



# EXPLORING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

## CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS: FACTORS THAT IMPACT ON LEARNER PERFORMANCE DURING SPEAKING PRACTICE

Edgar Emmanuell García-Ponce





**EXPLORING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE  
CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS:  
FACTORS THAT IMPACT ON LEARNER PERFORMANCE  
DURING SPEAKING PRACTICE**

*Exploring English as a foreign language classroom interactions:  
Factors that impact on learner performance during speaking practice*

Primera edición, 2020

D.R. Del autor

D.R. De la presente edición

UNIVERSIDAD DE GUANAJUATO

Campus Guanajuato

División de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades

Departamento de Lenguas

Lascuráin de Retana núm. 5, zona centro,

C.P. 36000, Guanajuato, Gto., México.

El cuidado de la edición estuvo a cargo de la Coordinación Editorial  
de la División de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades,  
Campus Guanajuato y el autor.

ISBN de la edición electrónica: 978-607-441-811-8

Se autoriza cualquier reproducción parcial o total de los textos de la publicación, incluyendo el alma-cenamiento electrónico, siempre y cuando sea sin fines de lucro o para usos estrictamente académicos, citando siempre la fuente y otorgando los créditos autorales correspondientes.

Editado en México • *Edited in Mexico*

**EXPLORING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE  
CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS:  
FACTORS THAT IMPACT ON LEARNER PERFORMANCE  
DURING SPEAKING PRACTICE**

Edgar Emmanuell García-Ponce

UNIVERSIDAD DE GUANAJUATO  
DIVISIÓN DE CIENCIAS SOCIALES Y HUMANIDADES  
CAMPUS GUANAJUATO



# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## CHAPTER ONE THE BACKGROUND

17	INTRODUCTION
18	THE PURPOSE OF THIS BOOK
19	DEFINITIONS
20	A SOCIOCULTURAL PERSPECTIVE
24	BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE
25	RESEARCH QUESTIONS
26	OUTLINE OF THE BOOK

## CHAPTER TWO TEACHER TALK

33	INTRODUCTION
34	TEACHER-LED INTERACTIONS
36	Questions
38	Corrective feedback and follow-up moves
41	Speech modifications
44	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER THREE LEARNER PERFORMANCE

47	INTRODUCTION
47	LEARNER PARTICIPATION, MOTIVATION
50	Language performance
53	Discourse competence
55	Interactional competence
58	PEER INTERACTIONS
60	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER FOUR

### TEACHER AND LEARNER BELIEFS

65	INTRODUCTION
65	TEACHER BELIEFS
71	LEARNER BELIEFS
73	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER FIVE

### APPROACH, METHODS AND DATA

77	INTRODUCTION
78	THE APPROACH
79	RESEARCH SITE
81	PILOT STUDY
87	EXPLORATIONS OF THE FLIs
87	Ethics procedures
88	Participants
90	Mixed methods and data collection procedures
97	Data processing and transcriptions
100	Teacher-led interactions
102	Peer interactions
104	Data analysis
107	Objectivity, credibility and replicability of the explorations
108	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER SIX

### THE FISFLI

113	INTRODUCTION
115	SPEECH UNIT
118	NATURE OF THE FLIs
118	IRF pattern
119	Teacher-initiated exchanges
121	Teachers' questions



123	Turn length
125	Amount of talk
126	LEARNER TALK
126	Discourse functions
129	Language performance
133	Negotiations of meaning
139	Length of responses
140	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### THE ANALYSIS: INTERACTIONAL DATA

143	INTRODUCTION
144	NATURE OF THE FLIs
144	IRF patterns
145	Teaching exchanges
148	Questions and responses
153	Turn length and amount of talk
159	LEARNER TALK
160	Fluency
166	Complexity
171	Accuracy
176	Patterns of language performance
182	Discourse functions
194	Negotiations of meaning
206	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### THE ANALYSIS: ELICITED DATA

213	INTRODUCTION
215	OBJECTIVES AND IMPLEMENTATION OF SPEAKING PRACTICE
218	BELIEFS AROUND TEACHER-LED SPEAKING PRACTICE AND ORAL COMPETENCE
222	PERCEIVED LIMITATIONS TO SPEAKING PRACTICE
226	Beliefs about large class size and question-answer routines
230	Beliefs about class time constraints

233	Perceived reliance on textbooks and activities for language certifications
238	Perceived prioritising of certain language skills and grammar practice
244	BELIEFS AROUND PEER INTERACTIONS FOR SPEAKING PRACTICE
249	BELIEFS AROUND NEGATIVE FEEDBACK DURING SPEAKING PRACTICE
253	EFFECTS OF TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' BELIEFS ON INTERAC- TIONS FOR SPEAKING PRACTICE
257	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER NINE DISCUSSIONS

261	INTRODUCTION
262	LEARNER TALK DURING SPEAKING PRACTICE
262	Fluency and complexity
265	Accuracy
269	Discourse functions
271	Negotiations of meaning
280	Summary
281	THE ROLE OF TEACHER AND LEARNER BELIEFS
282	Teacher and learner beliefs
284	Influence of teacher and learner beliefs on speaking practice
289	Summary
290	CHAPTER SUMMARY

## CHAPTER TEN CONCLUSIONS

295	REVIEW AND AIMS OF THE EXPLORATIONS OF THE FLIs
296	NATURE OF SPEAKING PRACTICE IN THE THREE EFL CLASSROOMS
301	PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS
306	Teacher workshop
310	Learner reflective tools
312	Suggestions for pre-service teaching training
314	CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH
317	REFERENCES, 240
349	APPENDICES, 265

# PREFACE





This book presents in-depth explorations of uncontrolled interactions for speaking practice in three English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms in a university in Mexico, where learners study language and teaching modules in order to become language teachers. The book crosses the traditional methodological boundary associated with interactionist research which focuses on interactional patterns and presents an alternative approach which involves both interactional and perceptual evidence to explore interactions in EFL classrooms. Specifically, the explorations in this book draw attention to the role of teaching and learning ideologies in language learning outcomes, showing how teachers' and learners' diverse and sometimes conflicting beliefs shape the structure and nature of classroom interactions. In particular, these explorations address how teachers' and learners' interactional- and teaching and learning-related choices and beliefs are influential on three aspects of learner talk: language performance indicated by levels of fluency, complexity and accuracy, use of discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning. The book concludes that there is an interrelated set of cognitive, practical and interactional factors which shape classroom interactions and in turn learners' language achievement.

The contribution of this book is then threefold. Examining uncontrolled interactions in EFL classrooms makes an original contribution to the field of foreign language teaching, providing a research- and methodological-based account of the interrelated (cognitive, practical and interactional) factors that have an impact on learn-

ers' linguistic, discursive and interactional skills during classroom interactions. Secondly, by formulating some pedagogical implications, it provides a great opportunity to advance our understanding of how interactions in EFL classrooms can be enhanced in order to promote learners' speaking skills. Thirdly, it suggests a detailed analytical framework (i.e., the Framework of Interactional Strategies in Foreign Language Interaction) which EFL teachers may find useful for exploring the effectiveness of their classroom interactions. This book is a valuable resource for anyone involved in the process of EFL teaching and learning (i.e., pre- and in-service teachers, teacher educators, and education administrators). Specifically, it would be useful for those who are experiencing difficulties in promoting the effectiveness of EFL interactions and learner achievement during speaking practice.

# Chapter One

## THE BACKGROUND





## INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in classroom interactions since they are a medium that forms the basis for language development (Gass, 2003; Walsh, 2011). Classroom interactions are fundamental to all classroom activity, and highly complex (Walsh, 2002). During these interactions, teachers and learners initiate several functions and interactional strategies (e.g., eliciting information, explaining, checking learning, etc.) in order to communicate and learn the target language. Anything that happens in the classroom requires language use, and classroom interactions underpin every classroom action (Walsh, 2013). In particular, it is believed that through interactions learners are able to practise learned linguistic knowledge (Allwright, 2000); develop new knowledge and skills (Allwright, 2000; Walsh, 2013); identify and repair breakdowns in communication (García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Long, 1996; Walsh, 2013); produce and modify their speech (García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Swain, 2000, 2005); and establish and maintain relationships (Gass, 2003; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000).

However, it has been also suggested that classroom interactions can either facilitate or hinder learners from developing linguistic as well as interactional skills (Altamiro, 2000; Consolo, 2006). The effectiveness of classroom interactions has been found to be determined by their nature (Allwright, 2000; Ekembe 2014) which is shaped by several factors (Walsh, 2013), including locally-situated needs (i.e., contextual factors), classroom interactional behaviour, and teacher and learner beliefs related to the teaching and learning context. Following this, the present book aims to provide the reader with an alternative approach which involves both interactional and cognitive evidence to explore complex, yet interrelated, factors which shape the classroom interactions and in turn learner achievement during EFL classrooms interactions.

## THE PURPOSE OF THIS BOOK

The primary purpose of the present book is to explore the interactions that English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and learners at three proficiency levels (basic, intermediate and advanced levels) in a Mexican university carried out to practise speaking. These explorations specifically seek to understand and explain the factors that hinder teachers and learners from engaging in more effective interactions for speaking practice and thus developing learners' speaking skills. In order to gain this understanding, the book explores not only classroom interactional behaviour, but also the role of teachers' and learners' beliefs concerning classroom interactions and speaking practice. The aim of exploring teachers' and learners' beliefs lies behind recent empirical findings which suggest that these cognitive factors can either enhance or hinder language learning (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011), by shaping the way teachers and learners interactionally behave (Borg, 2006, Borg & Burns, 2008; Graham, Santos & Francis-Brophy, 2014; Inozu, 2011), and the degree of learner involvement during interactions (Aragão, 2011; Inozu, 2011; Peng, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a). In particular, this book examines the effects of teachers' and learners' beliefs and interactional behaviour on three aspects of learner talk: language performance, discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning. By achieving the above, it attempts to determine how and the extent to which the effectiveness of interactions in EFL classrooms is shaped by these factors. It also intends to suggest pedagogical implications which may enhance classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice with a view to promoting greater opportunities to develop learners' linguistic as well as interactional skills.

## DEFINITIONS

At this stage, it is useful to define a number of relevant concepts related to how a language can be learned depending on its setting. Language learning settings are often divided into the categories of *immersion*, *second language* and *foreign language* (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). In immersion settings, teachers, who have traditionally tended to be native speakers (NSs), and learners use the language as a means of communication; the goal is not to teach formally the language but academic subjects (Lenker & Rhodes, 2007). In second language settings, the target language plays a major role in a particular country or region (Richards & Schmidt, 2002); the language is learned for survival purposes. In the case of foreign language settings, the target language is not the native language in a particular country or region (Borg, 2006; Richards & Schmidt, 2002); classroom interactions in these settings are believed to be the only opportunity for learners to practise the target language (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Philp & Tognini, 2009; Yoshida, 2013a).

