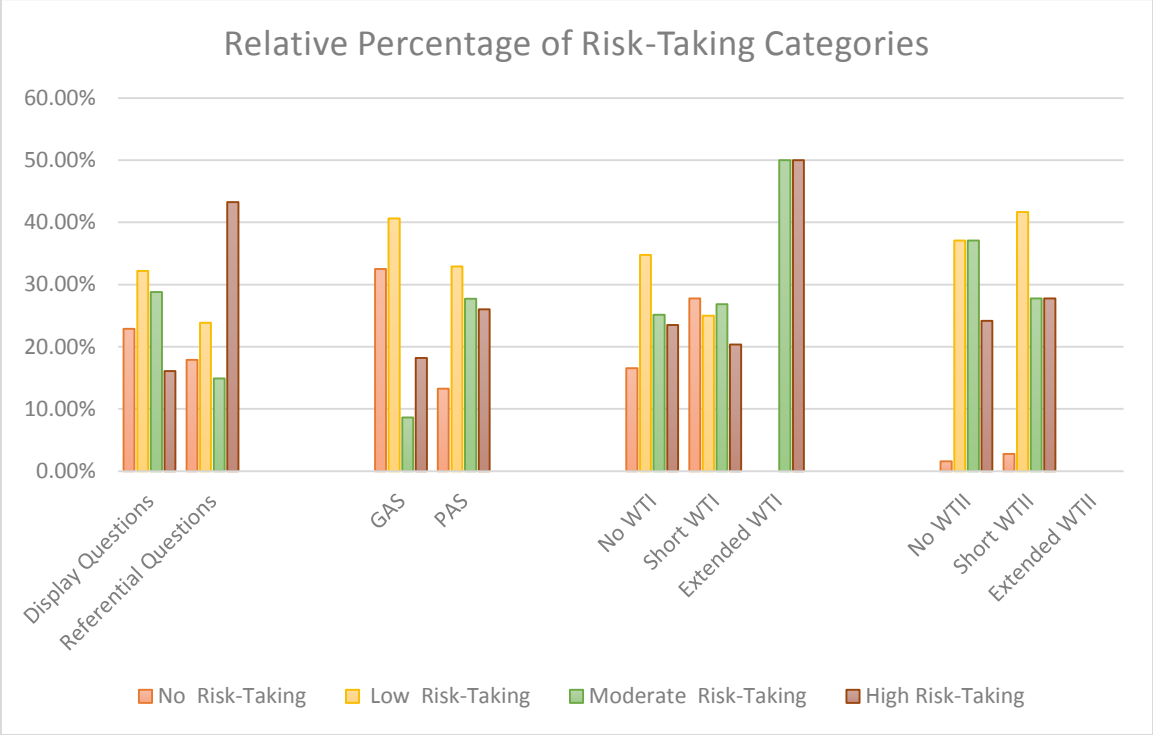

Figure (6) Relative Percentage of Risk-Taking Categories

5.3. Actual Risk-taking

As a reminder, Actual Risk-taking instances are the sum of Moderate Risk-taking and High Risk-taking. As far as question type is concerned, Referential Questions are followed by more Actual Risk-Taking and the sub-category of High Risk Taking. The proportion of this latter to Actual Risk Taking is greater in Referential Questions too. Display Questions account for more Moderate Risk-Taking as **Table 12.1** illustrates.

	Display Questions	**Referential Questions**
Number of Question Types	212 100%	57 100%
Actual Risk-Taking	106 50%	39 68.42%
- **Moderate Risk-Taking**	68 64.15%	10 25.64%

- **High Risk-Taking**	38 35.85%	29 74.36%

Table 12.1 Relationship Between Question Type and Actual Risk-Taking

Considering the dichotomy of PAS vs GAS, in **Table 12.2**, it is also the same case that PAS co-occurred with far more Actual Risk-Taking instances than GAS with a margin of 33.18% of such items. However, GAS enjoy more High Risk-Taking while PAS excel at Moderate Risk-Taking.

	GA S	**PAS**
Number Answer Strategies	200 100%	152 100%
Actual Risk-Taking	56 28%	93 61.18%
- **Moderate Risk-Taking**	18 32.14%	48 51.62%
- **High Risk-Taking**	38 67.86%	45 48.39%

Table 12.2 Relationship Between Answer Strategy Type and Actual Risk-Taking

As regards the component categories of GAS and PAS, all components of PAS achieved better results on Actual Risk-Taking and most on Moderate Risk-Taking where Clarification Request make the exception and resemble GAS components in correlating with more High Risk-Taking examples. This is illustrated by **Table 12.3** below.

	GAS				**PAS**			
	Modelling	Repetition	Reformulation	Extension	Prompt	Elicit	Clue	Clarification Request
Number of Answer Strategies	55 100%	35 100%	31 100%	88 100%	18 100%	70 100%	31 100%	54 100%
Actual Risk-Taking	11 20%	12 34.29%	10 32.26%	23 26.14%	09 50%	33 47.14%	20 64.52%	31 57.41%
- Moderate Risk-Taking	03 27.27%	02 16.67%	4 40%	09 39.13%	06 66.67%	17 51.51%	14 70%	11 35.48%
- High Risk-Taking	08 72.73%	10 83.33%	06 60%	14 60.87%	03 33.33%	16 48.48%	06 30%	20 64.52%

Table 12.3 Relationship Between Answer Strategies' Components and Actual Risk-Taking

Looking at **Table 12.4**, it can be seen that the teacher talk is characterised by minimal pauses after she asks questions (i.e., No WTI). These latter generated more Actual Risk-

Taking than other alternatives. However, better results on component parts are achieved by Short WTI.

	No WI	Short WTI	Extended WT I
Number of Categories of WTI	167 100%	95 100%	07 100%
Actual Risk-Taking	91 54.49%	51 53.68%	02 28.57%
Moderate Risk-Taking	47 51.65%	29 56.86%	01 50%
High Risk-Taking	44 48.35%	22 75.86%	01 50%

Table 12.4 Relationship Between WTI Categories and Actual Risk-Taking

The last table (**Table 12.5**) testing Actual Risk-Taking shows this latter as well as its High Risk-Taking component to be at their highest scores following Short WTII. No WTTII seems to generate more Moderate Risk-Taking Examples

	No WTII	Short WTII	Extended WTII
Number of Categories of WT II	159 100%	27 100%	00
Actual Risk-Taking	114 71.70%	20 74.07%	00
Moderate Risk-Taking	69 60.53%	10 50%	00
High Risk-Taking	45 39.47%	10 50%	00

Table 12.5 Relationship Between WTII Categories and Actual Risk-Taking

The distribution of Actual Risk-taking and its components is illustrated by **Figure (7)**. Referential questions generate more Actual Risk-taking and more High Risk-Taking categories, while more Moderate Risk-Taking categories are the domain of Display Questions.

PAS accounted for more Actual and Moderate Risk-Taking, and GAS accounted for more High Risk-Taking examples.

Whereas No WTI is followed by more Actual Risk-Taking instances, this sum of the components does not reflect the relationship of each component alone which seems to accord with Short WTI. On the other hand, Short WTII accounts for the best score on Actual Risk-Taking while Extended WTII dominate the component parts of Actual Risk-Taking.

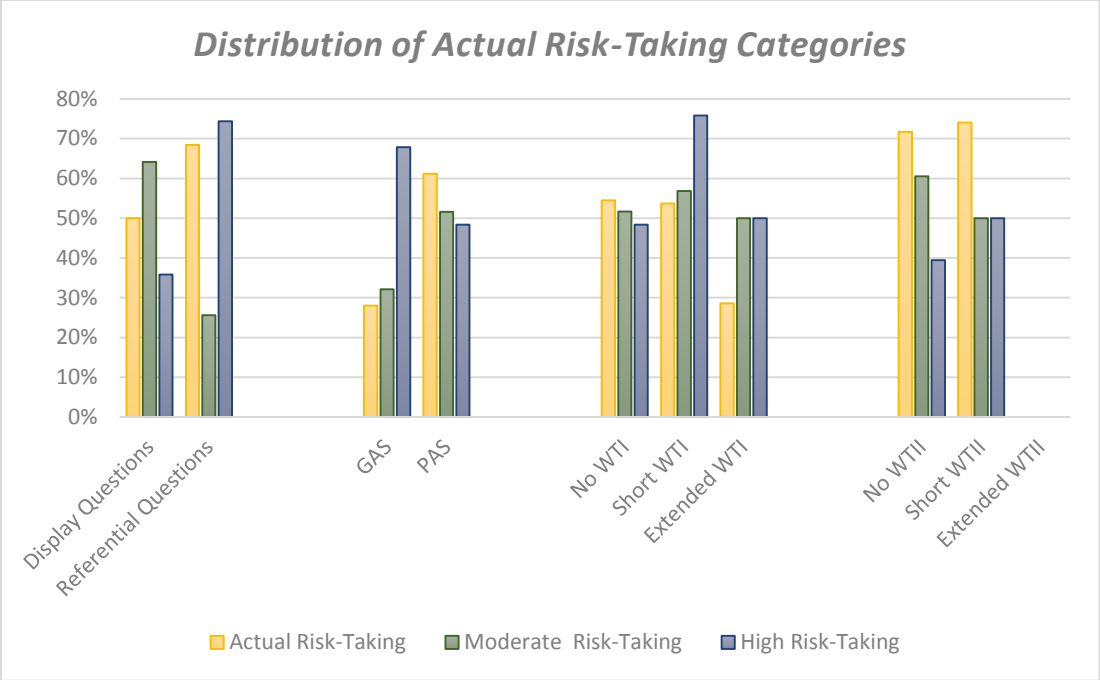

Figure (7) Distribution of Actual Risk-Taking Categories

5.4. Relevant, Accurate and/or Complete turns

Referential questions are followed by only 03.46% more Relevant, Accurate and Complete turns than display questions, as **Table 13.1** shows. Relevant turns that come after Display Questions are also slightly outnumbered by those following Referential Questions. However, the order is reversed in the last two cases of Accurate turns and Complete turns. With the former, the difference is around 05.01%, whereas it decreases to 04.08% with the latter.

	Display Questions	**Referential Questions**
Actual Risk-Taking	**106 100%**	**39 100%**
Quality of Risk-Taking - **Relevant, Accurate and Complete turns**	67 63.21%	26 66.67%
- **Relevant turns**	102 96.23%	38 97.43%
- **Accurate turns**	95 89.62%	33 84.61%
- **Complete turns**	75 70.75%	26 66.67%

Table 13.1 Relationship Between Question Type and Quality of Risk-Taking

The next table (**Table 13.2**) explores the relationship between Answer Strategies and Relavant, Accurate and/or Complete turns. GAS are followed by relatively higher-quality turns in that 75% of the best quality turns ensue them, overriding PAS by a percentage of 13.71%. they also surpass PAS on Accurate and Complete turns by 14.70% and 12.24% successively.

	GA Strategies	**PA Strategies**
Actual Risk-Taking	**56** 100%	**93** 100%
Quality of Risk-Taking - **Relevant, Accurate and Complete turns**	42 75%	57 61.29%
- **Relevant turns**	53 94.64%	90 96.77%
- **Accurate turns**	54 96.42%	76 81.72%
- **Complete turns**	49 87.5%	70 75.26%

Table 13.2 Relationship Between Answer Strategy Type and Quality of Risk-Taking

The different components of both GAS and PAS are once again compared, but this time round (**Table 13.3),** they are considered in terms of their relationship with the quality of Risk-Taking. What is most noticeable is that GAS categories i.e., Modelling, Repetition and Reformulation are followed by a high percentage of perfect turns to the exception of Extensions. When the teacher extends a student's contribution, however, less Relevant, Accurate and Complete turns take place at the same percentage of PAS categories. These latter achieve 100% Relevant responses by using Clarification Requests; yet a relative decline of accuracy and completeness in PAS is observed.

	GA Strategies				**PA Strategies**			
	Modelling	Repetition	Reformulation	Extension	Prompt	Elicit	Clue	Clarification Request
Actual Risk-Taking	**11** 100%	**12** 100%	**10** 100%	**23** 100%	**09** 100%	**33** 100%	**20** 100%	**31** 100%
Relevant, Accurate and	09 81.82%	11 91.67%	09 90%	13 56.52%	04 44.45%	22 66.67%	09 45%	22 70.97%

Complete turns								
Relevant turns	11 100%	12 100%	10 100%	20 86.96%	09 100%	32 96.97%	18 90%	31 100%
Accurate turns	11 100%	11 91.67%	10 100%	22 95.65%	07 77.78%	29 87.88%	15 75%	26 83.87%
Complete turns	09 81.82%	11 91.67%	09 90%	20 86.96%	06 66.67%	25 75.76%	14 70%	25 80.65%

Table 13.3 Relationship Between Answer Strategy Categories and Quality of Risk-Taking

The next relationship that need to be explored is that which brings together short WTI's and the Quality of Risk-Taking. **Table 13.4** shows that short pauses outperform no pauses and extended pauses. Nevertheless, Extended WTI is followed by more Relevant turns and No WTI overcount other types on Accurate turns and Complete turns.

	No Wait Time I	**Short Wait Time I**	**Extended Wait Time I**
Actual Risk-Taking	91 100%	51 100%	02 100%
Quality of Risk-Taking - **Relevant, Accurate and Complete turns**	46 50.55%	29 56.86%	00
- **Relevant turns**	90 98.90%	48 94.12%	02 100%
- **Accurate turns**	83 91.21%	44 86.27%	01 50%
- **Complete turns**	69 75.82%	36 70.59%	01 50%

Table 13.4 Relationship Between WTI Categories and Quality of Risk-Taking

With regard to WTII, results favour short WTII on measures of Relevant, Accurate and Complete turns and Complete turns. No WTII, on the other hand correlate with more Relevant turns and Accurate Turns. The teacher is confirmed by **Table 13.5** not to extend pauses after students' responses, and this the relationship cannot be explored.