Recently, it has been suggested that research has mainly focused on classroom interactions carried out in immersion and second language settings (Philp & Tognini, 2009), leaving considerably unexplored the discourse that is constructed in FL classrooms (Medgyes, 2000), and the role of non-native speaking (NNS) teachers<sup>1</sup> which appear to increasingly lead to classroom interactions (Chun, 2014; Philp & Tognini, 2009). With the aim of filling this research gap, the explorations centre the attention on interactions between NNS teachers and learners in EFL classrooms. Henceforth, the term *foreign language interaction* (FLI) will be used throughout this book to refer to classroom interactions in which EFL teachers and learners engage in order to communicate as well as learn the target language. The term *classroom interaction* will also be used to refer to interactions between teachers and learners in general.

---

<sup>1</sup> In language teaching, there has been an advocacy for NNS teachers who are believed to be in an advantageous position of having learned English as a foreign language, and having attained insights into the learners' metalinguistic and cultural needs from the same context (Chun, 2014).

It is widely known that FLIs serve different teaching and learning purposes (for example, practising the four language skills, grammar, and vocabulary; checking answers of an activity; explaining a grammar structure; and the like). Moreover, depending on the teachers' teaching style and pedagogical beliefs, FLIs can be aimed at practising speaking. These interactions are sometimes led by the teacher or learner peers. For the purpose of analysing the FLIs for speaking practice, the former interactions are henceforth referred to as *teacher-led interactions* (TLIs), defined as discussions led by teachers which serve the purpose of practising speaking. The latter interactions, *peer interactions* (PIs), are described as interactional discourse that is constructed by learners in pairs or, in a few instances, in trios to practise speaking. According to research literature, TLIs are typically dominated and controlled by teachers (e.g., a dominance over quantity and quality of talk, turn allocation, aims and topic of interactions, etcetera) (Petek, 2014; Walsh, 2011). In contrast, PIs have been claimed to provide learners with greater interactional opportunities than TLIs (Ellis, 2012; McDonough, 2004; Storch, 2001). Following these claims, the explorations of the FLIs thus explore and compare TLIs and PIs in order to obtain a full picture of how speaking is practised by the teachers and learners during FLIs.

## A SOCIOCULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

In general, the present book builds on existing arguments that classroom interactions are fundamental to acquiring a language (Allwright, 2000; van Lier, 1988a; Walsh, 2013). Moreover, the book is positioned alongside sociocultural theory and its main tenets, namely, the social nature of learning, mediation, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding.

Sociocultural theory is a learning theory which has been associated with the seminal work of Lev Vygotsky, a prominent Russian psycholo-

gist who gained popularity after his death. Although sociocultural theory was initially conceptualised to understand children's cognitive and L1 development, it has gained considerable relevance to interpreting and understanding cognitive and interactive processes in second language acquisition (see Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Swain, Kinnear & Steinman, 2015), since sociocultural ideas can be easily extended to demonstrate that language learning is derived through learners interacting with teachers or learner peers (Walsh, 2013). Vygotsky (1978) argued that development is promoted in interaction with others. In Vygotsky's (1978) own words, he suggested the following:

Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people and then inside the child. This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals. (p. 57)

In other words, learning first takes place in social interactions (i.e., at an interpsychological level), and then in the individual's cognition (i.e., at an intrapsychological level). This 'publicly derived' learning is then privately internalised as learners reflect on and put into practice the new derived language learning. Under this view, sociocultural theory puts forward the argument that the mind is *mediated* (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). *Mediation* can be understood as a mental process whereby psychological or symbolic tools (i.e., numbers, signs and language) are used by individuals to interpret, mediate and regulate their relationships with others and with themselves and thus change the nature of these relationships (Lantolf, 2000). During this process, language is claimed to serve not only as a communication function, but also as a cognitive tool that allows individuals to control and evaluate the effectiveness of their mental processes (Harun, Massari & Behak, 2014), such as voluntary attention, intentional

memory, planning, logical thought and problem solving, and learning (Lantolf, 2000). This is because language is claimed to be “a means for engaging in social and cognitive activity” (Ahmed, 1994, p. 158).

Mediation between interpsychological and intrapsychological processes of language learning occurs in the metaphorical *zone of proximal development* (ZPD), which is described as:

“[t]he distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers.” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

The ZPD is thus a ‘learning zone’ for which learners are cognitively prepared, but they require ‘help’ (henceforth, assistance) and social interaction to fully develop it (Walsh, 2013). According to Lantolf (2000), the ZPD can be interpreted as the difference between what an individual can “achieve when acting alone and what the same person can accomplish when acting with support from someone else” (p. 17). In order for language development to take place in the ZPD, it is required that a teacher (i.e., expert) and a learner (i.e., novice) engage in interactions during which language skills and/or knowledge are transmitted through *scaffolding* in order to support development. In language education, the notion of scaffolding refers to temporary ‘context-sensitive linguistic assistance’ that teachers provide to learners through collaborative teaching and learning (Walsh, 2013), for example, speech modifications (see Section Speech modifications), teacher modelling, visual material, and hands-on learning, among others (Ovando, Collier & Combs, 2003). In order to promote learner autonomy, the scaffolds need to be gradually transformed, re-structured or dismantled (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002; Walqui, 2006), so that learners are left to reflect and comment on their development (Walsh, 2013).

In the research literature, the principle of ZPD and the notion of scaffolding have been continuously reinterpreted (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). As described above, the ZPD was initially conceptualised to include expert-novice interactions to promote language development. Scholars, such as Foster and Ohta, (2005), Lantolf (2000), Swain (2000) and Swain and Lapkin (2002), have called for a broader understanding of the ZPD and scaffolding, and have included the role of novice-novice or learner-learner interactions. This has thus implied a redefinition of the ZPD, as suggested by Lantolf (2000): “the collaborative construction of opportunities for individuals to develop their mental abilities” (p. 17). The fact that learner-learner interactions are claimed to be linguistic environments that promote collaborative language development is of great importance for the purpose of the book and the explorations of the FLIs because it suggests that PIs, during which speaking is practised between learner peers, can be conducive to promoting foreign language learning.

To sum up, language development through a sociocultural view is seen as being collaboratively constructed when individuals engage in social interactions during which their cognition is mediated through language, and control over their mental processes is gained (Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2011). Based on this view, language and learning are configured within the social practice of foreign language classrooms, and inextricably interwoven with the moment-to-moment unfolding of talk-in-interaction (Donato, 2000). Learning a foreign language is also a developmental process which is attributable to learners’ participation in socially-mediated activities (Donato, 2000).

The present book and, specifically, the explorations of the FLIs adopt a sociocultural view of learning. That is, foreign language learning in this book is seen to be socially developed when teachers and learners engage in classroom interactions during which collaborative assistance (i.e., scaffolding) is provided by teachers or learner peers to challenge and, at the same time, support learners’ ZPDs. Furthermore, learning in this book is thought to be influenced not only by classroom interactional

behaviour, but also by learners' agency (i.e., learners' own personal histories and their values, assumptions, affect, attitudes, beliefs, and so on) (see Donato, 2000). In line with this approach and sociocultural theory, the aim of this book is to look at how learners develop linguistic and interactional skills through collaboration, co-construction and scaffolding during interactions for speaking practice.

## BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

During classroom interactions, learners are claimed to practise and develop linguistic knowledge and speaking skills (Allwright, 2000). This is because classroom interactions, as discussed previously, are believed to provide learners with opportunities for oral production, well-formed language models, corrective feedback, and interactional adjustments (García Mayo & Pica, 2000). Motivated by these claims, a growing body of theoretical and empirical research has emerged, and has offered various descriptions of how factors, such as interactional patterns, linguistic environments, and role of participants, impact on the process of developing an L2 (van Lier, 2000).

However, it has been recently suggested that classroom interactions are not always conducive to developing learners' speaking skills (Altamiro, 2000; Consolo, 2006; Walsh, 2002). This limitation has been associated with the complex nature of interactions (Tarone, 2005), and limited exposure to accessible language data and information concerning the correctness of utterances (Consolo, 2006; Philp & Tognini, 2009). The main issue that emerges from these limitations is that FLIs are believed to be mostly learners' opportunities to practise and develop linguistic as well as interactional skills (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Philp & Tognini, 2009; Yoshida, 2013a). Despite this evidence, FLIs have been considerably left unexplored by language education research (Medgyes,



2000), whose attention has been focused on interactions in immersion and second language classrooms (Philp & Tognini, 2009). In particular, the research discourse has centred the attention on the talk by NS teachers (Holliday, 2005; Park, 2002), despite the increasingly high number of NNS teachers (Hayes, 2009). In response to these shortcomings, this book seeks to develop an in-depth understanding, from instructional, interactional and cognitive lenses, of the FLIs that teachers and learners carried out to practise speaking English in EFL classrooms.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to meet the objectives of this book, the explorations of the FLIs are guided by the following research questions (RQs):

- RQ1 What are the instructional, interactional and cognitive factors that influence the development of learners' speaking skills during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels?
- RQ2 What is the likely impact of teaching and interactional patterns on learner talk, namely, learners' language performance, discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning, during speaking practice across proficiency levels?
- RQ3 What beliefs do teachers and learners at the three proficiency levels seem to have about classroom interactions and, particularly, speaking practice?
- RQ4 How and to what extent do teachers' and learners' beliefs appear to influence teaching and learning practices and interactional patterns during speaking practice?

RQ5 What are the implications of the above for designing more effective classroom interactions, learning activities and teaching practices for speaking practice?

As shown above, RQ1 attempts to develop an understanding of the factors that shape the acquisition of the learners' linguistic and interactional skills during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels. In order to address this RQ, the explorations are focused on the likely impact of teaching and interactional behaviour during speaking practice on learner talk (RQ2), by investigating the learners' language performance indicated by the fluency, complexity and accuracy of their utterances, use of discourse functions and opportunities to engage in negotiations of meaning. Moreover, it examines the teachers' and learners' beliefs around their teaching and learning context (RQ3), and how these beliefs have an impact on teaching and learning practices and interactional patterns during speaking practice (RQ4). The final RQ5 explores the implications of RQs 1-4 for designing more effective speaking practice in order to promote learner achievement.

## OUTLINE OF THE BOOK

This chapter has presented an overview of the book, including its purpose, relevant definitions, its theoretical perspective in which the explorations are positioned, its background and rationale, and research questions. In Chapters Two to Four, this book goes on to look at an existing body of literature into classroom interactions. Namely, Chapter Two provides a review of relevant literature on teacher-led interactions and teachers' interactional strategies (namely, questions, corrective feedback, follow-up moves and speech modifications) that come into play during these interactions. Drawing on empirical evidence, the chapter puts forward the

argument that the effectiveness of teacher-led interactions and teachers' strategies teacher talk can be influenced by locally-situated constraints. However, it argues that teacher-led interactions and strategies can be beneficial for fostering second language acquisition when teachers develop an understanding of these in relation to each of the moment-to-moment pedagogical goal of the classroom interaction. Chapter Three begins by discussing learner participation and motivation. It then discusses three aspects of learner talk: language performance indicated by fluency complexity and accuracy, discourse competence, and interactional competence. The chapter concludes by discussing the importance of peer-led interactions and some practical considerations regarding this kind of interactions. Throughout this chapter, as in the case of Chapter Two, we highlight the fact that learners' participation, motivation and speaking competence can be influenced by an interrelated set of factors, involving instructional, interactional and cognitive factors, which in turn shape their language achievement. Chapter Four is an extension of Chapters Two and Three, in that it discusses teachers' and learners' beliefs as factors that also influence classroom interactional behaviour and thus learning outcomes. In short, Chapters Two and Four put forward the argument that researchers, teachers and learners should take into account instructional, interactional and cognitive factors that play a significant role in classroom interactions in order to develop an ecological understanding (van Lier, 2000) and context-sensitive pedagogy (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Pajares, 1992), and ensure learner achievement.

Chapter Five describes the approach adopted to develop an in-depth understanding of the teachers' and learners' interactional patterns and beliefs around speaking practice. In this chapter, background information about the explorations is firstly outlined: its context and a pilot study, which was conducted in the same context as an initial exploration of the FLIs, participants' beliefs, and methodological procedures for the FLI explorations. The chapter then describes how the explorations were conducted by providing detailed information about ethical procedures,

participants, research tools, and how the data were processed and analysed. The chapter concludes by discussing issues concerning the objectivity, credibility and replicability of the explorations.

Chapter Six introduces the Framework of Interactional Strategies in Foreign Language Interaction (FISFLI) which was designed and used to explore the nature of the FLIs, and its influence on some aspects of teacher and learner talk. This chapter begins by addressing issues related to the finiteness, operationality and objectivity of the FISFLI. It then describes the process of choosing an appropriate speech unit that facilitated the exploration of the teacher and learner talk according to the aims of this framework. The chapter also provides detailed information about the interactional strategies included in the framework, drawing on examples from the data, and the calculations made to measure the classroom talk.

With the aim of addressing the five RQs, Chapters Seven and Eight describe the analysis of the interactional and elicited data. Chapter Seven discusses the results of the nature of the FLIs, involving IRF patterns, teacher-initiated exchanges, questions and length of learners' responses, and amount of classroom talk. It also discusses the results of the three aspects of learner talk explored in this book: language performance, discourse functions and negotiations of meaning. Chapter Eight discusses the teachers' and learners' beliefs around speaking practice. In this chapter, the discussions centre on beliefs about locally-situated needs, and how these beliefs, alongside other perceived immediate demands, were felt by the teachers and learners to influence teaching and interactional behaviour which was not entirely consistent with the pedagogic ideologies that they simultaneously endorsed. The chapter concludes by summarising the findings, and suggesting further actions.

Chapter Nine aims to illuminate the likely impact of foreign language interaction patterns, learning activities and teaching practices on learners' acquisition of speaking competence. It begins by discussing the effectiveness of the speaking practice to promote the three aspects of learner talk, involving learners' language performance, use of discourse

functions, and opportunities to negotiate meaning. It then discusses the teachers' and learners' beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands, paying closer attention to how these cognitive factors played a role in shaping classroom interaction patterns, learning activities, and teaching practice. The chapter concludes by summarising the findings, and discussing implications for designing more effective interactions for the speaking practice in this context.

The concluding Chapter Ten firstly reviews the explorations conducted in this book, and draws the findings together for all the research questions. It secondly suggests pedagogical implications which may encourage teachers and learners to carry out more effective interactions for speaking practice in EFL classrooms. The chapter concludes by discussing the limitations of the explorations and directions for future research.



## Chapter Two

### TEACHER TALK





## INTRODUCTION

In the research literature, it has been generally agreed that teacher talk during classroom interactions can assist learners in developing several aspects of a target language (Long, 1996; Swain, 2000, 2005). However, teachers responding to perceived locally-situated factors and other practical constraints may compel them to adopt teaching practices and initiate interactional strategies which are in detriment of developing learners' speaking skills. In response to this, there is research discourse which suggests that teacher talk and, particularly, interactional strategies should be initiated in relation to the moment-to-moment goal of the classroom interactions (Walsh, 2013).

The present chapter begins by discussing some benefits of teacher-led interactions (TLIs), paying closer attention to how these benefits may be influenced by instructional, interactional and cognitive factors. It then discusses how locally-situated needs and teachers' interactional strategies (namely, questions, feedback and follow-up moves, and speech modifications) play a role in shaping the nature and thus effectiveness of classroom interactions. Based on this, two arguments are put forward throughout this chapter. In order to promote effective classroom interactions, there is firstly need to raise awareness amongst teachers (as well as learners) of context-specific (instructional, interactional and cognitive) factors that influence their classroom interactions. Secondly, teachers should develop interactional autonomy which enables them to engage in classroom interactions during which interactional strategies are used as tools for collaboratively mediating and assisting foreign language learning.

## TEACHER-LED INTERACTIONS

It is unarguable that TLIs play a vital role in developing learners' speaking skills. Teacher-led interactions are central to a high number of activities that happen in the classroom (Walsh, 2011, 2013). Recently, TLIs have been described to be complex, involving, for example, teachers' and learners' unequal interactional roles, several participants, fast communication, multiple foci and discourse functions performed by teachers and learners, etcetera. Due to their complex nature, it has been suggested that teacher-led interactions may not always be conducive to promoting the development of learners' speaking skills (Altamiro, 2000; Consolo, 2006; Walsh, 2002, 2006). Empirical research has suggested that the nature and effectiveness of teacher-led interactions depend on a number of locally-situated needs, such as class time constraints (see, for example, Hayes, 2009), a large number of learners (see Ekembe, 2014; García Mayo & Pica, 2000), a reliance on particular language skills (see, for example, Borg & Burns, 2008), and the like. This dependence has been explained by the strong influence that locally-situated needs exert on teaching practices and, in turn, teachers interactional patterns which may not be consistent with research literature (Allen, 2013) or pedagogic goals (Andon & Eckerth, 2009; Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Borg & Burns, 2008; Graham, Santos & Francis-Brophy, 2014; Hayes, 2009; Navarro & Thornton, 2011). According to Ekembe (2014), teachers' response to locally-situated needs may motivate traditional teaching practices during TLIs whose main goals are not personalised interactions, and co-construction of knowledge (see also García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Philp & Tognini, 2009). For example, a reliance on IRF<sup>1</sup> patterns which is believed to result in old-fashioned teacher-centred approaches (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Philp & Tognini, 2009), limiting learners' opportunities to produce their talk (Philp & Tognini, 2009; Hall & Walsh 2002; Walqui, 2006) and

---

<sup>1</sup> “*I* represents an initiating move, such as a question posed by the teacher, *R* is the response from the class—usually from an individual student—and *F* is the follow-up comment by the teacher” (Cullen, 2002, p.117).

develop complex language knowledge and skills (Nystrand, 1997). The issue that emerges from this empirical evidence is that foreign language interactions (FLIs), which research literature have found to be mostly learners' opportunity to practise the target language (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Philp & Tognini, 2009; Yoshida, 2013a), may be influenced by locally-situated needs, shaping in turn learners' opportunities to develop speaking skills and thus ensure learner achievement. More importantly, pre-service foreign language (FL) teachers, as the participant learners of the explorations of the FLIs, are expected to demonstrate not only language teaching abilities, but also a linguistic and interactional competence which is usually developed in the language classroom (Consolo, 2006).

In addition, language teachers during TLIs, through a position of power and authority, are known to control the classroom behaviour by managing the content and procedures of interactions and learner participation. Because of the shift from teacher- to learner-centred teaching and a movement towards learner autonomy in the last two decades (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Walsh, 2013), language teachers have been widely criticised for deciding the quantity and quality of TLIs (Karaata, 2011; Musumeci, 1996; Petek, 2014; Walsh, 2002, 2006, 2011, 2013). In particular, they have been criticised for remaining in control of the interactional strategies (Walsh, 2002, 2013; Walqui, 2006), such as elicitations, feedback and follow-up moves, and speech modifications. The teachers' dominance over the discourse during TLIs is claimed to limit learners' opportunities to interact (Consolo, 2006; Walsh, 2011), contribute to the discourse (Ellis, 2012), and thus develop speaking skills. In the case of FL classrooms, these unequal interactional roles of teachers and learners are thought to prevail during FLIs (Karaata, 2011).

The following sections outline the teachers' interactional strategies which typify much of the teacher-led interaction that takes place in the language classroom (Walsh, 2011, 2013), namely, questions, corrective feedback and follow-up moves, and speech modifications. These sections aim at showing how teachers' reliance on certain interactional strategies

and patterns during TLIs may hinder the learning process. Following the claim that language use influences language learning (Ellis, 1994, as cited in Walsh, 2011), the argument put forward in these sections is that, in order to promote more effective classroom interactions and thus learning opportunities, teachers, as well as learners, should engage in interactions during which their interactional strategies are directed towards collaboratively meeting pedagogic goals. That is, pedagogic goals and teachers' (and learners') language used to achieve them must work in tandem if learning is to occur (Walsh, 2011, 2013).

## Questions

The use of elicitations by teachers is what characterises language classroom discourse (Thornbury & Slade, 2006). In language classrooms, teachers' elicitations typically entail asking questions (Walsh, 2011). As part of their instructional role, it is teachers who ask most of the questions (Walsh, 2013) in order to evaluate and guide, explicitly or implicitly, learners' responses towards pedagogic goals (Kim, 2010). Questions are believed to be tools that reconceptualise learner thinking and understanding (Cazden, 1988). For Gibbons (2003), questions in language classrooms are 'powerful' elicitation tools which guide learners' linguistic and cognitive development. Specifically, questions during TLIs are claimed to serve the following teaching and learning purposes (Kim, 2010; Long & Sato, 1983; Tsui, 1995; Chaudron, 1988):

- Allocating turns for learners;
- Assisting learners' comprehension;
- Providing participation opportunities;
- Checking the knowledge imparted;
- Moving the lesson forward; and
- Practising the form as well as the meaning.

According to Tsui (1995), the kind of questions initiated by teachers during TLIs influences learners' responses both quantitatively and qualitatively, as well as the kind of learning that takes place. Motivated by this claim, a large number of studies have set out to explore the types of questions initiated by teachers, their cognitive demands and effects on learners' oral contributions (see, for example, Tsui, 1995; Wintergest 1993). In particular, research has been centred on the distinct effects of referential and display questions on learners' oral responses. On the one hand, referential questions are normally initiated to elicit unknown information, and are satisfied by learners' open-ended constructions which serve to learn, and inform the teacher rather than be evaluated as 'good' or 'bad' (Tsui, 1995).

It is claimed that these elicitation techniques motivate 'natural', long and complex responses by learners (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; McNeil, 2012; Walsh, 2011), resulting in a more conversational and meaningful interaction (Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1990; Tsui, 1995) and the co-construction of language development (McNeil, 2012; Yang, 2010). Display questions, on the other hand, are elicitations to which teachers already know the answers. According to Walsh (2011; see also McCarthy, 1991), display questions serve the purpose of checking or evaluating: understanding, concepts, language forms, and previous learning. Responses to display questions are believed to be mostly short, simple and restricted (Tsui, 1995; Walsh, 2011). It has been found that the questions that predominate in TLIs are display questions (Farahian & Rezaee, 2012; Tsui, 1995; Walsh, 2006; Walsh, 2011; Yang, 2010).