	No Wait Time II	**Short Wait Time II**	**Extended Wait Time II**
Actual Risk-Taking	**114 100%**	**20 100%**	**00**
Quality of Risk-Taking - **Relevant, Accurate** - **and Complete turns**	70 61.40%	14 70%	00
- **Relevant turns**	104 91.23%	20 57.14%	00
- **Accurate turns**	108 94.74%	17 48.57%	00
- **Complete turns**	78 68.42%	16 80%	00

Table 13.5 Relationship Between WTII Categories and Quality of Risk-Taking

To summarise the findings in this section, a look at **Figure (8)** can be enlightening. It can be seen that the distribution of Relevant, Accurate and Complete Turns is at its top following Referential Questions, GAS, Short WTI and Short WTII. Relevant Turns are at their highest with Display Questions, GAS, Extended WTI and No WTII. As for Accurate Turns, they are more prominent with Display Questions, GAS, No WTI and No WTII. Last, the most Complete Turns follow Display Questions, GAS, No WTI and Short WTII.

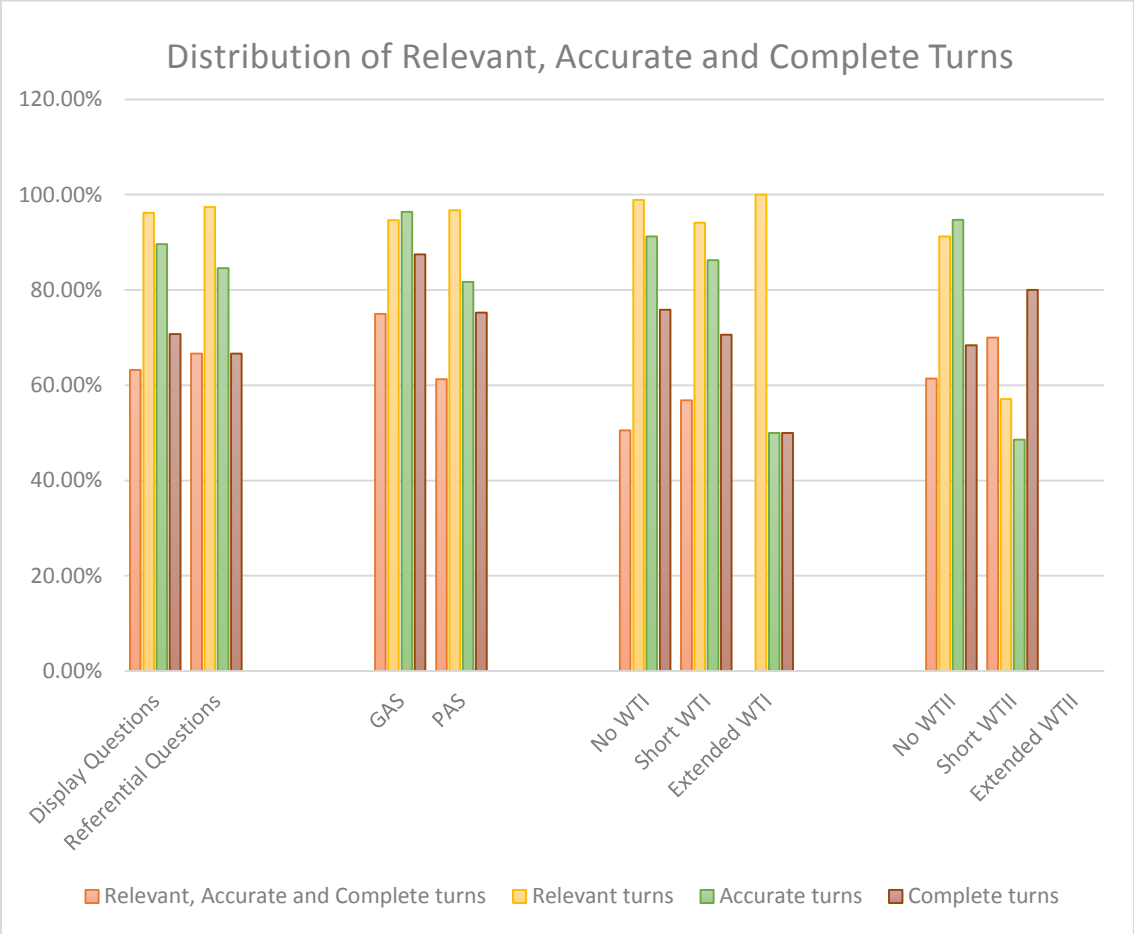

Figure (8) Distribution of Relevant, Accurate and/or Complete Turns

5.5.GAS and PAS Components and Risk-Taking

Part of answering which teacher interaction features are more supportive to Risk-Taking include the sub-categories of GAS and PAS. A close look at **Figure (9)** and **Figure (10)** yields the following observations:

- PAS Clarification Requests are followed by the highest number of students' turns
- PAS Clues are followed by the least number of No Risk-Taking.
- PAS Clarification Requests are followed by an absence of Low Risk-Taking
- PAS Clues are followed by the highest number of Moderate Risk-Taking
- PAS Clarification Requests are followed by the biggest number of High Risk-Taking
- PAS Clues are followed by the highest number of Actual Risk-Taking
- GAS Repetitions co-occurred with the highest number of Relevant, Accurate and Complete Turns.
- GAS Medellings, Repetitions and Reformulations as well as PAS Prompts and Clarification Requests co-occurred with 100% Relevant Turns.
- GAS Medellings and Reformulations co-occurred with 100% Accurate Turns.
- GAS Repetitions co-occurred with the highest number of Complete Turns.

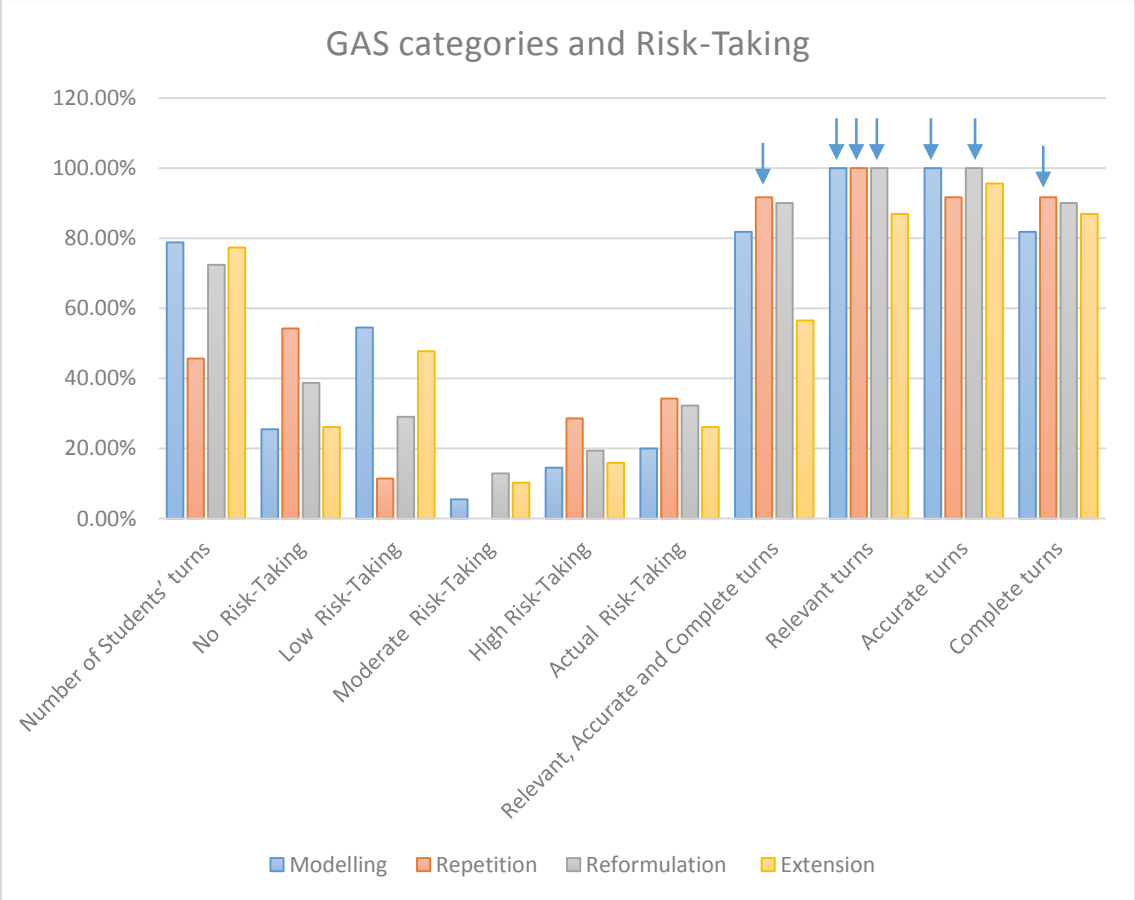

Figure (9) Distribution of GAS categories on Risk-Taking

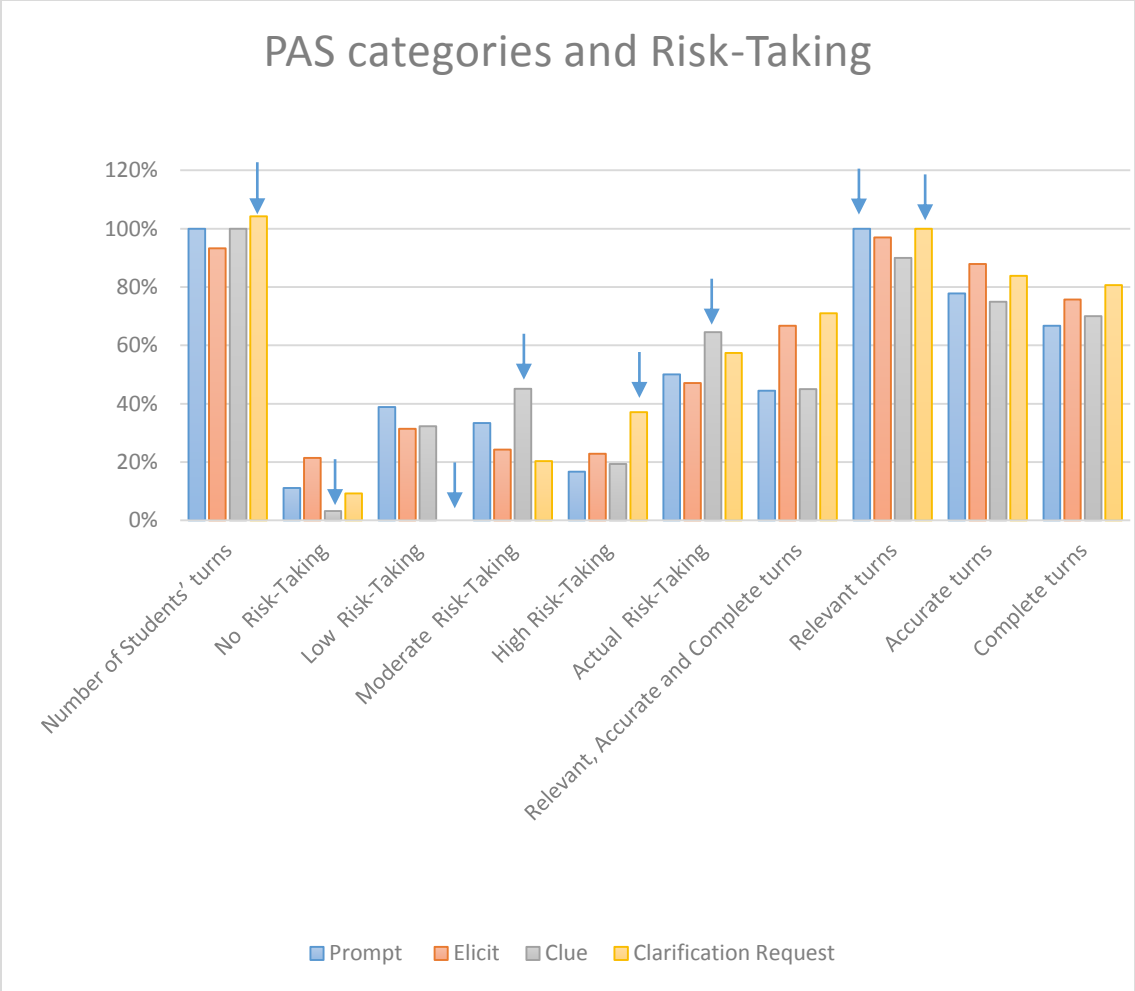

Figure (10) Distribution of PAS categories on Risk-Taking

One can see on both PAS and GAS categories in Figure (09) and Figure (10). These indicate the best results with each measure or level of risk-taking. For example, regarding the measure of "Number of Students' Turns', it is the category of 'Clarification Requests' that corresponds to the highest number of them. A summary, in the beginning of this section, based on such comparisons can be consulted.

Conclusion

The qualitative as well as the quantitative accounts of interaction permitted a clear view on the relationship between the selected aspects which were assumed to be scaffolding to Risk-Taking. Clear and repetitive relationships are established between these aspects in addition to others (which were not selected at first, but developed in the course of the study) with Risk-Taking in either positive or negative connections.

With respect to the first hypothesis which assumes Referential Questions to be more scaffolding to Risk-Taking than Display Questions, it is to a high degree supports by the co-occurrence more students' turns, more Actual Risk-Taking, more High Risk-Taking, less Low Risk-Taking and No Risk-Taking instances and more Perfect Turns i.e., Relevant, Accurate and Complete Turns. On the other hand, Display Questions have the virtue of being followed by more Moderate Risk-Taking, Relevant, Accurate or Complete Turns.

Second, with regard to Prompting-Answer Strategies, assumed to scaffold better Risk-Taking than Giving-Answer Strategies, they share the scaffolding function with Giving-Answer Strategies. The former are related to more students' turns, more Actual Risk-Taking, less No Risk-Taking, while the latter account for more High and Moderate Risk-Taking and the production of Relevant, Accurate and/or Complete Turns. In other words, if the teacher aims at more participation which brings forth more mixed turns of one-word and multi-word responses and initiations, then PAS are most suitable. Moreover, if the teacher aims at eliciting responses and initiations that are imperfect on some or all measures of relevancy, accuracy and completeness, and that serve to highlight problematic spots in students' language, PAS are the most suitable too. GAS are most likely to result in perfect turns that are well-formed and are dominated by multi-word responses and initiations.