This finding is supported by a study conducted by Long and Sato (1983), who found that teachers mostly initiated display questions. They concluded that the classroom talk where display questions predominated was a distorted version of interaction. More than thirty years after Long and Sato's (1983) study, recent research discourse confirms that display questions still predominate over referential questions during TLIs (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; McNeil, 2012; Petek, 2013; Shamoosi, 2004; Walsh, 2006, 2011; Yang, 2010).

A debate has been triggered as to the effects of referential and display questions. On the one hand, it has been pointed out that display questions 1) motivate the regurgitation of facts or pre-formulated language items; 2) discourage learners from trying to communicate their own ideas in the target language; 3) limit opportunities for performing discourse functions that are frequently found in genuine communication; and thus 4) restrict learners from developing conversational skills needed outside the classroom (Tsui, 1995; see also Nunn, 1999). On the other hand, it has been suggested that the sole use of referential questions does not always promote extended and meaningful learners' contributions and thus expected learning outcomes (Shamoosi, 2004). However, in order to create opportunities for learners to develop linguistic and conceptual knowledge and practise emerging speaking skills, the attention has been recently centred on the extent to which a particular question creates learning opportunities in relation to pedagogic goals (Kim, 2010; McCormick & Donato, 2000; McNeil, 2012; Shamoosi, 2004; Walsh, 2013). As argued by Walsh (2013), teachers can maintain control over the interactions whilst also creating greater opportunities for learners to interact and contribute more to the classroom discourse by using appropriate questions which work together with the pedagogic goal of the moment and/or interaction.

## Corrective feedback and follow-up moves

Aside from questioning techniques, teachers' provision of corrective feedback also characterises TLIs (Philp & Tognini, 2009). Corrective feedback, also known as *repair*, is information provided by teachers for learners' utterances containing an error (Tsui, 1995; Walsh, 2011). Due to the asymmetrical roles in the TLIs, the provision of corrective feedback is a ritual that prevails in language classrooms (Walsh, 2006, 2011, 2013); learners will always derive information about their linguistic behaviour from the teachers' (oral) reactions (Chaudron, 1988; Tsui, 1995).

There is extensive evidence from research literature which argues that teachers' corrective feedback promotes language learning (see García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Martínez-Flor, 1999; McDonough, 2004; to name just a few). In particular, corrective feedback is claimed to provide learners with opportunities to metalinguistically reflect on the clarity, accuracy, and comprehensibility of their utterances (Martínez-Flor, 1999; McDonough, 2004; Pica, 1994, 1996b), as well as opportunities to correct wrong language hypotheses and prevent errors from being fossilised (Tsui, 1995; Pica, 1996b; Swain, 2005; van Lier, 1988b). It has been also argued that corrective feedback can promote learners' exposure to teachers' well-formed utterances and information concerning the accuracy of their utterances – when its provision is embedded in a collaborative interaction during which teachers and learners provide jointly owned affordances to solve linguistic problems (see Section Speech modifications for a fuller discussion about speech modifications) (Rassaei, 2014; see also Long, 1996, Swain & Susuki, 2008).

Despite arguments that there is no reason why erroneous utterances should not be corrected in L2 classrooms, teachers during TLIs normally deal with two conflicting actions regarding the provision of corrective feedback, namely, whether teachers should:

1. interrupt the classroom communication, provide learners with corrective feedback, and avoid interlanguage fossilization; or
2. omit the error, continue with the interaction and maintain learners' face. (Walsh, 2006)

It has been found that the latter action is motivated by negative effects with which teachers are confronted when learners perceive corrective feedback as face-threatening (Yoshida, 2013a), evaluative (Allwright & Bailey, 1991), or a communication failure (Tsui, 1995). In light of the possibility that corrective feedback during TLIs may be perceived by learners as face-threatening and thus limit their oral production, research literature has suggested alternative techniques for providing learners with corrective

feedback or information concerning their accuracy. For example, Hendrickson (1978) suggests that teachers should only correct those errors that 1) hinder communication significantly; 2) have highly stigmatising effects; and 3) occur frequently in learners' speech. Tsui (1995) warns that teachers should not correct every error since it may discourage learners from answering questions and participating in future interactions. More recently, studies have shown an advocacy for teachers' provision of follow-ups (defined as a teacher's repertoire of response affirmations, reformulations, comments, and requests for clarification, justification and elaboration) rather than corrective feedback so as to motivate learners' oral production.

Hall and Walsh (2002), drawing on empirical studies (for example, Boxer & Cortés-Conde, 2000; Boyd & Maloof, 2000; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Nystrand, 1997), provide evidence that the quantity and quality of learners' responses and thus learner achievement are enhanced when teachers follow up classroom interactions compared to instances during which corrective feedback was provided. In line with Hall and Walsh (2002), Cullen (2002) suggests that follow-ups provide a rich source of message-oriented target language input as teachers reformulate and elaborate on learners' oral contributions. However, the immediate issue that emerges from a reliance on follow-ups, which may impact on learners constructing more elaborate and complex utterances, is that learners' opportunities to develop metalinguistic knowledge and push their utterances towards greater accuracy would be limited. In particular, a reliance on follow-up moves during TLIs would restrict negotiations of meaning (or speech modifications; see Section Speech modifications) during which implicit or explicit negative feedback is facilitated.

Thus, in order for learners to benefit from all possible learning opportunities during TLIs, teachers need not abandon the provision of either corrective feedback or follow-ups; the use of both during classroom interactions maximises learners' opportunities to be exposed to information concerning the accuracy of their utterances as well as opportunities for oral production (Rassaei, 2014). Teachers should thus make a *conscious*



use of feedback and follow-up moves in relation to the pedagogic goal of the moment (Cullen, 2002; Tsui, 1995; Walsh, 2013). That is, teachers need to be aware of the effects of these strategies, and use them depending on the aim of the teaching practice. In order to avoid learners' loss of face, Rassaei (2014) suggests that the provision of corrective feedback needs to be performed collaboratively, in a way that encourages learners to produce language and assists them in negotiating and solving their erroneous utterances.

## Speech modifications

Other interactional strategies that typify classroom discourse are teachers' speech modifications whose formal study originated from the research work by Ferguson (1971). As discussed below, these speech modifications in the classroom can be initiated by the teacher or interactionally by teachers and learners for the sake of reaching mutual comprehension.

Teachers' speech modifications, in written or oral discourse, are a type of talk that has been altered in some way by a teacher to convey meaning in a way that is explicit, lucid, and accessible to learners (Bahrani & Soltani, 2012). Learners' comprehension is believed to increase when teacher modify their talk by means of *language simplification* (for example, simplified pronunciation, fewer number of questions, use of shorter utterances, simpler syntax and vocabulary, fewer morphological inflections, and a preference for canonical word order) and *elaboration*<sup>2</sup> (involving an increase of redundancy, pauses, self-repetitions and paraphrasing) (see Oh, 2001; Park, 2002). Motivated by the claim that SLA is fostered by teachers' speech modifications, an emerging amount of empirical research has set out to test their effects on learners' comprehension (see recent

---

<sup>2</sup> Linguistic elaboration involves increasing redundancy, repetition and paraphrasing (Park, 2002, p. 4).

work by Kim, 2003; Oh, 2001). The empirical evidence has shown that the effects of teachers' speech modifications are varied, suggesting a tendency of greater learners' comprehension by speech elaborations. For example, Oh (2001) performed a study which looked at the comparative values of simplified texts (by shorter sentences and less complex syntax and lexis) and elaborated texts (by redundancy, signalling of thematic structure, paraphrasing, repetitions, and synonyms and definitions of low-frequency). She found that learners' language comprehension was increased by the elaborated versions. In the same vein, Kim (2006), in a study of vocabulary elaboration on texts, found that explicit elaboration of vocabulary resulted in learners recognising the meaning of low-frequency L2 vocabulary.

Alternatively, researchers have called for speech modifications performed interactionally by both teachers and learners (i.e., negotiations of meaning). Interactional speech modifications involve negotiated interactions triggered by teachers or learners' linguistic deficits or demonstrated non-comprehension (Long, 1983, 1996). The findings of interactionist research have demonstrated that interactional speech modifications have a beneficial impact on learners' comprehension than teachers' speech modifications (Loschky, 1994; Ellis, Tanaka & Yamazaki, 1994; Park, 2002). However, in exploring their nature, a considerable number of empirical studies have found that teachers and learners engage in interactional speech modifications during which individual vocabulary or short expressions are negotiated rather than content or grammar structures (see, for example, Foster & Ohta, 2005; Sheen 2004; Shi 2004). Other studies have yielded findings which indicate a scarcity of interactional speech modifications in the classroom discourse (Foster, 1998; García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Reasons for the scarcity of interactional speech modifications in classroom-based communication are still not clear. Ellis (cited in Walsh, 2006) believes that interactional speech modifications do not happen in classrooms where teachers dominate the discourse; traditional roles of teachers and

learners prevail; and a large number of learners which would make it impossible to initiate speech modifications with every learner (Ekembe, 2014). It has been also suggested that teachers and learners may avoid these interactional adjustments, involving corrective feedback and oral clarifications, when they are perceived as face-threatening (Foster, 1998), a sign of incompetence (Aston, 1986; Foster & Ohta, 2005), or time-consuming (Park, 2002). These limitations pose problems for learners in EFL classrooms, which have been found to be the sole opportunity for learners to practise the target language (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Philp & Tognini, 2009; Yoshida, 2013).

It is apparent that learners' comprehension of the target language is increased (Park, 2002), and learning opportunities are maximised (Walsh, 2013) when classroom interactions promote both kinds of speech modifications. This is because learners benefit from opportunities not only to be exposed to well-formed utterances and corrective feedback, but also to produce more accurate utterances (McNeil, 2012; Swain, 2000, 2005). Consistent with the sociocultural perspective adopted in this book, the explorations of the FLIs are centred on oral modifications performed at an interactional level. The argument that lies behind this decision is that speech modifications performed interactionally involves both teachers and learners working together towards co-constructing meanings and learning (Walsh, 2013). Moreover, interactional speech modifications involve learners' agency in co-constructing meanings and knowledge in collaboration with teachers, ensuring that the discourse progresses smoothly, and thus promoting learning (Walsh, 2013).

Thus, in order to gain insights into interactional speech modifications (i.e., negotiation of meaning) in FLIs, the explorations examine the extent to which teacher- and learner-led interactions promote interactional adjustments without controlling classroom variables (i.e., teaching style, tasks, classroom structure and behaviour, number of learners, class and task time). These explorations are focused not only on the extent to which the FLIs are conducive to negotiating and adjusting meaning, but

also on the factors that limit interactional speech modifications with a view to understanding how EFL teachers and learners may engage in FLIs during which these interactional adjustments are promoted.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter Two has discussed teacher-led interactions and different factors that may influence them. For years, language teachers have been widely criticised for remaining in control of teacher-led interactions. This is because this control is believed to limit learners' opportunities to practise, contribute to classroom discourse and develop speaking skills. This chapter also provided an overview of teachers' interactional strategies which typify much of the interaction that takes place in the language classroom. Besides teachers' dominance of these interactional strategies, research has shown that teachers' elicitations in the form of questions, corrective feedback and follow-up moves, and speech modifications may be ineffective in promoting language achievement when there are contextual factors that compel teachers to rely on some strategies, or not to fully use them.

Based on the above, we put forward the argument throughout this chapter that teachers should develop an understanding of instructional, institutional and cognitive factors, and ways through which their talk and interactional strategies can be directed towards collaboratively meeting pedagogic goals. As we shall discuss in the following chapter, it seems possible that both teachers and learners can be assisted in developing an understanding of their teaching and learning context and the factors that play a role during their FLIs.

## Chapter Three

# LEARNER PERFORMANCE



## INTRODUCTION

Because of recent movements towards learner-centred teaching approaches, learners have been given a more agentive role in promoting their language development. This is in line with a sociocultural perspective of language learning which describe learners as interactants who can transform and push their own language skills towards greater development. Therefore, learner participation during teacher-led (TLIs) and peer (PIs) interactions is of great significance to ensure their effectiveness and thus language achievement. However, learner performance has been found to be influenced by several factors (see Aragão, 2011; Ellis, 2008, 2012; Inozu, 2011; Morita, 2004; Peng, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; White, 2008; Yoshida, 2013a).

This chapter begins by discussing the role and importance of learner participation and motivation. It focuses on the effectiveness of classroom interactions and thus language achievement. It then outlines the role of classroom interactions in developing learners' language performance, discourse competence, and interactional competence. It concludes by describing learning benefits and shortcomings of peer-led interactions. The main argument put forward in this chapter is that learner performance and linguistic as well as interactional skills during classroom interactions may be dependent on instructional (i.e., task selection and performance, kind of interactions, etc.) and cognitive (i.e., learner beliefs about the teaching and learning context) factors that need teachers' and learners' consideration.

## LEARNER PARTICIPATION, MOTIVATION

Because of a recent advocacy towards promoting learner-centred teaching and learner autonomy in the language classroom (see Kumaravadivelu, 2001), learners have been given a more agentive role in shaping language

learning (see, for example, Swain, 2000, 2005). This reconceptualised role has required them to possess an awareness of the importance of their participation, use of interactional strategies, affordances and L2 learning opportunities. When learners participate, they make a significant contribution to the management of interactions (Allwright & Bailey, 1991); learner participation is crucial to the success of classroom interactions in promoting language learning (McDonough, 2004; Yoshida, 2013b). However, learner participation has been found to be influenced by instructional and cognitive factors (see Aragão, 2011; Ellis, 2008, 2012; Inozu, 2011; Morita, 2004; Peng, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a). For example, tasks<sup>1</sup>, as instructional materials which have attracted attention in the language education literature since the 1980s, shape learner participation and talk as to its quantity and quality. According to Ellis (2012), the effects of tasks vary depending on their design, for example:

1. *'Unfocused' or 'focused' tasks.* The former are tasks that promote learner communication in general, whereas in the latter learners communicate with a focus on a grammatical aspect.
2. *'Input-providing' or 'output-providing' tasks.* The former refers to tasks which engage learners in reading or listening. The latter tasks engage learners in speaking or writing.
3. *'Filling-a-gap' tasks.* These tasks require learners to fill a gap by providing either 1) information, 2) opinions, or 3) reasoning.

The design and methodological aspects of tasks determine the cognitive processing and demands that learners need in order to perform the tasks and achieve the tasks' purpose, having an impact on the quantity and quality of learners' language performance (Walsh, 2002). Besides the influence of tasks on learner interactional behaviour, it has been also sug-

---

<sup>1</sup> In Bygate, Skehan and Swain's (2001) words, a task is defined as "an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective" (p.11).



gested that learners' perceptions about tasks may influence their language performance (Skehan, 2003).

Another factor influencing learner participation and thus language achievement during classroom interactions is learners' perceptions of the teaching and learning context which have a significant impact on the levels of learner motivation (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a). Despite its increasingly large amount, research is still being conducted to investigate learner motivation since it is believed to be a factor that determines learner participation and thus the success or failure of classroom interactions and learner achievement (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013). Learner motivation has been found to be affected by the anxiety that characterises language classrooms (Wesely, 2012; Yoshida, 2013b). Learners' anxiety can be explained by the high demands of classroom interactions which require them to communicate in the target language and develop speaking skills (Tsui, 1995). Specifically, learners' anxiety may be exacerbated by the following factors:

- Demands of classroom interactions (e.g., varied vocabulary, diverse intonations, proper articulation, formal and informal registers, gestures, body language, and the like (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013).
- Fear of speaking in front of others (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013);
- Fear of making mistakes (Tsui, 1995; Yoshida, 2013b).
- Teachers' frequent evaluations of learners' responses (Tsui, 1995);
- Learners' perceptions of linguistic inferiority (Aragão, 2011; Tsui, 1995; Yoshida, 2013b);
- Classes mainly focused on grammar (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013); and
- Lack of learner autonomy (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013).

As a way to lessen learners' anxiety, researchers have suggested some recommendations in order to promote their participation and oral production. For example, Tsui (1995) suggests that group work should be encouraged to enable learners to interact collaboratively with peers in order to avoid

face-threatening environments, and promote learners' oral production. Pellegrino Aveni (2005) proposes that in situations of high anxiety, learners need to perceive a sense of appreciation and enhancement of their social, intellectual and linguistic knowledge in order to promote their communication and participation in classroom interactions more effectively.

So far, we have seen that learner participation is crucial in ensuring the effectiveness of classroom interactions and thus language achievement. As reported by research literature, learner participation may be influenced by instructional (e.g., characteristics of speaking tasks) and cognitive (e.g. learners' perceptions of tasks and teaching and learning context) factors. As we shall discuss in the remainder of the chapter, there is further research evidence which suggests that learner performance and participation and thus achievement may be shaped by the kind of interactions (teacher-led or peer interactions), characteristics of tasks and learner perceptions.

## Language performance

In the language classroom, the interplay between language performance and development is complex in nature. This nature has motivated research to explore and gauge the multidimensional processes involved in language performance (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). In accordance with Larsen-Freeman (2006), Rosmawati (2014) and Skehan and Foster (2008), the pivotal aspects of language performance and development can fruitfully be captured by the complexity, accuracy and fluency constructs because they gauge, describe and benchmark L2 production. At this point, it is useful to define these constructs.

- *Complexity* is the learner's preparedness to use a wide range of different (grammar) structures (Ellis, 2012). According to Richards (2015), complexity reflects the extent to which tar-

get language production reflects grammatically complex and advanced structures.

- *Accuracy* is viewed as “a concern to avoid error” (Skehan, 2009, p. 510), and “the ability to produce target language that is free of grammatical and other errors” (Richards, 2015, p. 730).
- *Fluency* refers to the production of language in real time without pausing, hesitation, comprehension difficulties or a breakdown of communication (Ellis, 20; Richards, 2015, p. 738).

Tasks have long been used to explore learners’ language performance indicated by these three dimensions because their design and methodological aspects reflect the cognitive processing and demands which learners need in order to formulate and produce their utterances. According to Skehan (2009), successful task performance benefits the above three dimensions. However, learners’ attentional resources have been found to be limited for attending to the three dimensions (Foster & Skehan, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Skehan, 1998, 2003, 2009). That is, learners attending to one dimension during tasks might cause lower performance in the other two (Skehan, 2003, 2009). This is mirrored in the following generalisations suggested by Skehan (2009):

- Accuracy and fluency, but not complexity, are raised in personal information exchange tasks;
- There is higher complexity, but lower accuracy and fluency, on narrative tasks;
- Pre-task planning produces greater complexity and fluency;
- Tasks based on concrete or familiar information raise accuracy and fluency;
- Tasks containing clear structure raise accuracy and fluency; interactive tasks raise accuracy and complexity;
- Tasks requiring information manipulation lead to higher complexity; and

- Post-task conditions such as public performance or transcription of one's own performance raise accuracy.

These generalisations are consistent with the Trade-off Hypothesis (Skehan, 2009), which argues that there is a tension between form (complexity and accuracy) and meaning (related to fluency) in which, “committing to one area, other thing being equal, might cause lower performance in others” (Skehan, 2003). In other words, these trade-off effects among the above three dimensions are a consequence of learners' use of an imperfectly learned L2 which imposes a large burden on the learner's attention and causes the learner to make choices on being complex, being accurate and/or being fluent (Skehan, 1998, as cited in Tavakoli & Foster, 2011). However, as raised by Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998), the above generalisations may not apply to all language classrooms since learners' language performance is conditioned by the linguistic teaching and learning environment, implying that tasks should be performed and studied in relation to the context where interactions are carried out. Nevertheless, the three dimensions can be benefitted, according to Skehan (2003), when learners are provided with opportunities to manipulate the structure (influencing greater accuracy) and information (influencing greater complexity) of tasks. This argument is supported by findings of studies conducted by Foster and Skehan (1996, 1999, 2013), Foster and Tavakoli (2009), and Tavakoli and Skehan (2005). For example, Foster and Skehan (1999) explored three types of (solitary, group-based and teacher-led) planning, and found that complexity and accuracy, which normally compete in task performance, were both mediated and increased by the teacher-led planning. Post-tasks, that is, tasks performed after main tasks, have been also found to raise complexity and accuracy levels as suggested by Foster and Skehan (2013), who found that in tasks performed after decision-making tasks raised both learners' complexity and accuracy levels.

It is clear from the above discussion that task characteristics have an impact on learner talk and, in particular, learners' fluency, complexity and

accuracy. As suggested by the findings of the research literature, learners' attentional resources are limited to attend to the three dimensions (see the Trade-off Hypothesis proposed by Skehan, 2009). The three dimensions appear to be benefitted when learners have opportunities to manipulate the structure and/or information of tasks (Skehan, 2003). However, it is possible that these claims may not apply to all language classrooms since language performance is believed to be context-specific (Wolfe-Quintero et al. 1998). Therefore, the explorations of the FLIs examine the extent to which the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels is conducive to promoting learners' language performance, involving fluency, complexity and accuracy. This exploration in turn attempts to fill the gap of the study of language performance which has been mainly conducted under controlled classroom variables, that is, in experimental studies which do not sometimes reflect teaching and learning practices that are commonly initiated in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms.

## Discourse competence

In language classrooms, as social environments, teachers and learners initiate discourse functions which are essential to communicate. It is claimed that the control that learners exert on the range of discourse functions determines the quality of their discourse inside the language classroom (Ellis, 2012), and the development of a discourse competence that is transferable to 'natural' situations' (Long & Porter, 1985). Due to unequal interactional roles in the language classroom, discourse functions are normally the teachers' exclusive preserve (Long & Porter, 1985). The low number of discourse functions that learners initiate can be possibly explained by teachers' perceived pressure to move forward the language class; a reliance on language textbooks, specific tasks, drilling, learners' accuracy; and learners' inhibition to communicate (Long, Adams, Mclean & Castaños, 1976). According to Ellis (2012), IRF patterns can

also hinder learners from 1) initiating a range of discourse functions; 2) constructing creative discourse and 3) thus developing a discourse competence (Long *et al.* 1976).