Teacher's Short Wait-Times I and II are proposed, in the last hypothesis, to scaffold better Risk taking than both No Wait-Times I and II and Extended Wait-Times I and II separately.

The picture is less clear as the results are mixed because most categories of WTI stand to correlate with different measures of Risk-Taking with a preference for Extended WTI. First, Short WTI generates the most occurrences of High Risk-Taking and Moderate

Risk-Taking, but it is No WTI that claims more Actual Risk-Taking. Second, Extended WTI correlates with relatively more Perfect Turns (Relevant, Accurate and Complete turns), an absence of Low Risk-Taking and No Risk-Taking categories as well as the occurrence most Relevant students' turns than other alternatives. Third, Short WTI is superseded by No WTI which goes hand in hand with more Accurate and Complete turns.

As for WTII, Short WTII relates to the greatest number of students' turns, High Risk-Taking Categories, and most Complete turns. No WTIIs are related with Moderate Risk-Taking, with the least No Risk-Taking and Low Risk-Taking Categories, and it also encloses most Accurate Turns.

The discussion about waiting time suggests a slight preference for the use of Extended WTI and Short WTI and Short WTII. However, the comparison is not comprehensive due to the absence of Extended WTII from the teacher discourse which obscures the results because it is highly probable that the presence of this category could have effected potential change in results.

General Conclusion

The present study has shed light on some aspects of teacher interactional behaviour that were assumed to correlate positively with increased levels of students' involvement in classroom interaction and language learning. The choice of the teacher's referential questions, prompting-answer strategies and short wait times is not arbitrary, but is rather principled and deeply anchored in theories of language learning and research findings that are discussed in the theoretical chapters.

The problems of debilitative anxiety, low participation and involvement and lack of self-esteem are evoked, now and then, by students, teachers and researchers to which some counselling is advised to overcome such negative phenomena. This study, while it admits a certain contribution of these affective considerations, represents a far cry from these accounts as it addresses these problems in a straightforward manner. Specifically speaking, it strongly endorses the view of first throwing wide open opportunities for participation, then judging how to assist it in some way. An understanding of the potential role that interaction plays in creating optimal opportunities for students to participate is primordial. Thus, chapter one comes to provide a review of classroom interaction. Moreover, awareness about the benefits and working of Risk-Taking is judged necessary for both students, who should integrate it in their repertoire of learning strategies, and teachers who should aim at eliciting such a behaviour using the most suitable scaffolds. Chapter two can be consulted in this regard.

The relevant literature that discusses classroom interaction has been surveyed. The aim was to maintain that the teacher, as the central figure in the classroom, has many choices open before him/ her in making decisions. These decisions may concern how to manage interaction using different exchange structures, questions and questioning techniques, feedback strategies that prompt students to speak or those that provide information instead. It has also shown that interaction is pivotal to language learning, and in the case of the socio-cultural theory, it is indeed equated with learning.

As regards Risk-Taking, it is defined as a strategy that predicts success in language learning and guarantees the development of one's interlanguage towards more acceptable levels owing to the fact that it is based on judicious hunches. It also increases the students'

opportunities for practice without which improvement might otherwise be severely affected.

The construct of Risk-taking has undergone a re-definition in the practical part of the dissertation that allows to quantify the construct and measure it using some selected measures of active participation that account for its multi-faceted nature. These measures are related to the number of turns that are taken by students, the amount of multi-word and one-word responses that account for high and moderate Risk-Taking, the sum of high and moderate Risk-Taking which constitutes actual Risk-Taking, the number of relevant turns, accurate turns, complete turns, and last the number of relevant, accurate and complete turns that form perfect turns.

Scaffolds for Risk-taking should not be mistaken to suggest a cause-effect relationship though; they are meant to reflect the frequent and most probable co-occurrences of aspects of teacher interactional behaviour with good measures of Risk-taking, reviewed above. Thus it was found that the teacher's referential questions are related to better Risk-Taking in terms of multi-word responses and self-initiations. They support more participation in the classroom as well as high quality students' turns or perfect turns. They also avert silent turns and simple responses (repeating teacher words, hesitating, acknowledging and choral responses). Hence, they can be assumed to be more scaffolding to Risk-Taking than display questions. Therefore, if a teacher aims to create such features, referential questions may be useful.

In cases where the teacher decides not to give free rein to participation that impedes the progress of the lesson, display questions, according to the results of this study, might be more suitable. It is common to find teachers not aiming at creating more Risk-Taking too when the set aim is to test students' knowledge of some previously taught vocabulary or grammatical point, for instance; here again, display questions should be used due to the fact that they accord with one-word responses and initiations.

Prompting-answer strategies stand in direct contrast with giving-answer strategies. The former puts the responsibility on the student to answer whereas the latter provide answers for students. It can be argued that it is obvious for prompting strategies to be more productive, but the case is not always so since helping a student to complete an idea may

encourage him/her to elaborate further, for example. It has been established, from the analysis, that prompting strategies are frequently related to better Risk-Taking. They connect with more participation, avoid silence and low quality contributions (hesitations, acknowledgement and repetition of teacher words as well as choral responses). They can also create more actual Risk-Taking items. Per contra, if the teacher wants to encourage relatively more high Risk-Taking than moderate Risk-Taking, then giving-answer strategies should be used, if one believes in the relationship they create.

Specifically speaking, asking students to clarify their productions, using clarification requests, providing hints to help them remember or contextualize their responses (i.e using clues) and prompting students respond are practices that co-occur with several positive phenomena of Risk-Taking. Whereas, teacher repetition, modelling and reformulations of students' contributions may be a means to boost students' confidence by producing more well-formed and error-free response and self-initiations.

As regards providing short wait times for students to respond, complete or edit their turns, the hypothesis is only partly confirmed, and the alternatives i.e., extended wait time and no wait times can also be useful for different measures of Risk-Taking. Because the distribution accounts for three types of waiting times, it can be said that varying the pauses both before and after students' turns is a healthy phenomenon that should be adopted to obtain different, yet still good forms of Risk-Taking.

The results of this study stand to confirm the first two hypotheses that are put forward concerning referential questions and prompting-answer strategies whereas for the last other alternatives to short wait times may be as connected to better Risk-Taking or even more telling in the case of extended wait time I.

In closing, the results of this study can be said to apply to the teacher and students observed. Given that first year LMD students show similar profiles as suggested by the questionnaire, it can be cautiously assumed that their Risk-Taking may be successfully scaffolded if the teachers orchestrate their discussion with them around more referential questions, prompting-answer strategies and a variety of waiting times especially extended ones. Teachers need to keep providing clues for students and asking them to further clarify their responses and self-initiations.

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APPENDIX I
People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Mentouri University – Constantine
Faculty of Foreign Languages
Department of English

Questionnaire For LMD Students', Year One

Dear student,

This questionnaire is part of a Magister dissertation to which you are kindly invited fill in. Your contribution will remain anonymous, and data collected will be used for the purposes of this research only.

Please, tick (√) the appropriate box and supply information where necessary.

1- Please, supply personal information about yourself:
- Age: ☐
- Sex: ☐
- Number of years at studying English ☐
- Mark in the first Oral Expression exam ☐

2- How often do you participate when your teacher calls upon you?

Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

3- How often do you volunteer to participate in the classroom communication activities?

Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

4- When do you feel that you are communicating freely and appropriately?

- When you focus on what to say i.e., the message. ☐
- When you focus on how to say i.e., grammar and vocabulary. ☐

5- When you speak and participate in classroom activities, do you
- Try to use new expressions and words? ☐
- Use only words and expressions you are sure about? ☐
- Both ☐

- Others, please specify: ……

  ……..

6- Do you feel embarrassed to volunteer answers in class?

Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

In the following, more than one choice is possible.

7- If you didn't answer "never" in question (6) i.e., if you feel worried to take part in classroom discussions, is it because you:

- are shy? ☐
- feel afraid to talk? ☐
- worry about making mistakes? ☐
- worry about your teacher's evaluation? ☐
- worry about other students' evaluation? ☐
- don't know how to express yourself? ☐
- don't know the answer? ☐
- didn't prepare the answer? ☐

8- How do you feel in the oral expression class?

Comfortable	Bored	Nervous	Relaxed	Stressed

9- What does your teacher do to support you to talk?

Encourages you ☐

Helps you ☐

Shows satisfaction ☐

Praises your participation ☐

Thank you for your cooperation

Questionnaire Results

Item 01: Personal information

(A) Age

Age	18	**19**	20	21	Above 21	No answer
Number of Students	08	98	64	18	10	02
Percentage	04%	49%	32%	09%	5%	01%

(B) Sex

Sex	Male	**Female**	No Answer
Number of Students	37	159	04
Percentage	18.5%	79.5%	02%

(C) Numbers of Years at Studying English

Number of Years	**06**	07	08	No answer
Number of Students	112	76	05	07
Percentage	56%	38%	02.5%	03.5%

(D) Mark in the First Oral Expression Exam

Mark in the First Oral Expression Exam	[05,07]	[08,10]	**[11,13]**	[14,16]	No answer
Number of Students	18	62	95	19	06
Percentage	09%	31%	47.5%	09.5%	03%

Item 02: How often do you participate when your teacher calls upon you?

Always	Often	**Sometimes**	Rarely	Never	No Answer	Total
44	31	98	22	04	01	200
22%	15.5%	49%	٪ 11	02%	0.5%	100%

Item 03: How often do you volunteer to participate in the classroom communication activities?

Always	Often	**Sometime**s	Rarely	Never	No Answer	Total
29	24	86	51	09	01	200
14.5%	12%	43%	25.5%	04.5%	0.5%	100%

Item 04: When do you feel that you are communicating freely and appropriately?

Focus on Message	Focus on Grammar and Vocabulary	Both	No answer	Total
113	73	11	03	200
56.5%	36.5%	05.5%	01.5%	100%

Item 05: When you speak and participate in classroom activities, do you

Try to use new expressions and words	Use only words and expressions you are sure about	**Both**	No answer	Total
18	83	98	01	200
09٪	41.5%	49%	0.5%	100%

Item 06: Do you feel embarrassed to volunteer answers in class?

Always	Often	**Sometimes**	Rarely	Never	No Answer	Total
26	22	78	37	36	01	200
13%	11%	39%	18.5%	18%	0.5%	100%

Item 07: If you feel worried to take part in classroom discussions, is it because you:

	Number of answers Total=385	Percentage out of 200 students	Percentage out of 385 answers
are shy?	53	26.5%	13.7%
feel afraid to talk?	41	20.5%	10.65%
worry about making mistakes?	102	51%	26.49%
worry about your teacher's evaluation?	41	20.5%	10.65%

worry about other students' evaluation?	19	09.5%	04.94%
don't know how to express yourself?	37	18.5%	09.61%
don't know the answer?	20	10%	05.19%
didn't prepare the answer?	34	17%	08.83%
Other, please specify	00	00%	00%
No Answer	38	19%	09.87%

Item 08: How do you feel in the oral expression class?

comfortable	Bored	Nervous	Relaxed	Stressed	No Answer	Total
112	12	05	72	33	06	240
56%	06%	02.5%	36%	16.5%	03%	Out 200 students
46.67%	05%	02.08%	30%	13.78%	2.5%	Out 240 answers

Item 09: What does your teacher do to support you to talk?

Encourages you	**Helps you**	Shows satisfaction	Praises your participation	No Answer	Total
91	100	35	45	05	276
45.5%	50%	17.5%	22.5%	02.5%	Out 200
32.97%	36.23%	12.68%	16.30%	01.81%	Out 276

APPENDIX II
LESSON SCRIPT

Transcription system

The transcription system used here is adapted from Walsh (2006) which is in turn based on van Lier (1988b) and Johnson (1995). In addition, utterances are punctuated and phonetic transcription are supplied to make the script more readable and user-friendly.