As a way to reconcile learners' limited use of discourse functions during TLIs, Long *et al.* (1976) and Ellis (2012) argue that PIs, promoting a more intimate and inhibition-free environment, encourage discourse functions that are not usually open to learners during TLIs. Empirical studies have confirmed that learners use a greater and range of discourse functions during PIs than TLIs (see Cathcart, 1986; DiCamilla & Anton, 1997; Long *et al.* 1976; Ohta & Nakane, 2004). For example, the findings in Cathcart's (1986) study indicated that the number and range of discourse functions increased in settings where learners were able to initiate the talk, and teachers did not dominate the interactions. Similarly, Long *et al.* (1976) compared the quantity and range of discourse functions which intermediate learners initiated in TLIs and PIs. Their findings also indicated a greater number and range of discourse functions in peer than in teacher-led discussions.

In sum, research literature argues that learners' use of discourse functions during classroom interactions has an impact on the quality of their talk (Ellis, 2012), and the development of a discourse competence (Long & Porter, 1985). However, learners' opportunities to utilise a wide range of discourse functions in TLIs have been found to be limited (Ellis, 2012; Long *et al.* 1976; Long & Porter, 1985). In contrast, PIs are claimed to enable learners to initiate a greater number and range of discourse functions than teacher-led discussions (Cathcart, 1986; Long *et al.* 1976). Motivated by these claims and findings, the explorations of the FLIs aim to develop an understanding of the extent to which TLIs and PIs at three different proficiency levels enable learners to initiate discourse functions. If the findings are seen to corroborate the above limitations, there will be a need to not only encourage teachers to carry out speaking practice in PIs in order to promote learners' development of a discourse competence, but also to assist the teachers in developing an

understanding of more effective TLIs during which learner autonomy and initiation of a range of discourse functions are promoted.

## Interactional competence

More than three decades ago, claims that language learning evolves out of learning how to participate in L2 interactions started to emerge (Hatch, 1978a, 1978b). The idea that language learning is embedded within learners' opportunities to engage in classroom communication has motivated a movement towards *communicative competence*, a term coined by Hymes (1972). This movement can still be found in current language teaching methodologies (e.g., Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching) whose primary aim is to look at the ways in which learners use linguistic, semantic, discourse, pragmatic and strategic resources in order to convey meaning (Walsh, 2013).

Since its beginning, however, the above movement has been surrounded by controversy and criticisms. Scholars have made the point that classroom communication is indeed important, but insufficient to develop all aspects of L2 competence (Ellis, 1995; Long, 1996; Naughton, 2006; Pica, 1996; Swain, 1985, 2000, 2005). According to Long (1996) and Pica (1996), the limitations of classroom communication can be explained by the emphasis of language teaching methodologies on meaning-based communication, which leaves little room for learners to work on the language itself. In line with this suggestion, Kramsch (1986) raised several concerns about the way foreign languages were taught and learnt in the United States of America following the *Proficiency Guidelines* of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and Educational Testing Service (ETS). Specifically, she criticised three practices implied in these guidelines:

1. Language learning involves the mastery of behavioural and linear functions.

2. Language learning is regarded as a static rather than a dynamic process of communication. That is, an emphasis is placed on the language structure since, according to Kramsch (1986), it is controllable, measurable, and easily teachable.
3. Learners' accuracy is stressed over discourse competence.

Based on the above, Kramsch (1986) noted that the achievement of goals in the ACTFL / ETS Proficiency Guidelines would only be superficial. According to Walsh (2013), the above practices are still alive in most recent language teaching methodologies and testing materials which emphasise individual performance, and aim at developing learners' fluency, accuracy, and appropriate grammatical structures, rather than their ability to interact and develop a discourse aptitude.

In response to the above limitations, Walsh (2013) put forward the need to advance (foreign) language learning by developing learners' *interactional competence*. Prior to defining the notion of *interactional competence*, it is useful at this stage to define the term *interaction*, which is used throughout this study. Broadly speaking, *interaction* can be defined as a collaborative activity during which a speaker and (an) interlocutor(s) set goals and negotiate interactionally the procedures used to reach them (Hall & Doehler, 2011).

According to Hall and Doehler (2011), successful interactions involve an ability 1) to accomplish meaningful social actions, 2) to respond to interlocutors' previous actions and 3) to make recognizable for them what the intentions and actions are and how these relate to them. Central to successful interactions is a shared internal context that is constructed through the interactants' collaborative efforts to ensure understanding of each other's intentions, perceptions, and expectations during interactions. Drawing on this perspective, we can define *interactional competence* as the ability to use context-specific expectations, dispositions, orientations and resources to bring about successful interactions (Hall & Doehler, 2011; Kramsch, 1986). This ability involves the employment of



prosodic, linguistic, sequential and nonverbal resources to produce and interpret turns and actions; to construct them so they are recognizable for others; to anticipate, negotiate and adjust breakdowns in maintaining shared understanding of the interactional work speakers and interlocutors are trying to accomplish together; and to arrive at intended meaning and joint understandings (Hall & Doehler, 2011; Kramsch, 1986; McCarthy, 2005; Young, 2003; Walsh, 2013). This ability also includes social skills and knowledge of context-specific communicative events, their typical goals and actions by which they are realised and the conventional behaviours by which role relationships are accomplished (Hall & Doehler, 2011).

Kramsch (1986) criticises research which suggests that interactional competence in an L1 is readily available in an L2, arguing that it is not possible to assume that all FL learners have control of interactional skills. Walsh (2013) notes that interactional competence is not developed through learners simply taking part in pair-work tasks or group discussions since the development of interactional competence requires 'extreme mental and interactional ability'. There is thus a need to promote learners' interactional competence in and through the target language. In support of this suggestion, Garfinkel and Sacks (1970) argue that interactional practices and behaviour are learnable because they are on continuous display when learners engage in interactions. Moreover, Nguyen (2011) claims that interactions provide their own 'inherent learning mechanism'. In line with this, it has been suggested that interactional strategies, e.g., turn-taking, topic introduction and management, signalling boundaries, holding and yielding the floor, and the like, should be taught as a first step towards promoting interactional competence in the target language (see Byrnes, 1984; Young, 2003). However, Kramsch (1986) and, more recently, Hall and Doehler (2011) place greater emphasis on learners' existing interactional competencies and knowledge in order to develop interactional competence and thus emancipatory foreign language learning. In order to attain this, Walsh (2013) suggests that interactional competence

can be promoted when teachers and learners have a clear idea of the context under scrutiny, and can relate their actions, interactions and resources to their intended goals: communicating, understanding and learning.

In sum, interactional competence is the knowledge and ability to draw on routinized, yet context-sensitive procedures to successfully accomplish interactional goals (Hall & Doehler, 2011). It is social in that its skills are developed in interaction and shared with members in communicative contexts (Hall & Doehler, 2011). In language classrooms as social environments, communication is claimed to promote learners' linguistic and interactional competence when teachers and learners as interactants develop an understanding of their contexts in which they are interacting, and the linguistic and interactional resources to meet the goal of the moment (Walsh, 2013). This is of great importance for the purpose of the explorations of the FLIs because it suggests that learners' interactional competence can be promoted in the EFL classroom communication. We will return to this suggestion in Chapter Nine where the findings of the explorations of the FLIs are discussed.

## PEER INTERACTIONS

Since the emergence of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) as a formal field of study, the scope of language education research has been to find more effective learning opportunities from which learners can benefit during interactions (Ellis, 2012). The attention has been also centred on the role of interactions amongst learner peers in creating learning opportunities, which empirical studies have corroborated (see, for example, Consolo, 2006; García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Philp & Tognini, 2009). Specifically, empirical studies have found that learners in PIs are able to produce a greater amount of talk (Ellis, 2012; Gibbons, 2002; McDonough, 2004), utilise a wider range of discourse functions (Long et al. 1976; Long

& Porter, 1985), initiate a greater number of self- and other-corrections than in TLIs (Long & Porter, 1985; Pica & Doughty, 1985b); and construct utterances that are as accurate as in TLIs (Ellis, 2012).

Nevertheless, Ellis (2012) and Pica (1994) emphasise the need to be cautious about overstating and generalising the benefits of PIs, since these interactions have also been found to not always promote learners' oral competence (Naughton, 2006; Pica, 1996a). Specifically, empirical studies have suggested limitations of PIs as to scarcity of 1) negotiated interactions (Foster, 1998; Naughton, 2006; Pica, 1996a), 2) grammar negotiation (Williams, 1999; Philp, Walter & Basturkmen, 2010), and 3) modified output (Naughton, 2006). For example, Foster (1998) points out that perceptions of PIs as 'light-hearted' or friendly rather than learning opportunities may encourage learners to avoid engaging in negotiated interactions. Consequently, Williams (1999) warns that leaving learners too much responsibility for the interactions may not yield expected learning results; it is possible that learners during PIs make of tasks "what they will" (Larsen-Freeman, 2009, p.585).

Some suggestions have been formulated in the literature to reconcile the advantages and shortcomings of PIs. For example, Ellis (2012) suggests that peer discussions can be effectively carried out when learners, by discussing and reflecting on their interactional behaviour, develop an awareness of them. Foster (1998) suggests that PIs may yield more effective interactional behaviour if learners are taught to "pursue communication breakdowns until they are resolved." In a similar vein, Naughton (2006) suggests that learner-led interactions are enhanced when learners are encouraged to practise and reflect on the use of interactional strategies, such as initiating follow-up questions, requesting and giving clarifications, providing corrective feedback, and requesting and giving linguistic help. The importance of these suggestions to the purpose of the explorations of the FLIs is twofold. Firstly, they imply that learners can also develop an understanding of their use of interactional strategies towards creating interactional and learning opportunities in peer-led dis-

cussions. Secondly, learners' understanding of their use of interactional strategies can be gained by discussing and reflecting on their interactional behaviour in classroom interactions.

In sum, PIs are claimed to be beneficial for developing learners' linguistic as well as interactional skills. Therefore, they need to be promoted in the language classroom (Naughton, 2006). However, based on the evidence that learners' perceptions of PIs may encourage them to adopt interactional behaviours which may not yield expected learning outcomes, learners should be aware of engaging in peer discussions which are aligned with the pedagogic goal set by tasks or teachers. This evidence is valid enough to explore the PIs during which the learners practise speaking. Moreover, it highlights the need to explore the learners' perceptions of PIs in order to understand the extent to which these interactions are conducive to developing learners' speaking skills in this context.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter Three built on the claim that learner performance is central to the effectiveness of classroom interactions and learner achievement. Specifically, the chapter discussed how learner participation is significant to ensure language learning. Moreover, the chapter outlined some aspects of learner talk: language performance indicated by the complexity, accuracy and fluency dimensions, discourse competence and interactional competence that can be developed in the EFL classroom. However, due to the complex nature of classroom interactions, the chapter discussed how language performance and development can be dependent on an interplay of factors, involving locally-situated needs, learner motivation, tasks, among others.