- **1-929** floor number
- **T** teacher
- **S** student (not identified)
- **S1, S2**, etc., identified student
- **SS** several students at once or the whole class
- yes : yes overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one student
- [do you understand?] [I see] overlap between teacher and student(s), or among students themselves
- **=** turn continues, or one turn follows another without any pause
- … pause of one second or less marked by three periods
- **(4)** silence length given in seconds
- CORrect emphatic speech
- **((4))** unintelligible 4 seconds: a stretch of unintelligible speech with the length given in seconds
- *costume* French or Arabic words and places written in italics
- **(gestures)** teacher gestures, comments and observations given in bold type

001	**T**	**I**	people who walk… usually take this part of the street **(picture on handouts)**, we call it? **(2)**
002	**S**	**R**	the road=
003	**T**	**F**	=PAVEMENT; the road is the place where the car is. This is the road, cars move on a ROAD, or on roads, but pedestrians, people who walk, move on the PAVEMENT…
		I	spell it pavement?**(1)**
004	**SS**	**R**	P-A: P-I
005	**T**	**F**	…P-A not I but A [P-A-V-E-M-E-N-T]=
006	**SS**	**R**	=[P-A-V-E-M-E-N-T]
007	**T**	**F**	= pavement as it is, ok, pronounced P-A-V-E-M-E-N-T=
		I	=well, go on…on the pavement, near the car, what is there? **(2)**
008	**S1**	**R**	erm=
009	**T**	**F/ii**	=what is there?... that object, that device with usually what? … three?=
010	**SS**	**R**	=colours=
011	**T**	**F**	=colours, three colours, yah, three lights with different colours,[red, green]=
012	**S1**	**R**	[organize the…er street]
013	**T**	**F/ii**	=and yellow or orange to [organize yah, um-hum, yes?]
014	**S1**	**R**	[organize the er streets] of different cars=
015	**S**	**R**	= movement of cars
016	**T**	**F**	**(1)** the movement of cars=
017	**S1**	**R**	= it's, it replace the er policeman of er
018	**T**	**F**	**(1)** uh huh, well, sometimes we have the policeman also, at the same time=
019	**S1**	**R**	= yes=
020	**T**	**F/ii**	=yes, so, how do we call these?**(1)** These lights that regulate the circulation the traffic, of the movement of cars in the street ...TRAFFIC LIGHTS=
021	**S2**	**R**	=yes, traffic lights=
022	**T**	**F**	=traffic lights, yah, traffic T-R-A-F-F-I-C , lights like lights L-I-G-H-T-S, like the lights here … **(points to the ceiling)**
023	**SS**	**R**	yes=
024	**T**	**I**	=we have lights over , ok, our heads, um-hum … Well, where are the lights in the class? … at the CEIling…
025	**S**	**R**	yes=
026	**T**	**F/ii**	=um-hum, the traffic lights here are on the border of the road, or on the?...
027	**SS**	**R**	pavement=
028	**T**	**F**	=pavement, yes, um-hum…
		I	opposite the car, [opposite the car on the other side of the road, what do you see]?
029	**SS**	**R**	[phone box : phone box] …
030	**T**	**F**	yes, a phone box,
		ii	can you describe this phone box? for example, its shape, what it is made of …
031	**S**	**R**	made of glass =
032	**S**	**R**	=made of glass and metal…
033	**T**	**F**	made of glass and metal…
		I	in er London, how are the phone boxes?=
034	**SS**	**R**	red : red
035	**T**	**F**	…exactly like the buses=
036	**SS**	**R**	=yes=
037	**T**	**i**	=and also what? …

038	**S**	**R**	the guird= **(pronounced /gwɪəd/)**
039	**T**	**F**	=the GUARDS of the queen=
040	**S**	**R**	= yes
041	**T**	**F**	… have a red jacket too; so, most things in English =
042	**S1**	**R**	=are red =
043	**T**	**F**	=or, sorry, in England… yah, in English peoples are red, especially in London , yes…
		I	well… the car is far where?=
044	**S**	**R**	=opposite the er [opposite the er phone box]
045	**T**	**F**	[opposite the phone box] yes, **(2)**
046	**T**	**I**	we move to picture five, yes…[what does it show you?]
047	**SS**	**R**	[big tree :big tree]
048	**S**	**R**	[tree]
049	**T**	**F**	…a large, [a large tree, uh huh] **(uses open arms to illustrate)**
050	**S**	**R**	[a man, a man] behind a tree
051	**T**	**i**	**(1)** do you see the man completely?... **(pointing from the neck up)**
052	**SS**	**R**	no: no… the head: head
053	**T**	**F/ii**	…you see his?...
054	**SS**	**R**	[head]
055	**T**	**F/ii**	[head] can you describe his head?...
056	**S1**	**R**	he has, [he has a long er a long nose]
057	**SS**	**R**	[a hat]=
058	**T**	**I**	=[he has a moustache, ok, a moustache]= **(shapes a moustache)**
059	**SS**	**R**	long nose: long nose
060	**T**	**I**	and?= **(the teacher shapes a hat over her head)**
061	**SS**	**R**	=a hat=
062	**T**	**F**	=a hat yah=
063	**S1**	**R**	=a long nose also=
064	**T**	**I**	=is it a… an ordinary hat like … [those used, for example, of simple people now], wear now?=
065	**SS**	**R**	[no: no]
066	**S**	**R**	thieves …
067	**T**	**F**	yes, it seems to be a classical hat; a hat that accompanies usually a suit =
068	**SS**	**R**	= yes=
069	**T**	**F**	= yah, it is a hat we usually put on with suits… so in French, we call it *chapeau melon* …yes…*chapeau melon*; it is, ok, special or, yah, it has a special form. nowadays, people don't[wear such hats]=
070	**S**	**R**	**[((1))]**
071	**T**	**I**	= except perhaps for what? **(1)**
		i	when they participate to a party or a feast or a festival, they … how do we say... when people, yah, put special clothes to be like this or that person? …
072	**S1**	**R**	they disguise = **(pronounced /dɪsˈgɪz/)**
073	**T**	**F**	= yes, to be the same as another person...they disguise…
074	**S**	**R**	disguise.
075	**T**	**F/ii**	…yes, and how do we call such a way of clothing or such clothes ...that are put on in surprise parties ... when you want to be, for example , like *Zorro*?=
076	**S1**	**R**	= disguise clothes
077	**T**	**F**	…yes… we disguise, we put on a costume =
078	**S**	**R**	= yes
079	**T**	**I**	= so, don't confuse the word costume in English and the word costume in French; un costume in French corresponds to a?...

080	**S**	**R**	a suit=
081	**T**	**F/ii**	=a suit S-U-I-T, a suit. what is a suit? **(1)** [the kind of clothes that consists of what]?
082	**S**	**R**	[**((1))**]
083	**S**	**R**	[it's classical clothes]
084	**S**	**R**	[er…]
085	**T**	**F**	…usually, a jacket =
086	**S**	**R**	= jacket=
087	**T**	**F**	= and a pair of trousers, yah,
		I	that are made of the same?=
088	**S1**	**R**	=material=
089	**T**	**F**	=material, of the same cloth…
090	**S1**	**R**	Yes
091	**T**	**I**	… yes, and usually there is also an under… an under-?=
092	**S1**	**R**	= yes=
093	**T**	**F**	= [jacket
		I	which has no?] **(point to the arms and wrists)**
094	**S1**	**R**	[a shirt]=
095	**T**	**F/ii**	= no, with the shirt=
096	**S1**	**R**	=ah, yes, yes=
097	**T**	**F**	=an under- jacket which has no sleeves=
098	**SS**	**R**	=yes: yes=
099	**S**	**R**	=sleeveless
100	**T**	**F**	…SLEEVELESS, yes, a sleeveless under-jacket of the same cloth, and of course
		I	this kind of clothing is put on with or is worn with?**(2)**
101	**S1**	**R**	a tie=
102	**T**	**F**	=a [shirt… and a…tie]=
103	**SS**	**R**	=[shirt… tie]
104	**T**	**I**	in England, people who work in offices are obliged [to do what?]
105	**S1**	**R**	[to wear], to wear =
106	**T**	**F**	=to put on a suit with a white jac...shirt, sorry, and a tie.
		I/i	how do we call them, such people? **(2)** the shirt is white **(2)**
107	**S**	**R**	white er =
108	**T**	**F/ii**	=white… yah?...White COLLARS=
109	**S**	**R**	=white collars=
110	**T**	**F**	=yes, we call them white collars; these people are CLERKS …
		I	you know what are clerks?...
111	**S**	**R**	no=
112	**T**	**F**	=employees who work behind the desk in an office …= **(uses gestures)**
113	**S1**	**R**	yes…
114	**T**	**F**	= yah, we call them clerks C-L-E-R-K. A clerk is an employee who works in an office, ok, It means that he sits at a desk and, ok, does his job=
115	**S**	**R**	=yes=
116	**T**	**I**	= which consists of, perhaps, organizing documents or filling, ok, some orders and so on …checking... well, we come back to our large tree…
		i	what does this tree provide the place it is in with?**(3) (uses gestures)** yah, when you sit under such a tree **(1)**
117	**S**	**R**	fresh air =
118	**T**	**F/ii**	= yes, there is fresh air because we[are in nature]=
119	**S2**	**R**	[shadow, shadow]

120	**T**	**F/ii**	= in a natural place, is it shadow?...
121	**S**	**R**	No
122	**T**	**F**	uh huh, yah **(2)**
123	**SS**	**R**	because … under the person =
124	**T**	**F**	= we call this shade, I think, SHADE…
125	**S2**	**R**	Shade
126	**T**	**I**	…yes, we call this shade, the large tree provides you or the place where you are with [shade] =
127	**SS**	**R**	[shade]
128	**T**	**I**	= so, we say the place is?=
129	**S1**	**R**	=shady
130	**T**	**F**	… shady, yes. Some adjectives in English are obtained out of what, the noun plus the subject -Y- and we get the corresponding adjective.
		I	when we talk about a place where it rains, we say the place is?=
131	**S**	**R**	=rainy=
132	**T**	**F**	=rainy;
		I	when the place is covered with sun?=
133	**SS**	**R**	=[sunny : sunny]=
134	**T**	**F/I**	= [we say it is… sunny] and so on. For example, people or let's say men especially have a lot of hair, yes, on their faces=
135	**S**	**R**	=hairy=
136	**T**	**I**	=if they don't shave, their face is?=
137	**SS**	**R**	[hairy]
138	**T**	**F**	=[hairy] and so on, ok , we have many other adjectives like that. So, remember that when we want to qualify something, to use an adjective, it is possible for you to form it out of a noun plus, ok, -Y- and you get the corresponding adjective…
		I	= yes, continue with this famous tree, can you talk about the colours and what the tree consists of? …yes…
		i	[are there colours in this tree?]
139	**S**	**R**	[of er… green] =
140	**S**	**R**	=yes=
141	**S**	**R**	=no=
142	**T**	**F/I**	=yes! not on the picture but on the tree naturally=
143	**SS**	**R**	=green: green=
144	**S**	**R**	=green and brown=
145	**T**	**F/ii**	yes, what is gree in the tree what is green, sorry? you say [the green colour, what is green?]
146	**SS**	**R**	[the leaves :the leaves]
147	**T**	**F**	the leaves, yah =
		I	what is the singular of leaves? **(1)**
148	**SS**	**R**	leaf: [leaf]
149	**T**	**F**	[a leaf] L-E-A-F and leaves is an irregular [plural] =
150	**S**	**R**	[plural]
151	**T**	**F**	= yes, in English there are regular [and irregular plurals] =
152	**SS**	**R**	[and irregular plurals]
153	**T**	**F/I**	yes, this word makes its plural form with a small change=
154	**S2**	**R**	= change –F- V-E-S=
155	**T**	**F/I**	= the –F- changes into V-E-S, like what? give other words that are like that...
156	**S**	**R**	knife=
157	**S**	**R**	=wife

158	**T**	**F**	… knife, knives; wife, wives, yes uh huh…
		I	life? =
159	**S**	**R**	= self, selves=
160	**T**	**F**	= lives… c'est bon…
		I	ok, we continue, you said the green colour, the leaves are green, what about the support of the tree?**... (uses gestures to shape a tree trunk)**
161	**SS**	**R**	brown: brown…
162	**T**	**F/ii**	what we call it? **(1)** the TRUNK T-R-U-N-K; the trunk, the support of the tree, how is it?=
163	**SS**	**R**	[brown]
164	**T**	**F**	=[usually brown] yes, it can be dark brown or light brown,
		I	yes, when we speak about colours, uh huh, when we speak about colours, the same colour can be?**...**
165	**SS**	**R**	dark and =
166	**T**	**F/ii**	= dark or? **...**
167	**S**	**R**	light=
168	**T**	**F**	=light; dark meaning very coloured=
169	**S**	**R**	=yes
170	**T**	**F**	= or violent or… tone; let's have a look here; of course, not the black, neither black colour nor a white=
171	**S**	**R**	=yes=
172	**T**	**F**	= the black and white colours can make the extremes, but in the tree we have other colours blue, green, grey, red, pink, yes,… orange and here we may have …slight differences in the TONE of the colour; it can be dark=
173	**S**	**R**	= or light
174	**T**	**F**	very coloured, yes, or light…
		I	**(Teacher nominates a student in the class) S!**… has ? **(3)**
175	**S**	**R**	a dark blue in her veil
176	**T**	**F**	**...** yes, blue, blue colour, but there are different blues, let's say bright here **(points to the student's veil)** and a bit darker as far as the jacket is concerned.
		I	If we look at er…what's his name… sorry! yes, what's your name?...
177	**S**	**R**	**((1)) (s!! gives his name)**
178	**T**	**F/I**	ok, what about his blue, if you want, clothes **,** light or dark? **(2)**
179	**S**	**R**	dark=
180	**SS**	**R**	=between the two: between the two
181	**T**	**F**	…darker than hers, the blue he is wearing is darker than S! ,ok, well, what about another colour … the green perhaps **(points to a veil)** green **(points to another)** and green , she has some green…
182	**S**	**R**	yes=
183	**T**	**I**	=here it is light and here it is=
184	**SS**	**R**	[dark]
185	**T**	**F/I**	=[dark] all right, well, perhaps we haven't chosen the colours. let's continue, so, the man seems to, to do what behind the tree? **(1)**
		i	what is he doing here? **(1)**
186	**SS**	**R**	he is hiding: hiding
187	**T**	**F**	… he is hiding **(uses mime)**, yes, he is perhaps followed by the police =
188	**SS**	**R**	= yes: yes…
189	**T**	**F**	=or by someone=
190	**S**	**R**	yes: yes…
191	**T**	**I/i**	usually, who hides? … people who have committed what? crimes and =