The above evidence in turn highlights the need to conduct explorations of the factors that may shape learners' performance. In response to

this, the explorations of the FLIs at the three proficiency levels will not only examine teacher talk, but also explore the opportunities that learners have to contribute to the foreign language discourse, their complexity, accuracy and fluency levels, use of discourse functions and opportunities to engage in negotiated interactions during TLIs and PIs. If (instructional, interactional and/or cognitive) factors are seen to shape learner performance, there would be a need to raise the learners', as well as the teachers', awareness of the factors, and their effects on influencing learner performance and achievement. Moreover, due to the fact that teachers and learners co-own the classroom discourse (Walsh, 2013), both teachers and learners would need to be assisted in developing an understanding of interactions as joint activities during which they collaboratively create and negotiate a communicative space (Mercer and Littleton, 2007; Walsh, 2013) and consciously use interactional strategies towards maximising the interactional space and thus learning opportunities (Kim, 2010; Walsh, 2011, 2013), leading to a reflective teaching and learning process from which the teachers as well as learners theorise from their practice and practise what they theorise (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).



## Chapter Four

# TEACHER AND LEARNER BELIEFS





## INTRODUCTION

It is widely known that people have beliefs about everything (Inozu, 2011; Pajares, 1992). People have been described as continuously constructing and conceptualising episodes that are relevant to explaining significant practices in relation to who they are, where they are, and what to do in a specific situation (Negueruela-Azarola, 2011). In other words, people construct and use beliefs in order to make sense of their everyday practices, and what to do in specific situations (Borg, 2011). This is not the exception in language classrooms; teachers and learners construct and act on beliefs about their immediate teaching and learning context (Allen, 2002; Borg, 2003, 2006, Borg & Burns, 2008). Any full understanding of why teachers and learners behave in the way they do therefore requires an investigation of their underlying beliefs.

Chapter Four is, to some extent, an extension of Chapter Three, in that it intends to show how cognitive factors, namely, teacher and learner beliefs, may influence teaching —and learning— related practices and interactional behaviour, shaping the effectiveness of classroom interactions and thus learner achievement. The argument put forward in this chapter is that the effects of teacher and learner beliefs need to be explored *in situ* in order to promote the effectiveness of classroom interactions, and a more context-sensitive and emancipatory language pedagogy (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Walsh, 2013).

## TEACHER BELIEFS

During teacher education, teachers are expected to perform teaching practices which are continuously reflected and enhanced with a view to developing knowledge that will inform and, in turn, be informed by classroom practice (Calderhead & Robson, 1991). In the language classroom,

teachers make decisions which are influenced by a wide range of psychological constructs. “[T]eachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and belief” (Borg, 2003, p. 81). In this sense, Borg (1997) refers to these complex, yet interrelated, constructs as teacher cognition. This set of intricate constructs are illustrated in Figure 4.1 which outlines the relationship among teacher cognition, teacher learning and classroom practice.

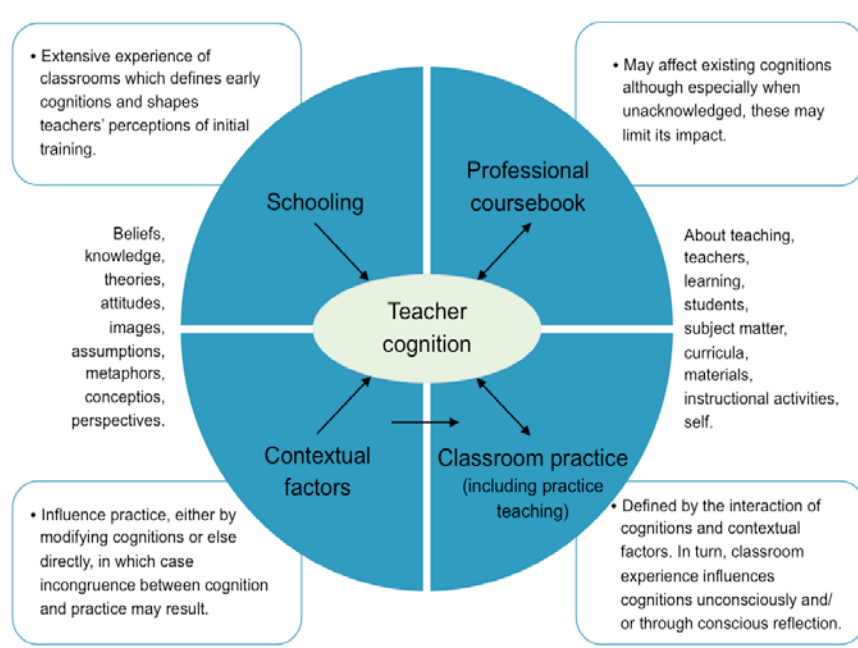
As illustrated in Figure 4.1, teacher cognition can be influenced by prior learning experiences (i.e., ‘schooling’), contextual factors (in this study, locally-situated needs and demands), extensive teaching experience (i.e., classroom practice), and pre-service teacher training (i.e., professional coursework). As represented by the black arrows, teacher cognition can be complex and dynamic. That is, the constructs in teacher cognition are not static, they change over time, and can be influenced by personal experiences, context and a number of interrelated factors. This thus suggests that teacher cognition is not linear; as teachers go through different stages during their teaching career, they shape and reshape their values, beliefs, theories, and the like. Based upon the claim that teachers act on beliefs about their immediate teaching and learning context (Allen, 2002; Borg, 2006, Borg & Burns, 2008), we acknowledge the influential role of teachers’ beliefs about the factors represented in Figure 4.1, suggesting that teacher cognition feeds and is fed by teachers’ beliefs about their teaching and learning context, past experiences, institutional demands and other contextual factors. In the explorations of the FLIs, we are particularly interested in how the teachers’ belief systems behave, and influence teaching and interactional behaviour while responding to a complex set of factors concerning their teaching and learning context.

More than two decades ago, it was predicted that the study of teachers’ beliefs would be the most valuable ‘psychological construct’ to teacher education (Pintrich, 1990, as cited in Pajares, 1992). In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), several definitions of the term

Table 4.1. Definitions of ‘teacher belief’

DEFINITION	SOURCE
Teachers’ experiential, affective and evaluative memories which “continue to colour or frame the comprehension of events later in time.”	Nespor (1987)
Propositions consciously or unconsciously held; perceived as true; composed of affective and evaluative components, stored in the long-term memory; and provide a basis for actions.	Borg (2001, 2011)
“Entities of what teachers embrace, including attitudes, values, beliefs, thinking, images, knowledge, conception, working principles, practical knowledge, and implicit theories.”	Woods (1996)

Figure 4.1 Teacher cognition (taken and adapted from Borg [1997, 2003])



*teacher belief* have been proposed, as shown in the table below.

The key points to come out of the above definitions are the fact that ‘beliefs’ include those that are affective and evaluative (that is, memories that are constructed based on moods, feelings, attitudes, and value assessment of something), as well as experiential (propositions based on practical contact with facts or a given situation), and the observation that beliefs guide or inform classroom actions. This latter point is of central importance to the aim of exploring how English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom practices are shaped by teacher, as well as learner, beliefs. Consistent with the above definitions, the construct of *teacher belief* is therefore used throughout this book to refer to the teachers’ affective, evaluative and experiential memories of pedagogical principles, teaching and learning practices, and locally-situated needs and constraints.

Empirical studies have confirmed that teachers’ beliefs exert a strong influence on teaching behaviour (see, for example, Burke, 2011; Ghasemboland & Hashim, 2013; Inozu, 2011), influencing the effectiveness of classroom interactions and thus learner achievement (Alanen, 2003; Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011). These studies have also suggested that a considerable number of teachers’ beliefs are developed, strengthened and appropriated during past experiences<sup>1</sup> in or even before pre-service teacher education (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Inozu, 2011; Karaata, 2011). In accordance with Inozu (2011), past experiences, taken by pre-service teachers as inspiration or templates, develop teacher beliefs about how a target language should be taught and learnt, and how teachers and learners should behave in the language classroom. Florio-Ruane and Lensmire (1990) point out that beliefs developed by teachers’ past experiences may be compatible with current teaching approaches, but others may not. For example, research evidence of this comes from Andon and Eckerth (2009), who explored the relationship between four teachers’ beliefs about the task-based approach and its pedagogical principles.

---

<sup>1</sup> Episodic memory for Nespor (1987).

They found that only a limited number of principles consistent with the task-based approach were reflected in their teaching practice, despite the teachers' reported knowledge of the approach. Similarly, Borg and Burns (2008), through an administration of questionnaires, found that most of the teachers (a total of 176) perceived explicit grammar instruction negatively, and stated a value for meaning-focused activities following a grammar-integrated approach. However, their stated teaching practices indicated a reliance on instructions focused on isolated grammar structures which appeared to be informed by the teachers' experiential beliefs, and with no reference to relevant research literature.

In addition, empirical studies have found that teachers' beliefs about locally-situated needs and practical constraints (e.g., class time constraints, large number of learners, institutional requirements, etc.) may heavily influence teaching behaviour (see Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Navarro & Thornton, 2011). In other words, teachers' beliefs about locally-situated needs and practical constraints may shape the way teachers teach a language, giving certain preference to particular language skills (Burke, 2011), methods or teaching approaches (Borg & Burns, 2008). For example, in a study by Hayes (2009), all the participant teachers valued Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). However, the findings indicated that the teachers' beliefs about locally-situated needs, such as the need to teach other skills and examination demands, deterred them from complying with speaking sessions consistent with the CLT. The teachers stated that time constraints and a lack of knowledge of alternative methods were the main obstacles for carrying out interactions consistent with the CLT. Moreover, it has been suggested that teacher beliefs about locally-situated needs and practical constraints, influencing their teaching and interactional behaviour, may conflict with the pedagogical beliefs and principles that teachers endorse (Allen, 2013; Karaata, 2011; Musumeci, 2002). This conflict can be explained by the force of teachers' beliefs about locally-situated needs and practical constraints that derail "teachers' ability and/or willingness to teach in ways that are consistent with their pedagog-

ical beliefs and theoretical knowledge” (Allen, 2013, p.136). For Pajares (1992), teacher beliefs, influenced by past experiences or locally-situated needs and constraints, are valid enough reasons to direct research towards exploring pre- and in-service teachers’ educational beliefs.

Despite claims that teachers’ beliefs may influence classroom actions, it has been found that the interplay between beliefs and classroom behaviour is not rigid. That is, teacher beliefs not only influence actions; actions can also influence teacher beliefs (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Woods & Çakir, 2011). This can be performed through processes of self-consciousness, reflection and re-examination (Allen, 2002, 2013; Borg, 2011; Burke, 2011; Woods & Çakir, 2011), during which classroom behaviour is transformed into well-defined practices by assisting them in questioning and changing their beliefs (Nespor, 1987), and routinizing pedagogic methods. For example, Borg’s (2011) findings indicated that a belief-reflection-action process, which involved teaching coursework and feedback from mentoring tutors during an in-service teacher training, had a beneficial impact on raising the teachers’ awareness of their teaching practices. Likewise, Allen (2013) found that French teachers, after a summer training course with native speakers, became aware of their linguistic limitations which motivated them to take corrective actions.