192	**S**	**R**	= criminals=
193	**S**	**R**	= yes, yah, who have created problems=
194	**S**	**R**	=yes=
195	**T**	**F**	=well, or perhaps simply, he doesn't want his [wife…to find him]
196	**S**	**R**	[yes] **(students laugh)**]
197	**T**	**I**	um-hum, the man is how: sleeping , lying…?
198	**S**	**R**	No
199	**T**	**F/ii**	he is like me, he is?
200	**S**	**R**	[standing]
201	**T**	**F**	[standing] yes, the man is standing behind the tree.
		I	let's look at this famous picture six…what does it remind you of?**(2)** it reminds you of *Constantine* =
202	**SS**	**R**	=yes=
203	**T**	**F**	= *Constantine* is, yes, the town of bridges, we have many bridges in *Constantine*, we have the suspended or the hospital=
204	**S**	**R**	Yes
205	**T**	**I**	= we have what? **(3) (uses gestures)**
		F	the lift bridge, the bridge that permits you to reach the lift which … takes you to…, how do we say… *Trik Djdida*= **(a name of the street)**
206	**S**	**R**	= the new road= **(literal translation of the street's name above)**
207	**T**	**F**	= near *Café Nedjma*…
		I	you know what a lift is, what is a lift?...
208	**S**	**R**	l'ascenseur=
209	**T**	**F**	= that device, that, if you want, cabin that permits you to, ok, go upstairs; instead of going upstairs, you get into the lift and you reach the place where you want to be, ok…
		I	have you gone there?=
210	**S**	**R**	= yes
211	**T**	**I**	have you taken the lift?=
212	**S**	**R**	=yes=
213	**S**	**R**	=no=
214	**T**	**F**	=no! some with yes, say yes and the others say no; so you must try it, you must go to the lift and get up…yes,
		I	can you translate what a lift is?=
215	**SS**	**R**	l'ascenseur:l'ascenseur **(in French)**
216	**S**	**R**	*elmisaad* **(in Arabic)**
217	**T**	**F**	… *elmissad* ,yes, l'ascenseur
		I	and people ordinarily say what? … *essonseur*… **(local dialect)**
218	**SS**	**R**	**((1)) (students laugh)**
219	**T**	**F**	yes, we try to use French but a bit hard =
220	**S**	**R**	= broken French=
221	**T**	**F**	=broken French, yah, changed French [because people who use such French] =
222	**S1**	**R**	[colonised er]
223	**T**	**F**	= are illiterate…
223	**T**	**I**	so, here we see a?...
224	**S**	**R**	bridge=
225	**T**	**F/ii**	=how is the bridge here? **(1)**
226	**S**	**R**	small=
227	**T**	**F**	=small, yes…
228	**S1**	**R**	small bridge=

229	**T**	**F**	=it is a small bridge,
		I	what is it made of?
		i	Is it metallic? =
230	**SS**	**R**	= no =
231	**T**	**F/ii**	= like the hospital bridge or the lift bridge?...
232	**SS**	**R**	no=
233	**T**	**F/ii**	=it is like what?...
234	**S**	**R**	stone=
235	**T**	**F**	it is like the other bridges in *Constantine*, the Roman bridges, *Sidi Rached*=
236	**S**	**R**	=yes=
237	**T**	**I**	= and *El Kantara*. These bridges look like this one or resemble this one
		i	because they are made of?
238	**SS**	**R**	[stone]
239	**T**	**F**	[stone] , it is a stony bridge, yes, this is a small stony bridge.
		I	Where is it, the bridge? **(1) (draws an elevated curved line with her hands)**
240	**S**	**R**	over the… the river=
241	**T**	**F**	=it is [over the river]
242	**SS**	**R**	[the river]
243	**T**	**I**	well, what about London's Bridge… and London's, if you want, river?...
244	**S**	**R**	over the city town=
245	**T**	**F/ii**	= yes, how is the bridge of London called? **(2)** Westminster Bridge=
246	**S**	**R**	Yes
247	**T**	**I**	=Westminster, and it is over what?
		i	It is a very big bridge over what? **(1)** the river called?... the river that crosses London? **(2)** the THAMES, the Thames, yah T-H-A-M-E-S, the Thames. In French, we call it La Tamise , la Tamise and even in French it is not written like in English, I remember we write it T-A-M-I-S-E, but in English we write it T-H ,sorry, T-H-A-M-E-S and of course it is capitalized=
248	**S**	**R**	=yes: yes=
249	**T**	**I**	=because [it's a name of a]
250	**S**	**R**	[It's a name]
251	**T**	**F**	=river and names of rivers are capitalized exactly like the proper names of people and places, countries, villages and so on, mountains, seas, oceans, ok, and even animals,
		I	pets; we can have an animal which we consider like what?... like our child=
252	**S1**	**R**	= a member of the er family=
253	**T**	**F**	= a member of the family, right; we [give it also a proper name] which is capitalized
254	**SS**	**R**	[name: name]
255	**S2**	**R**	and special food=
256	**T**	**F/ii**	=special?=
257	**SS**	**R**	food: food…
258	**T**	**F/ii**	for example?=
259	**S1**	**R**	= Couscous … **(students laugh)**
260	**T**	**F/ii**	Couscous!... what?...
261	**S1**	**R**	Couscous of cats=
262	**T**	**F**	=yes, the food special for cats=

263	**S**	**R**	=yes=
264	**T**	**F**	=the mark you mean because we usually, don't capitalize foods , but marks of foods, yes ; Wiscass or, I don't know, kit Cat, things like that, yes, because it is a mark more than, ok, food
265	**S**	**R**	=yes
266	**T**	**I**	so, here the bridge is stony, and it..., yah, **(uses mime)** it is over?...
267	**SS**	**R**	[a river]
268	**T**	**F**	[a river]
269	**S**	**R**	=yes
270	**T**	**I**	look at number seven **(2)**, uh huh, what is it?...
271	**SS**	**R**	table: table
272	**S**	**R**	there is a book under the table
273	**SS**	**R**	[under the table]
274	**T**	**F**	[the book is under the table]
		I	how is the form of the table?
		i	what can you say about this table?...
275	**SS**	**R**	**((1))**
276	**S**	**R**	rectangular
277	**T**	**F**	it has four sides, but they are not equal, the four sides of the table are unequal=
278	**S**	**R**	=yes=
279	**T**	**F/ii**	=they are not ?=
280	**S**	**R**	= equal=
281	**T**	**F/ii**	= they don't have the same…what?… **(uses gestures)**
282	**SS**	**R**	[length]
283	**T**	**F**	[length] yah,
		I	two parallel, what?…sides of the table are equal and the two others are unequal,
			it gives you what?=
		i	
284	**S**	**R**	a rectangle=
285	**T**	**F**	=a RECTANGLE ;
		I	so, the table is? …
286	**SS**	**R**	[rectangular, yes]
287	**T**	**F/ii**	[rectangular] the table is rectangular, or has a?...
288	**SS**	**R**	[form: shape]
289	**T**	**F**	[rectangular form], shape, yes;
		I	what about… the support for the table?...
290	**SS**	**R**	four legs=
291	**T**	**F/ii**	=four legs?=
292	**SS**	**R**	=yes
293	**T**	**F/ii**	… well, it's as commissioned, and er I am not used to saying legs… I have always said =
294	**S**	**R**	=feet=
295	**T**	**I**	= I have always used ?...
296	**S**	**R**	feet
297	**T**	**F**	the word feet for objects or animals; legs for me are special to humans, but anyway, I think that it is acceptable and we can say it. one of the students of the other group said "madam, we say legs"; I said "we say feet"=
298	**S**	**R**	= because more appropriate for human beings not =

299	**T**	**F**	= no, I am habituated even in different activities I gave to my students, or I used to give to my students, I said… feet; we have always found the word feet as far as tables and animals are concerned. Well, let's accept also legs =
300	**SS**	**R**	=legs
301	**T**	**F**	… well, don't look in the dictionary, I'm sure of that, your friend has already, ok, checked, and we can say the legs of the table, but I'm habituated to saying the [feet of the table]
302	**S**	**R**	[feet]
303	**S2**	**R**	no problem
304	**T**	**I**	…well, how many [feet or legs]?
305	**SS**	**R**	= [four]: four=
306	**T**	**F**	=four legs, yah, uh huh…
		I	let's look at picture [… number eight] =
307	**S**	**R**	[eight]
308	**SS**	**R**	=a dog: a dog
309	**T**	**F**	… well, it's a dog…
		I	what is the dog doing?=
310	**SS**	**R**	=sleeping: sleeping=
311	**T**	**F**	=lying=,
312	**S**	**R**	=[relaxing]
313	**T**	**F**	[the dog is] lying.
		I	where is it lying?...
314	**S**	**R**	in front of the fire=
315	**S**	**R**	= in front of the fire=
316	**T**	**F**	=yes, in front of the fire…
		I	where is the fire?**(2)** how do we **(uses gestures)** call this device where we
		i	make fire usually inside houses?... the chimney=
317	**SS**	**R**	=chimney=
318	**T**	**F**	= chimney, yah ; we have already spoken about the chimney in picture one, that device **(uses gestures)** over, or getting out of the roof=
319	**S**	**R**	= of houses
320	**T**	**F**	= yes, of the building in the middle **(points out to the picture)**
321	**S**	**R**	Chimneys
322	**T**	**F**	...chimney, C-H-I-M-N-E-Y.in plural we add the -S- =
323	**SS**	**R**	= chimneys
324	**T**	**F**	because it is a regular plural, yah, chimneys, alright! The -Y- here is not transformed=
		I	=do you know your spelling rule as far a the final -Y- is concerned?=
325	**SS**	**R**	=yes
326	**T**	**F/ii**	…yes, when do you change the -Y- into an -I- before adding … what you must add…
327	**SS**	**R**	consonant er =
328	**T**	**F**	= when the -Y- is preceded by a consonant.
		I	here, chimney, the -Y- is preceded by ?...
329	**SS**	**R**	[a vowel]
330	**T**	**F**	[a vowel]; so, no change, you just add the -S- like in boys, toys and so on=
331	**S**	**R**	= yes=
332	**T**	**F**	= you make the plural of such a word by adding -S- without changing anything; the -Y- is preceded by a vowel, ok; so, I repeat C-H-I-M-N-E-Y- and the -S- for the notion of plural…
		I	well, so the dog is lying where?=

333	**SS**	**R**	= in front of the fire=
334	**SS**	**R**	Near
335	**T**	**F**	…near the fire, in front of the fire, ok, he is in front of the fire **(2)**
		I	well **(2)** look at picture =
336	**S**	**R**	= nine
337	**T**	**I**	= what what **(to a student speaking in a low voice)** what are you talking about? …
338	**S3**	**R**	**((…))**
339	**T**	**F/ii**	… well, say it loudly so that the others react or, perhaps they need the information you are giving to your friend...repeat...
340	**S3**	**R**	spelling **((1))**
341	**T**	**F/ii**	uh huh, spell it [...louder !]
342	**S3**	**R**	[C-H-I-] … C-H-I-=
343	**T**	**F/ii**	=C-H-?
344	**S1**	**R**	-I-
345	**T**	**F**	**(speaking to S1)** no, is it –I-?
346	**S**	**R**	C-H-**((…))**
347	**T**	**F/ii**	no, wait a minute **(to the student who is correcting)** what's –E- and what's –I-?=
348	**S**	**R**	-I- … -E-
349	**T**	**F**	no, compare these letters to the French; it will be better to not apply the alphabet=
350	**SS**	**R**	/ iː/ is /ə/ (French "e")
351	**T**	**F/ii**	yah, in French is it /ə/? no, it is the French / i / **(letter "I")** . [C-H-I, in this case yes] =
352	**S**	**R**	[/aɪ/, yes]
353	**T**	**F**	C-H-I that's why I told her to say it loudly because I heard her, ok, talking to her friend, ok, [C-H-I-M-N-E-Y now it's the French "e"]
354	**SS**	**R**	[/M-N-E … /ə/]
355	**T**	**F**	=-Y-,it is the French /igrek / "y" =
356	**S**	**R**	= /igrek /
357	**T**	**I**	and then the –S-, do we need an –S- here?
		i	no! we don't need an –S- because we are in front of ?=
358	**S**	**R**	=[one chimney, yes]
359	**T**	**F**	[one chimney, yes]but, I have just mentioned that a plural is obtained by the addition of the -S-
360	**S**	**R**	Yes
361	**T**	**I**	ok, if you have nothing to add about this, move to the following picture=
362	**S1**	**R**	=we have a vase full of flowers=
363	**S2**	**R**	=full of flowers…
364	**T**	**F**	yes, uh huh, we have a device called vase which we use to?
		I	**(the teacher uses gestures)** =
365	**S**	**R**	= put flowers
366	**S**	**R**	= inside, inside the vase=
367	**T**	**F**	=ok to decorate the place especially houses, ok, in houses, we have vaSES =
368	**S**	**R**	= on the table=
369	**T**	**F/ii**	= listen we have vaSES for, yah, the decoration of houses and a vase contains what? …
370	**SS**	**R**	=flowers: flowers=
371	**T**	**F**	=flowers, yes=

372	**S1**	**R**	=roses
373	**T**	**I**	… are always..are the flowers, sorry, always natural?...
374	**SS**	**R**	no: no
375	**S**	**R**	artificial=
376	**T**	**F**	some people use artificial, yah, plastic flowers, or perhaps strong paper flowers =
377	**S**	**R**	= yes=
378	**T**	**F**	= with a lot of colours, as it is the case nowadays in markets…
		I	what do we have in markets nowadays?=
379	**SS**	**R**	=artificial er : artificial flowers=
380	**T**	**F**	=yah, a lot of artificial flowers are sold and people are running and buying=
381	**S**	**R**	=yes=
382	**S**	**R**	=beautiful…
383	**T**	**F**	=because they are really beautiful, yes…but, natural flowers are [better]
384	**SS**	**R**	[better]
385	**T**	**F**	yes,
		I	why are they better? **(1)**
386	**S**	**R**	smell=
387	**S**	**R**	=because sometimes they[smell]=
388	**S**	**R**	[beauty]…
389	**T**	**F**	they have a good smelling…, or a good smell; they are colourful
390	**S2**	**R**	but, natural flowers wilt er… so quickly
391	**T**	**F/ii**	… they?
392	**SS**	**R**	wilt quickly=
393	**T**	**F/ii**	=uh huh, repeat what you said?...
394	**S2**	**R**	natural flowers wilt quickly
395	**S**	**R**	welt
396	**S2**	**R**	WILT=
397	**T**	**F**	=spell it!=
398	**SS**	**R**	=W-I-L-T : W-I-L-T
399	**S2**	**R**	W-I-L-T
400	**T**	**F/ii**	… wilt?=
401	**S2**	**R**	=yes
402	**T**	**F**	… well, I don't know the word, I'm sorry but, I would say faint **(3)** I would say …yah… **(noise)** yes , ok, alright, we learn from you
403	**SS**	**R**	Yes
404	**T**	**I**	…but, it is better; we can do what? … replace them
405	**S**	**R**	replace, yes
406	**T**	**I**	= we get ,yes, new flowers [each time] =
407	**S**	**R**	[every day]
408	**T**	**I**	= and we have to, to do what? to care of the flowers, to care of the flowers[we ((…)) to change the water]=
409	**S2**	**R**	[put in a building er]
410	**S**	**R**	Yes
411	**S**	**R**	[every day]
412	**T**	**I**	[and to cut] , to cut what? …
		i	the roots?
413	**S**	**R**	Yes
414	**SS**	**R**	yes! **(students laugh)**
415	**T**	**F**	… we don't cut the roots because the flowers don't have roots when we put them in a vase, we cut the STEMS=

416	**SS**	**R**	=stems
417	**T**	**F**	=the support of the flowers, we cut it from time to time to permit the flowers to... stay as long as possible=
418	**S**	**R**	=yes
419	**T**	**I**	…what are the vases made of? **(2)**
		i	what are the [vases made of]?
420	**SS**	**R**	[glass: glass]
421	**T**	**F**	they can be made of glass…
422	**S1**	**R**	[crystal]
423	**S**	**R**	[yes]
424	**T**	**F**	=they can be made of…yah, crystal is [a valuable kind of glass, yes]
425	**SS**	**R**	[mud, mud]
426	**T**	**I**	…and crystal is very expensive
427	**SS**	**R**	Yes
428	**T**	**I**	but we may have some ordinary glass, it can be also made of what? **(1)**
429	**S**	**R**	**((…))**
430	**T**	**F/ii**	mud! is it mud?
431	**S2**	**R**	with silver also
432	**T**	**F**	**(2)** pottery
433	**S**	**R**	yes, pottery
434	**T**	**F/I**	it can be a pottery ,ok,vase and pottery vases are made of what? **(1)** a kind of, let's say, mud=
435	**S**	**R**	= a special mud=
436	**T**	**F**	= special… earth
437	**SS**	**R**	yes: yes
438	**T**	**F**	earth which is mixed to water and perhaps other things to get a paste...which is moulded, ok, which is given a shape either by hand, manual, or put into a mould to get a certain form and then…=
439	**S1**	**R**	put in the er…
440	**T**	**F**	= we put it to dry…
441	**S**	**R**	Yes
442	**T**	**I**	when it is dried, what do we do? **(1)** we bake it =
443	**S1**	**R**	= yes, yes=
444	**T**	**I**	= we put it in an oven and we bake it
445	**SS**	**R**	Yes
446	**T**	**I**	then what do we do?=
447	**S1**	**R**	=we paint it=
448	**T**	**F**	=we can, yes, paint it, [and make drawings for it] , yes=
449	**SS**	**R**	[by different colours and , drawings]
450	**S1**	**R**	= to be more beautiful…
451	**T**	**F/ii**	for decoration, yah, to…to make it more beautiful and also for what? **(3)** uh huh, according [to the drawings and colours =
452	**S**	**R**	= [colour of drawing]
453	**T**	**F/ii**	= we can do what?**(2)**
454	**S**	**R**	choose the flowers
455	**T**	**F**	uh huh, associate.. the pot, yah, or the object to Tizi Ouzo, to the Aures =
456	**S1**	**R**	= oh, yes, yes
457	**T**	**F**	= a part of here in Algeria, to Shahara: to the Touareg or Targui …we say this is made by the Targui, this is made by the [Kabail] =
458	**S1**	**R**	[Kabils]
459	**T**	**F**	= this is made by the Chawi, ok! and so on, alright! yes,

		I	ok, and a lot of things are made of pottery=
460	**S**	**R**	=yes=
461	**T**	**I**	=vessels, place in which we eat, ok, Pans in which we cook...well, the famous **(draws a circular line)** tray which is usually circular which we use for what?...
462	**S1**	**R**	Kesra
463	**T**	**F**	yes, for making our famous Algerian bread called Kesra. All of you, ok, make bread at home
464	**S1**	**R**	No
465	**T**	**I**	it is special and we have different breads what? **(1)** yah, the one with yeast **(2)** =
466	**S**	**R**	yes=
467	**T**	**I**	= which mutates or become thicker **(2)**
		i	the one with what?**(1)**
468	**SS**	**R**	oil : oil
469	**T**	**F/I**	…with oil, yes, Rakhsisse ; the one with what?... with water and , just water and salt, and we have a lot of breads, or a lot of kinds of… sorry! **(to a student speaking in a low voice)…**
		i	we have those we… do what?
470	**S1**	**R**	*khobz Eddar*
471	**T**	**F**	…yah? **(2)**
472	**S2**	**R**	the bread of house… **(literal translation of *khobz Eddar*)**
473	**T**	**F**	yes, and usually, this kind of bread is not baked at home = =it must be baked in an oven, ok=
474	**S**	**R**	=yes
475	**T**	**I**	we have bread which, which is baked [in an oven] I mean between two fires=
476	**S1**	**R**	[in an oven]
477	**S**	**R**	= yes
478	**T**	**I**	= and the one we call Kesra which is, if you want, baked on?
479	**SS**	**R**	[a tray] , yes
480	**T**	**F**	[a tray] a kind of, yes, flat…a flat what.. vessel or device, object, ok, these are, of course, a part of our culture =
481	**SS**	**R**	= yes
482	**T**	**I**	= when we speak about life, about things, we must, ok, give a deep part to our own culture
483	**SS**	**R**	Yes
484	**T**	**I**	yes, traditions and customs, they concern us, it is our life, of course… well, let's move to the following picture, number ten=
485	**S1**	**R**	=cinema and restaurant
486	**T**	**F/ii**	**(3)** uh huh, yah?=
487	**SS**	**R**	=we have two buildings: we have two buildings…
488	**T**	**F**	two buildings, yes…
489	**S1**	**R**	one is higher than the other=
490	**T**	**F**	=yes, it is=
491	**S2**	**R**	[cinema on the left]
492	**T**	**F/ii**	[not only is it] higher, but …=
493	**S1**	**R**	= larger =
494	**T**	**F**	= [larger, yes]
495	**S2**	**R**	= [larger, yes]
496	**T**	**I**	not only is it [higher, but larger]
497	**SS**	**R**	[higher…larger]

498	**T**	**F**	…what am I doing here with this form? **(1)**
499	**S**	**R**	comparison
500	**SS**	**R**	describing : describing…
501	**T**	**F**	uh huh, and I'm emphasizing; I'm insisting on the importance of …the size of the buildings here=
502	**S**	**R**	=yes
503	**T**	**F**	…I said not only is it …large or high but large as well, yah!...
504	**S2**	**R**	we have the restaurant on the left and a cine…no, on the right and cinema on the left=
505	**T**	**F**	= yes, to be precise here, we can, yes, situate the two buildings according to our body, according to our hands…
506	**S**	**R**	yes=
507	**T**	**F**	we have a right hand and a left hand, and we usually situate things and places according to this; so, on the left and on the right; on our left and on our right… well **(4)**
		I	can we move to the next picture, if you have nothing to add?…
508	**S**	**R**	yes=
509	**T**	**F**	=we can give more details about the buildings=
510	**S1**	**R**	=yes
511	**T**	**I**	…for example, as far as what?=
512	**S1**	**R**	= the restaurant has two er… windows with curtains=
513	**T**	**I**	= yes, the restaurant looks like a house
514	**S**	**R**	=yes
515	**T**	**F/I**	…it has two windows with? =
516	**SS**	**R**	= curtains : [curtains]
517	**T**	**F/I**	=[beautiful] curtains ,yah, you know what curtains are?=
518	**SS**	**R**	=yes: yes
519	**T**	**I**	… yes, curtains are used to decorate and also to...to do what? **(1)**
520	**S**	**R**	to protect=
521	**T**	**F**	[to protect, yes,] =
522	**S**	**R**	[from the sun]
523	**T**	**F/ii**	= the house or place from light or from sunshine or anything else, even from what? … from cold, when we have those heavy, those thick curtains, yes…=
524	**S1**	**R**	= and we have both of the names of the cinema and the restaurant=
525	**T**	**F**	…uh huh, we have also the names which are written in big, yes, the restaurant's name is [*Chez Nous*, yes, it is French, of course]
526	**SS**	**R**	[*Chez Nous: Chez Nous*]
527	**T**	**F**	*Chez Nous* ,yah, means in our house… and **(2)**
		I	what about the cinema's name?**(1)**
528	**SS**	**R**	ballet=
529	**T**	**F**	ballet, ballet,
		I	ok, we move to number what?
530	**S**	**R**	[eleven]
531	**T**	**F**	[eleven]
532	**S**	**R**	we have a thief, we have a thief, here=
533	**T**	**I**	=here again, we are in presence of a big [window] =
534	**SS**	**R**	[window]
535	**T**	**I**	=or a large window with? **(2)**
536	**S**	**R**	curtains=
537	**T**	**F**	=yes, [curtains],

538	**S1**	**R**	[and very big flowers]
539	**T**	**F**	= uh huh **(1)**
540	**S**	**R**	how do we spell curtains?
541	**T**	**F/I**	…curtains, how do you spell curtains? …
542	**S1**	**R**	[C-U-R-T-A-I-N]
543	**T**	**F**	[C-U-R-T-A-I-N-S] a curtain and curtains; usually, we say curtains because…=
544	**S1**	**R**	Pair
545	**T**	**F**	= yah, we have a pair of curtains, yes, or the curtain has two parts; so, we say curtains…
		I	well, [where's the man?]
546	**S1**	**R**	[we have a thief] , outside the window
547	**T**	**F/ii**	**(2)** outside or inside?=
548	**SS**	**R**	=outside: outside =
549	**T**	**F**	=yes, he is outside because the window is shut =
550	**SS**	**R**	= yes=
551	**T**	**F/ii**	= the window is?...
552	**SS**	**R**	shut=
553	**T**	**I**	the man is looking?... **(uses gestures)**
554	**S**	**R**	for something
555	**T**	**F**	through … [through the glass]=
556	**S**	**R**	[through the glass]
557	**S2**	**R**	[he looks like]
558	**T**	**I**	= …of the window, the man is looking through the glass of the window, [can you give?]=
559	**S2**	**R**	[he has the appearance of a thief]
560	**T**	**F**	=yes=
561	**S1**	**R**	= he looks like a thief=
562	**T**	**F**	= he seems to be a thief …
563	**SS**	**R**	yes
564	**T**	**F**	he has the appearance of a thief , he seems to be a thief =
565	**S**	**R**	= yes
566	**T**	**F**	= ok, he looks like a thief , he resembles a thief
567	**S**	**R**	yes
568	**T**	**I**	well, and he is certainly here **(uses gestures) (2)**
569	**S**	**R**	**((1))**
570	**T**	**F/ii**	sorry! **(to the student)**, do you want me to repeat?...
571	**S**	**R**	yes=
572	**T**	**F/ii**	=to repeat what?=
573	**S1**	**R**	= seem=
574	**T**	**F**	=I said he seems to be a thief, to SEEM=
575	**S1**	**R**	=yes, to look like=
576	**T**	**I**	S-E-E-M…it is a regular verb seem, seemed, yah, he seemed, or he seems, sorry, yah, because we are describing; he seems to be a thief.
		i	do you want me to spell "thief"? it is an irregular noun, [an irregular plural] =
577	**SS**	**R**	thief
578	**S**	**R**	= T-H-I-E-F
579	**T**	**I**	= like leaf and wife and…ok! and shelf, and so on=
580	**SS**	**R**	=yes: yes=
581	**T**	**I**	=it ends with an –F- so, [it changes, THIEVES]=

582	**S2**	**R**	[in the plural, we change it]
583	**S1**	**R**	= T-H-I-E-F
584	**T**	**F**	a thief T-H-I-=
585	**S1**	**R**	= -E-F
586	**T**	**F**	= -E-F; thieves the same, but the -F- changes into -V-E-S-
587	**S1**	**R**	-V-E-S-
588	**T**	**F**	yah, thieves. so, the man seems to be a thief,
		I	he appears to be?
589	**SS**	**R**	= [a thief]
590	**T**	**F/I**	= [a thief] yah, he looks, we said, like?… =
591	**S**	**R**	[a thief]
592	**T**	**F**	= [a thief] , he RESEMBLES, he looks like or he [resembles]=
593	**SS**	**R**	[resembles]
594	**T**	**F/I**	= yes, to resemble how do you write it?=
595	**SS**	**R**	=R-E-S-=
596	**T**	**F**	= uh huh, R-E-S-E-M-B-L-E- **(students spell with the teacher but unintelligibly)** it is also a… a regular verb; resemble, resembled…
597	**S**	**R**	R-E-S-E-M-? =
598	**T**	**F**	=R-E-S-E-M-, sorry, R-E-S-E-M-B-L-E-, as it is pronounced, ok **(3)**
		I	well, can you give some description of the man?=
599	**S1**	**R**	=he has a hat
600	**T**	**F**	**(uses gestures to shape a hat)** he has a kind of hat over his head=
601	**S1**	**R**	=has a moustache
602	**T**	**F/I**	…uh huh, well, he has a very big... **(point to her nose)** large? **(1)**
603	**SS**	**R**	[nose, yes]
604	**T**	**F/I**	[nose, yes], his eyes are?=
605	**S1**	**R**	=horrible er..eyes **(laughs)**
606	**T**	**F/I**	uh huh, yes… he has a fearful?... **(points to her eyes)**,ok…
607	**S1**	**R**	he tries to, to er =
608	**T**	**F/ii**	what?**...** sorry!**...**
609	**S5**	**R**	fearful look
610	**T**	**F/ii**	… fearful, yes?...
611	**S5**	**R**	look =
612	**T**	**F**	=look; very good, yes
613	**S1**	**R**	=ugly, he is ugly=
614	**T**	**I**	=he has a moustache
615	**SS**	**R**	=yes
616	**T**	**I**	…well er as far as his clothes are concerned, we don't see clearly what kind of clothes, but he seems to wear …yah?...
617	**S1**	**R**	dark clothes=
618	**T**	**F**	=dark and … perhaps woolen, or…I don't know **(3)** perhaps a jumper, a very big what? **(1) (uses gestures)**
619	**S**	**R**	Yes
620	**T**	**I**	kind of pullover, large and long and…woolen; it seems to be woolen because thick and er it corresponds to the thing he has over his head, a hat=
621	**S**	**R**	=yes
622	**T**	**I**	=yes, so there is a man where?**(2)**
623	**S**	**R**	outside the window =
624	**T**	**F**	= outside the window, yes **(1)**
		I	we can move to the following=
625	**S**	**R**	= last one=

626	**T**	**I**	= number twelve=
627	**SS**	**R**	=yes: yes
628	**T**	**I**	yes, where are we? **(1)**
629	**S1**	**R**	in a park…
630	**T**	**F/ii**	in a ?...
631	**S1**	**R**	park…
632	**T**	**F**	=PARK=
633	**S**	**R**	=yes
634	**T**	**I**	yes, how do you know that it's a park?...
635	**S1**	**R**	trees and er…chairs
636	**S**	**R**	yes
637	**T**	**F/ii**	**(1)** yes, what is it there, a chair ?...
638	**SS**	**R**	[yes]
639	**S2**	**R**	[it's very organized]
640	**T**	**F**	…it's not a chair, [you are sitting on the chairs]=
641	**S1**	**R**	[a public chair, a public chair]
642	**T**	**F/ii**	= but this is what ? … a SEAT, simply; it is better to say a seat=
643	**S**	**R**	=yes=
644	**T**	**F**	=it is something on which people sit especially in public places=
645	**SS**	**R**	= yes=
646	**T**	**F**	= gardens and, ok, public gardens or…public place… here it is a park…=
647	**S**	**R**	= couple, couple…
648	**T**	**F/ii**	= you see a?...
649	**SS**	**R**	couple=
650	**T**	**F**	=a couple, yes, and we usually say a couple whenever we mean two, but we usually say a couple also and it is very correct to use the word couple when talking about a man [and a woman]
651	**SS**	**R**	[and a woman] , yes=
652	**T**	**F**	=ok… we mean also that they are married; most of the time, when we see a couple we mean that we are in presence of a man and woman who are married, but it also means two; we can speak about a couple of books, or a couple of dogs, or anything… ok…in pair, two, ok, it means two. here, it's clear that it's a man and a woman…
		I	how do you know that it's a man and a woman? …
653	**SS**	**R**	she er… wears dress … clothes
654	**T**	**F**	… yah, their physical appearance or their clothes
655	**S2**	**R**	she has an English hair, long hair
656	**T**	**F**	… uh huh, yah, the woman has [long hair] =
657	**S1**	**R**	[not long]
658	**T**	**I**	= and she wears what? **(1)**
659	**SS**	**R**	dress: dress **(1)**
660	**T**	**F**	=yah, it seems to be a dress or perhaps a coat, yah=
661	**S**	**R**	=yes=
662	**T**	**F**	=it reaches her knees, and usually women put on dresses and such coats, but men always wear trousers=
663	**SS**	**R**	=yes=
664	**T**	**F**	=well, this doesn't mean that women don't put on trousers, women nowadays, ok, put also trousers
665	**S2**	**R**	yes, always
666	**T**	**I**	…do you know that there are men in England =
667	**SS**	**R**	= yes, Scotland

668	**T**	**I**	= who wear …
669	**SS**	**R**	= skirts
670	**T**	**F/ii**	= a kind of skirt we call? how is it called, this kind of… skirt? ... a KILT=
671	**S**	**R**	=kilt=
672	**T**	**F**	=kilt yes, K-I-L-T. in Scotland, the Scots use to, in the past; now, of course, you don't see Scots wearing kilts, but they do on special occasions, yah, in festivals, [feasts and so on… they wear kilts].
673	**SS**	**R**	[yes: yes]
674	**T**	**I**	… uh huh, well, I think …it's enough for this **(2)** these pictures. .. do you have any comment?...
		i	can you speak about anything? **(2)** I would like you **(2)** to imagine … a situation, for example, at home, in the street, in your district, perhaps in the market, or… near your car or inside your parents' car, or something like that…and speak. Let's give an example; we are here…. where are we?... **(teacher points to the inside of the class)**
675	**S**	**R**	in the class=
676	**SS**	**R**	= inside the classroom
677	**T**	**F/I**	… **(points to the outside of the classroom)** [the students …] =
678	**SS**	**R**	[outside, outside]
679	**T**	**I**	= are?=
680	**SS**	**R**	=outside=
681	**T**	**F/I**	= the students who are outside the classroom are making?=
682	**SS**	**R**	=[noise]
683	**T**	**F**	[noise], they are disturbing us, ok, they speak loudly and they move continuously …
		I	well, look at **(points out to the ceiling)**…how do we call this?=
684	**S**	**R**	=the lights=
685	**T**	**F/ii**	=the upper part? **(1)**
686	**S**	**R**	the roof, the roof=
687	**T**	**F**	=it's not the roof; we said it last time, the roof is … [outside the house]=
688	**S2**	**R**	[the cover of the]
689	**T**	**F**	= it covers , yah, the house or the building from the outside, we call this the
		I	roof, and we said that it is usually what?...
		i	the roof consists usually of these… small pieces =
690	**S**	**R**	= small pieces =
691	**T**	**F/ii**	= yah, which are =
692	**S**	**R**	=pottery=
693	**T**	**F**	= yes, which are made of a kind of, if you want, pottery …they are made of earth and water mixed together and baked in an oven, and…we use them =
694	**S1**	**R**	= special shape, special colour =
695	**T**	**F/ii**	= yes, and we use them to make the roof of the houses or buildings in general; what else…**(points to the ceiling)** This is inside the house …
696	**S**	**R**	= above our head =
697	**T**	**F/ii**	= what is uh huh, above… over…our heads, what's, what's that? **(3)**
698	**S**	**R**	Lamps
699	**T**	**I**	…yah , the … it begins with –C- and ends with –G-, -I-N-G-, if you want (4)
700	**S**	**R**	the covering=
701	**T**	**F/ii**	no, C-E-I-L-I-N-G …
702	**S**	**R**	ceiling… **(pronounced / saılıŋ/)**
703	**T**	**F**	the CEILING, yes; over our heads is the ceiling,

703	**T**	**I**	ok, at the ceiling…what do we have?...
704	**S**	**R**	lamps=
705	**T**	**F**	=many lamps, yah, many lamps are at the ceiling;
		I	they provide us with?=
706	**S**	**R**	= light =
707	**T**	**F**	= light, ok…
		I	look at the back of the classroom … **(points to the windows)**
708	**S**	**R**	Windows
709	**SS**	**R**	small windows…
710	**T**	**F**	we have small [windows]=
711	**S2**	**R**	[oval]
712	**T**	**F/ii**	= what's [the shape?]
713	**SS**	**R**	[oval : oval, closed windows]
714	**T**	**F**	they are egg-shaped; they have the form of an egg, or oval
715	**SS**	**R**	yes
716	**T**	**I**	…our classroom has four walls, are all the walls similar?...
717	**SS**	**R**	no=
718	**T**	**F/I**	=uh huh, are all the walls made of the same material?=
719	**SS**	**R**	=no=
720	**T**	**F/ii**	=no… yah, the back wall and the front wall are made of ?=
721	**S**	**R**	= cement =
722	**T**	**F**	= cement! is it cement? **(2)**
723	**SS**	**R**	no=
724		**F**	=the material … the two walls are made of, I mean the back and the front walls, is what we call in English concrete…
725	**S**	**R**	yes=
726	**T**	**F**	=concrete C-O-N-C-R-E-T-E, C-O-N-, yah , C-R-E-T-E- ,
		I	of course, ,it is written exactly like the word concrete which is the opposite of ?...
727	**S**	**R**	[abstract]
728	**T**	**F**	[abstract] what is concrete is what you can see, what you touch, what you hold…
729	**SS**	**R**	yes: yes
730	**T**	**F/I**	…ok, and what is abstract, is [… usually… what?] … **(points to her head)**
731	**S2**	**R**	[inside er… the mind]=
732	**T**	**F**	= yes, happens in our minds=
733	**S2**	**R**	=liberty, for example, honour, liberty and honour=
734	**T**	**F**	=uh huh, yes, there are words that are called abstract=
735	**S1**	**R**	= feelings=
736	**T**	**F**	= yes, because we feel them; we think of them
737	**S2**	**R**	= we can't touch=
738	**T**	**F**	= we cannot touch them or keep them in, ok, a cupboard or in a drawer or in a bag. ok, these are abstract words, if you want, or notions produced by such words. concrete is a material, it is very hard, very solid and we use it in building, yes;
		I	what is it made of, concrete? **(2)**
		i	what does it consist of? **(2)**
739	**S**	**R**	Cement
740	**T**	**F**	…uh huh , cement, yah C-E-M-E-N-T , like the French *ciment* with –I-, the difference between the two words is, ok, the second letter. In French we say *ciment* and in English we say cement,

		I	but it's not cement only, the wall consists of?=
741	**S1**	**R**	=iron, iron=
742	**T**	**I**	=cement…
743	**S2**	**R**	wood=
744	**T**	**F**	=gravels; big er pieces of stone, or small pieces of stone; what we call gravels… iron =
745	**SS**	**R**	= and wood =
746	**T**	**F**	= pieces of iron, bars of [iron and water]
747	**SS**	**R**	[wood]
748	**T**	**F**	well, wood is removed, we just use it to support, as a support and when we finish we remove it=
749	**S**	**R**	=yes
750	**T**	**F**	… ok, so, concrete is cement, gravel and iron and water all mixed together to give a solid material we use for building;
		I	well,…what about these two walls?=
751	**S**	**R**	=plastic walls, plastic walls
752	**T**	**F/ii**	… yah, the two walls on your right and on your left… ? the walls on your right and on your left, what are they made of? … a kind of plastic material, yes, it looks like plastic; I think it is called formica, but I'm not sure… it is a kind of plastic , ok, material…
		I	what else…what can you say about your classroom?...
753	**S2**	**R**	I see a TV
754	**T**	**F**	what! there's a TV, yah …
755	**S1**	**R**	speaker er…
756	**T**	**F/ii**	uh huh , there are… yes?
757	**SS**	**R**	VCD : VCD
758	**T**	**F/ii**	… are they speakers? **(1)**
759	**SS**	**R**	no, er
760	**T**	**F/ii**	… how do we call them? **(3)** loudspeakers=
761	**SS**	**R**	=yes, loudspeakers=
762	**T**	**I**	=they …provide you with? **...**
763	**S1**	**R**	to hear er =
764	**T**	**F**	=the sound of the TV so that all of you can hear, yes…
765	**S1**	**R**	we have a white board
766	**T**	**F/ii**	… uh huh, we have a white board; can you write on this white board?=
767	**SS**	**R**	=yes=
768	**T**	**F/ii**	=with chalk?=
769	**SS**	**R**	=no : no=
770	**T**	**F/ii**	=do you use chalk to write on this white board?=
771	**SS**	**R**	=no=
772	**T**	**F**	=you [must use] =
773	**S1**	**R**	[marker]
774	**T**	**F**	= a special marker=
775	**SS**	**R**	=yes=
776	**T**	**F**	=we call it a board, a white-board marker, yes, a marker used for the board…
777	**S1**	**R**	we have instruction on the on the er…
778	**T**	**F/ii**	uh huh, are these instructions? **(2)**
779	**S**	**R**	orders=
780	**S**	**R**	=er…. er….
781	**S2**	**R**	advice=

782	**S1**	**R**	=not advice
783	**T**	**F**	(1) well, she's right. why have you changed you mind! yes, these are instructions to show to the students what is good to do in such a place =
784	**SS**	**R**	=yes=
785	**T**	**F**	= when we show to people what is good to do and what is bad not to do, we give instructions =
786	**SS**	**R**	= yes=
787	**S**	**R**	=instruction or order=
788	**T**	**F**	=instruct, yah, and instructions, yes, are orders; they are in the...
		I	which tense is this?...
789	**SS**	**R**	= imperative: imperative =
790	**T**	**F**	= in the imperative; ok, you have negative instructions and positive ones or affirmative ones…
		I	can you talk to each other and er… give some instructions?... when we talk about instructions, we may call them also advice …ok, and you can advise when you instruct…
		i	your mother, for example does what? instructs you =
791	**S**	**R**	= yes
792	**T**	**I**	= yah, she advises you to do or not to do some things. so, can you do so? **(2)**
		i	I have asked you before, I said choose a situation and talk about it… tell your friend, for example, about a situation you were confronted to yesterday at home, or in the street, or in the class… have you had a test yesterday?...
793	**SS**	**R**	yes : yes=
794	**T**	**F/ii**	=or, did you have a test yesterday?
795	**SS**	**R**	=yes
796	**T**	**F/I**	…uh huh, what was it, which test?...
797	**SS**	**R**	Methodology
798	**T**	**I**	…how did you feel?...
799	**S**	**R**	flustered=
800	**T**	**I**	=have you worked or did you work? **...**
801	**SS**	**R**	yes: no=
802	**S1**	**R**	=normally, yes=
803	**S2**	**R**	=but the time doesn't enough
804	**T**	**F/ii**	…well, listen to her she said the time doesn't enough …
805	**SS**	**R**	Yes
806	**T**	**F/ii**	…correct!...
807	**S2**	**R**	yes, a lot of questions and… time is limited=
808	**S1**	**R**	=we must be quick=
809	**T**	**F**	the time… was not enough, or we didn't have [enough time] yes
810	**SS**	**R**	[enough time]
811	**T**	**I**	…what else?...
812	**S4**	**R**	the other group had more than us **((1))**
813	**T**	**F/ii**	what do you mean by the other group had more… [time than…us?]
814	**S4**	**R**	[time than…us]
815	**T**	**F/ii**	= or more than we had? **...**
816	**S4**	**R**	**((2))** and told the group **((1))**
817	**T**	**F/ii**	please, repeat what you said?… is it time? … you want to speak? =
818	**S5**	**R**	=yes
819	**T**	**F/ii**	…ok, yes, what do you want to say?...
820	**S5**	**R**	the other teacher er…=
821	**S4**	**R**	our teacher

822	**T**	**F/ii**	…the other teacher …
823	**S1**	**R**	supervised the others=
824	**T**	**F**	=the teacher, who helped them=
825	**SS**	**R**	=yes=
826	**T**	**F/ii**	=who gives a hand, your …teacher, yah?...
827	**S5**	**R**	a racist =
828	**S4**	**R**	=didn't provided us…
829	**T**	**F/ii**	didn't provide you, didn't give you what?... [enough time?]
830	**SS**	**R**	[enough time]=
831	**S4**	**R**	= our teacher gave the other group er… time
832	**SS**	**R**	yes…
833	**T**	**F**	um-hum , ok, the… teacher who helped was in a hurry to finish
834	**SS**	**R**	yes
835	**T**	**F**	you should tell your teacher that you didn't have enough time or the same time as the other group
836	**S2**	**R**	she gives us a lot of questions
837	**T**	**I**	…ok, can you describe another situation? I don't know… what do you usually do when you go back home or when you go to your =
838	**S1**	**R**	= campus=
839	**T**	**F/ii**	= yah, to your room in the campus uh huh, can you describe a bit? **(4)** do you act or do you do the same things you do when you go home?=
840	**SS**	**R**	=no
841	**T**	**F/ii**	…those who live in the campus… no…so, can you give us an idea?... yes, just describe simply… don't, don't be frightened, just speak normally, simply, ok, describe what you do usually **(2)**
842	**S4**	**R**	we feel frustrated=
843	**T**	**F/ii**	=sorry?=
844	**S4**	**R**	=we feel frustrated…
845	**T**	**F/ii**	you feel frustrated! why?... you are habituated now since the time …ok, since the beginning of the year, why do you feel frustrated? normally, everything is alright now!=
846	**SS**	**R**	=no=
847	**T**	**F**	[you are habituated … you have got friends]
848	**SS**	**R**	[no: no]
849	**T**	**F/ii**	=no?=
850	**S**	**R**	=it's not good =
851	**S4**	**R**	=homesick
852	**T**	**F**	…you still feel [homesick; right, ok]
853	**SS**	**R**	[homesick , yes]
854	**S2**	**R**	I miss my mother **(she laughs)**
855	**T**	**F/ii**	…why does she prepare the feeding bottle for you?=
856	**S2**	**R**	=no= **(laughs)**
857	**T**	**F**	does she feed you with the bottle?… you are, ok, …big enough, let's say=
858	**S2**	**R**	but, I still er.., I still miss her=
859	**T**	**F**	=of course, we all , ok, feel the need to be with our parents even when we become adults and have children, ok, but, you must feel responsible =
860	**S2**	**R**	= yes =
861	**T**	**F**	= [enough to take care of yourself]
862	**S1**	**R**	[but it's a good experience, I think]
863	**T**	**F/ii**	=yah? ...
864	**S1**	**R**	it's a good experience, I want to… have this experience…

865	**T**	**F**	of course, you are [here for a temporary period of time]
866	**S2**	**R**	[most difficult experience]
867	**T**	**F/I**	please!... you are in the campus, for those, ok, who are far from their families, you are here for an important task, ok, building your future. so, feeling homesick and so on is what?=
868	**S2**	**R**	=obstacle=
869	**T**	**F/I**	= is something you can't overcome, and this prepares you too because you have a better purpose, what is it? **(1)**
870	**S1**	**R**	succeed=
871	**T**	**F**	=to succeed, to get a diploma, to get the necessary luggage, ok, to face life…
872	**S2**	**R**	I always make efforts and er… to make my mother happy…
873	**T**	**F**	of course, you must give satisfaction to your parents, ok! because they suffer from your separation…
874	**S**	**R**	**((1))**
875	**T**	**F/I**	well, stop talking about feelings and homesickness, I want you to describe a place with different people…say my room is small,…
876	**S1**	**R**	it is big a big room… [my room]
877	**S2**	**R**	(speaking with S1) [in your] house…
878	**T**	**F/I**	it is a big room, and how many are you in the room? **(1)**
879	**S1**	**R**	ah, I am alone=
880	**T**	**F/ii**	=you are alone in a large room? …
881	**S1**	**R**	yes=
882	**T**	**F**	=right…
883	**S1**	**R**	I am the last one….member in my family
884	**T**	**F**	… yah … so here we are talking about your house! I'm talking about the campus.
885	**S1**	**R**	I don't live in the campus =
886	**T**	**F**	=ok,
886	**T**	**F/I**	so you have … ok=
887	**S**	**R**	= small rooms=
888	**S2**	**R**	=it's a very small room; very, very small…
889	**T**	**F/ii**	in the campus, [the rooms are small]?
890	**S2**	**R**	[yes, we are four girls]
891	**SS**	**R**	yes…
892	**T**	**F/ii**	ok, well, how do you do?...
893	**S2**	**R**	we can't move; while other girls sleep, we don't move
894	**SS**	**R**	yes **(students' unintelligible talk and laughter)**
895	**T**	**F**	… well, she had added something, she said there's just a place for praying =
896	**S**	**R**	= yes=
897	**T**	**F**	= so, the room is big enough because when you pray, you can put a carpet … on the floor =
898	**S**	**R**	= a small carpet =
899	**T**	**F/ii**	= and pray… you have! but, you have the …necessary space for standing? …
900	**S2**	**R**	in our room, we haven't=
901	**T**	**F/ii**	=sorry!...
902	**S**	**R**	we haven't space=
903	**T**	**F**	=you don't have any space…
		I	do you prepare, do you prepare food in your room? **(1)**
904	**SS**	**R**	yes, sometimes…
905	**T**	**F/I**	sometimes, ok; so, you have the device for cooking?=

906	**S**	**R**	=yes=
907	**T**	**F/ii**	=isn't it dangerous?...
908	**SS**	**R**	no **((1))**
909	**T**	**F**	…yah, you must be careful=
910	**S2**	**R**	=yes, it's dangerous
911	**T**	**I**	**(4)** well, your friend said: I have a large room… my room is large enough, what about the others?...
		i	those who don't live in the campus, those who live with their families and come to the university just to study and go back home yah? **(2)** hey! **(2)** you can say anything! just say a word! say my room is big or my room is small; I live in my room alone or I share it with my brother or my sister or my sisters or…
912	**S1**	**R**	it's better to live alone=
913	**T**	**F/ii**	=sorry?
914	**S1**	**R**	=it's better to live alone=
915	**T**	**F/ii**	=sure? **(1)**
916	**S1**	**R**	yes, we have a private space, our private space, no one can er…
917	**T**	**F**	I think that it's better to be in contact with others… to prepare yourself for the future
918	**S2**	**R**	in my house, I share my room with my sister…
919	**T**	**F/I**	ok, nice, you are two?=
920	**S2**	**R**	=yes
921	**T**	**F/I**	…ok, what about the others? **(2)**
		i	well, the gentleman who is laughing, we haven't heard you; please, what about you, do you have your own room? **(1)**
922	**S5**	**R**	no, I share it with my brother
923	**T**	**F**	…ok, you have a room with your brother, you share it with your brother, nice! so…
924	**S1**	**R**	= I used I used to share it, but now I don't share it…
925	**T**	**F/ii**	=where has your sister gone?...
926	**S1**	**R**	she's married
927	**T**	**F/ii**	… ah, and you will be the next=
928	**S1**	**R**	=no=
929	**T**	**F**	=sure, you will get married and you will be obliged to get in contact with others…
930	**S2**	**R**	she isn't responsible **(laughing)**
931	**T**	**F**	… she said it's good to be alone… **(smiling)** ok, well. **(teacher uses gestures show the end of the lesson)**

Appendix III

Illustration Bloom's Taxonomy

LEVEL	DEFINITION	SAMPLE VERBS	SAMPLE QUESTIONS STEMS
KNOWLEDGE	Student recalls or recognizes information, ideas, and principles in the approximate form in which they were learned.	• Tell • List • Describe • Relate • Locate • Write • Find • State • Name	• What happened after...? • How many...? • Describe what happened at...? • Who spoke to...? • Find the meaning of...? • Who was it that...? • Can you tell why...? • What is...? • Can you name the...?
COMPREHENSION	Student translates, comprehends, or interprets information based on prior learning.	• Explain • Interpret • Outline • Discuss • Distinguish • Predict • Restate • Translate • Compare	• Can you clarify. . .? • What does this mean? • Can you write a brief outline...? • Is it valid that …? • Can you distinguish between...? • What would happen if …? • Can you write in your own words...? • What is the word for… in Arabic? • What differences exist between...?
APPLICATION	Student selects, transfers, and uses data and principles to complete a problem or task with a minimum of direction.	• Solve • Show • Use • Illustrate • Construct • Complete • Examine • Classify	• Using the information you have learned about … what is the best answer for…? • How would you explain …? • Would this information be useful if you had a ...? • Do you know another instance where...? • What questions would you ask of...? • Could this have happened in...? • Can you apply the method used to some experience of your own...? • Can you group by characteristics such as...?

ANALYSIS	Student distinguishes, classifies, and relates the assumptions, hypotheses, evidence, or structure of a statement or question.	• Analyse • Distinguish • Examine • Compare • Investigate • Categorise • Identify • Explain	• What is the function of …? • How was this similar to...? • What was the underlying theme of...? • Can you compare your ... with that presented in...? • What were some of the motives behind...? • What literary form is used? • What was the problem with...? • Why did ... changes occur?
SYNTHESIS	Student originates, integrates, and combines ideas into a product, plan or proposal that is new to him or her.	• Create • Invent • Compose • Predict • Plan • Construct • Imagine • Propose	• Can you design a ... to ...? • Can you see a possible solution to...? • Why not compose a … about...? • If you had access to … how would you deal with...? • What's your own way to deal with...? • Can you create new and unusual uses for...? • Can you develop a proposal which would...? • How many ways can you...?
EVALUATION	Student appraises, assesses, or critiques on a basis of specific standards and criteria.	• Judge • Select • Argue • Debate • Verify • Recommend • Assess • Discuss	• What's the value of...? • Which is more important/moral/better, logical/valid/appropriate? • How would you defend your position about...? • Do you think ... is a good or a bad thing? • How would you have handled...? • What changes to ... would you recommend? • How effective are …? • How would you feel if...?

Abstract

Cette étude a pour objectif d'étudier la manière dont quelques aspects du comportement interactionnel de l'enseignant peuvent servir d'échafaudages afin de permettre aux étudiants de prendre des risques pour mieux apprendre. Le concept de la prise de risques, s'il est adopté en tant que stratégie par les étudiants, entraîne une augmentation de la qualité et de la quantité de leur participation. On a trouvé que l'utilisation par le professeur des questions référentielles a une corrélation positive avec un nombre élevé de prises de risques. En outre, si l'enseignant est disposé à varier la duration des pauses qu'il laisse aux étudiants pour répondre, les prises de risques sont prédises d'être augmentées. On a aussi établi que l'utilisation de stratégies qui encouragent les étudiants à répondre à l'image des demandes de clarification et des indices sont tous liés positivement à une prise de risque meilleure. Ces comportements d'interaction sont considérés comme étant échafaudages dans la mesure où ils facilitent et accélèrent la prise des risques. Les échafaudages, dans ce travail, sont désignés via une application des maximes de la théorie socio-culturelle sur l'interaction. Cette application s'avérait plus ou moins réussie étant donné que les étudiants prennent la parole plus souvent et fournissent davantage de réponses de qualité. Les enseignants sont priés d'adapter constamment leurs comportements lors de l'interaction dans le but d'aider les étudiants à prendre des meilleurs risques. Pour les étudiants, ils sont invités à adopter une telle stratégie qui caractérise les apprenants de langue, bons et réussissant.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة للتحقيق في بعض الجوانب المختارة من سلوكات الأستاذ التفاعلية التي يمكن أن ترقى إلى دعامات تمكن الطلاب من "المجازفة ". ذلك أن اعتماد الطلاب لإستراتيجية المجازفة يؤدي إلى زيادة كمية ونوعية مشاركتهم في التفاعل الصفي. خلص هذا البحث إلى أن استخدام الأستاذة للأسئلة المرجعية يرتبط إيجابا مع مجازافات أحسن. زد على ذلك، توافق توفير مهلات أوبتعبير آخر أوقات إنتظار ممددة قبل ردود الطلاب و قصيرة بعد إنتهائهم من الرد على الأسئلة، توافق مع زيادة ملموسة في مجازفاتهم. كما أن استخدام إستراتيجيات تحفيزية تشجع الطلاب على الإجابة على الأسئلة أو الرد مثل طلبات التوضيح والدلائل تتعلق بشكل إيجابي بتحسين المخاطرة. لذلك تم تصنيف هذه السلوكيات التفاعلية في خانة الدعامات بحيث أنها تتوسط لتمكين الطلاب من المخاطرة داخل منطقة التنمية القريبة كما أملته النظرية الاجتماعية–الثقافية في ميدان التفاعل . نتائج هذه الدراسة تشير إلى أن الطلاب يستحودون على عدد أكبر من الأدوار في التحدث، يجيبون عن طريق عدد أكبر من الردود والمبادرات الذاتية متألفة من كلمة واحدة ومتعددة الكلمات ، و تكون إجاباتهم إلى حد عالٍ ذات صلة، صحيحة و / أو مكتملة مما هوعليه الحال عندما تعتمد الأستاذة على بدائل أخرى لهذه الجوانب من التفاعل .توجه توصيات للأساتذة كي يكيفوا باستمرار السلوكيات اتتفاعلية قصد مساعدة الطلاب على خوض المخاطر على نحو أفضل .أما بالنسبة للطلاب، فإنه من المستحسن لهم أن يعتمدوا هكذا إستراتيجية، استنادا للدراسات التي أثبتت أنها تميز متعلمي اللغة الجيدين والناجحين.