This empirical evidence presented so far implies that the effectiveness of classroom interactions may be shaped by teacher beliefs. As said by Pajares (1992), this implication is a valid reason to direct research towards the effects of teacher beliefs. Therefore, there is still a need for studies which explore the role of teacher beliefs in influencing teaching practices and learner achievement. These studies should set out not only to demonstrate the influential role of teacher beliefs, but also to assist teachers in raising an awareness of their beliefs, and in developing new beliefs which have an impact on more effective interactional behaviour during classroom interactions.

## LEARNER BELIEFS

Research literature has suggested that classroom interactions are beneficial for developing learners' speaking skills (Allwright, 2000; Gass, 2003; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; Long, 1996; Swain, 2000, 2005). In order to promote learner autonomy and language learning, learners have been recently given a more prominent role (see Long, 1996; Swain, 2000, 2005). This role has required them to maintain an active participation which is believed to be crucial to the effectiveness of classroom interactions (McDonough, 2004; Yoshida, 2013b).

As in the case of teachers, learners also have strong beliefs and perceptions regarding how language lessons should be delivered. It is common that language learners normally value the role of participation during classrooms interactions in developing their language proficiency (Yoshida, 2013a). However, empirical studies have found that learners' beliefs impact in complex ways on their behaviour and participation in the language learning classroom (Aragão, 2011; Inozu, 2011; White, 2008; Yang & Kim, 2011). Learners' beliefs include perceptions of themselves (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003), teaching context (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003), language community (Wesely, 2012; White, 2008), and tasks (Gore, 1995; Skehan, 2003). In particular, empirical studies have shown that learners' beliefs about their lack of self-efficacy (e.g., learners' self-perceptions of limited linguistic competence, poor pronunciation, limited vocabulary, etc.), influencing emotions, have significant effects on how learners perceive themselves in the interaction, and the way they should behave in the classroom (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a), which in some cases may deter them from fully participating and thus developing speaking skills (Wesely, 2012). Similar to teachers' beliefs, learners' beliefs can be paradoxical and conflicting (Yoshida, 2013a). For example, learners' beliefs about their lack of self-efficacy may sometimes be in conflict with pedagogical beliefs and actions that learners embrace (Yoshida, 2013a). Under these circumstances, Yang and Kim (2011) raise

the need to align learners' beliefs with interactional behaviour that is more effective for learning practices. In order to attain this, Yoshida (2013a) contends that learners can be assisted in breaking away from conflicting beliefs about classroom actions in order to promote the development and appropriation of new beliefs consistent with more effective learning practices.

Due to the fact that learners' beliefs are dynamic (Aragão, 2011; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Wesely, 2012) and can be co-constructed through dialogue (Barcelos, 2003; Yoshida, 2013a), it has been suggested that learners' beliefs can be changed and aligned with pedagogic goals through mediating learner cognition (see Aragón, 2011; Borg, 2011; Mercer, 2011; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a, 2013b). That is, conflicting beliefs can be transformed and appropriated by learners through awareness-raising procedures which involve personal reflection (Yang & Kim, 2011, Yoshida, 2013a, 2013b) and/or interaction with advisors (Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a, 2013b). Personal reflection and external advice are believed to provoke a tension between learners' beliefs and perceptions of the teaching and learning environment, "leading to qualitatively different actions" (Yang & Kim, 2011, p. 326). In order to attain this, the awareness-raising procedures should promote a 'gestalt shift' (Nespor, 1987, p. 321), in which learners' conflicting beliefs are deliberately challenged or proven unsatisfactory (Yoshida, 2013a), and alternative beliefs are made available to learners (Nespor, 1987). For example, Yoshida (2013a) reported the importance attached by learners to language accuracy and participation in class. However, she found that learners avoided classroom interactions since they believed that their accuracy levels were low. The belief in the importance of accuracy was in conflict with their belief in the importance of participation. As a consequence, learners maintained an 'avoidance strategy' for fear of making mistakes, despite their strong commitment to learning and the values they placed in participation. Through the use of diaries and interacting with learner peers, the learners were able to reflect on beliefs about their classroom behaviour, and appropriate a new 'socially co-constructed' belief in the importance of confidence for partic-



ipation. This new belief was found to be reinforced by the sense of success that the learners experienced by participating and learning more.

In sum, learners', as well as teachers', beliefs exert a strong influence on their interactional behaviour. In particular, beliefs associated with a lack of self-efficacy are claimed to affect learner involvement and participation. However, learner cognition has been found to be mediated by awareness-raising procedures, which result in enhancing learner participation and involvement during classroom interactions. As previously mentioned, there is still a need for studies which inform teachers and learners of the effects of their beliefs on classroom behaviour, and how they can mediate and develop beliefs which have an impact on promoting the effectiveness of classroom interactions and thus learner achievement.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the influential role that teacher and learner beliefs can exert on classroom teaching and learning behaviour. In particular, it discussed how teachers' beliefs around locally-situated needs and practical constraints and learners' beliefs about a lack of self-efficacy may influence teachers and learners to adopt interactional behaviour which may be in conflict with the pedagogical beliefs that they endorse. The immediate issue that emerges from this influence is that teachers' and learners' interactional behaviour and teaching practices influenced by their beliefs may not be compatible with beliefs emerging from learnt teaching principles or recent teaching approaches (Florio-Ruane & Lensmire, 1990, in Pajares, 1992). However, it was suggested that teachers' and learners' beliefs and their interactional behaviour can be aligned with pedagogic goals when teachers and learners are assisted in mediating their cognition (see Allen, 2013; Aragão, 2011; Borg, 2011; Burke, 2011; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Woods & Çakir, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011, Yoshida, 2013a, 2013b), that is,

through reflective processes or advice from tutors. In the case of the latter, researchers, advisors, or teachers can assist in (Alanen, 2003; Borg, 2011):

1. eliciting beliefs;
2. articulating what has come to awareness;
3. confronting with alternative views; and
4. reflecting on the appropriateness of revising and expanding one's knowledge.

The above empirical evidence thus highlights the need to conduct *in situ* examinations of teacher and learner beliefs in order to promote more effective teaching and learning practices, and direct, construct and re-construct context-sensitive education programs and curricula (Pajares, 1992). According to Thornbury (1996), the effects of language education research and teacher training may be only superficial without this understanding. However, more than two decades ago, Pajares (1992) claimed that research into teacher and learner beliefs was limited. More recently, Borg (2011) and Inozu (2011) contend that this research is still scarce.

In response to the above opportunities for improving teaching and learning practices, the explorations of the FLIs aim not only at exploring the classroom interactional behaviour, but also at examining the role of the teachers' and learners' beliefs during the foreign language interactions. This approach mirrors Wesely's (2012) suggestion that studies should take into account the examination of observable (i.e., interactional) and non-observable (i.e., cognitive) behaviour in order to gain insights into a given practice. In particular, the explorations of the FLIs aim to make a major contribution to research by suggesting how teacher and learner beliefs impact on teachers' decision-making and classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice. In doing so, the explorations of the FLIs suggest context-sensitive pedagogical implications which may assist teachers and learners in developing new beliefs that have an impact on more effective teaching and learning behaviour during interactions in which speaking is practised.

## Chapter Five

### APPROACH, METHODS AND DATA



## INTRODUCTION

The present book was partly motivated by previous research evidence that EFL classroom interactions are not always conducive to developing learners' speaking skills (Altamiro, 2000; Consolo, 2006; Walsh, 2002). Based upon this evidence, we questioned how these skills were taught and learned in EFL classrooms, and set out to explore the foreign language interactions (FLIs) in order to obtain a clearer picture of the factors that affect and therefore influence the development of learners' speaking skills. In response to this opportunity for understanding and improving the teaching and learning practices that are initiated in EFL classrooms, the central aim of this book is to explore the FLIs in which EFL teachers and learners engaged to practise speaking. In particular, these explorations aim at developing an understanding of factors that impede the teachers and learners from engaging in more effective interactions and thus developing learners' speaking skills.

In order to attain these aims, the explorations adopt an approach which was informed by previous explorations in a pilot study, the researcher's involvement in the research site, and a rich use of data (including detailed transcriptions of FLIs, three methods of eliciting participants' perceptions, and a data-driven analysis). The adoption of this approach lies behind the argument that research into classroom interactions should be conducted following a context-sensitive perspective (Kumaravadivelu, 2001), taking into account locally-situated actions as well as teacher and learner voices (Wesely, 2012). This chapter also addresses the objectivity, credibility and replicability of the explorations in accordance with Burton (1988), Kumaravadivelu (2001), Rallis and Rossman (2009) and Storch (2001).

## THE APPROACH

Language learners, as previously mentioned, may face limitations regarding opportunities to develop their speaking skills during classroom interactions (Altamiro, 2000; Consolo, 2006; Walsh, 2002). This research discourse raises the need to conduct explorations which aim at addressing these limitations and identifying possible solutions. In order to attain this, Walsh (2013) suggests that explorations need to be conducted *in situ* (i.e., explorations that are located in natural classrooms), aiming to understand the local context, and enhance contextually-situated teaching and learning practices.

The explorations of the FLIs thus adopt an approach which draws attention to, and makes explicit, the importance of local context in understanding and addressing low learner achievement (Walsh, 2013). The rationale behind the adoption of this approach in the explorations of the FLIs also lies in its inquiry nature. That is, the explorations reside within an exploratory and naturalistic inquiry which involves sustained involvement in the context (Hammersley, 1994, 2006) and the use of mixed methods aimed at producing a holistic understanding of the teaching and learning environment. The naturalistic inquiry adopted here is believed to allow a clear picture of the dynamism and complexity of meanings in a particular context (Lillis, 2008). Moreover, it does not involve controlling classroom conditions or variables, testing hypotheses, imposing etic perspectives, or generalising findings (Hammersley, 1994, 2006). Rather, it seeks to gain an accurate understanding of naturally-occurring FLIs, and to ensure that the explorations, methods and findings are replicable. In other words, while not claiming that other studies are necessarily insensitive to context, the adoption of an explicitly context-based approach allows for the prioritisation of an in-depth understanding of the immediate teaching and learning context over, say, the comparative approach facilitated by the implementation of a widely-used research tool or an experimental approach (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

The approach adopted in the explorations of the FLIs was firstly informed by a pilot study conducted in the same context (see Section Pilot study). The aims of the pilot study were to 1) have an initial approach with the interactional and elicited data and involvement in the context prior to conducting the explorations, 2) adjust the instruments for data collection, and 3) decide how the data were going to be processed and analysed. Secondly, emic as well as etic insights were gained by the researcher's sustained involvement (see Hammersley, 2006) during the data collection of this study. However, this advantage in turn opened up concerns related to ethical issues and objectivity of the explorations which are discussed in Sections Ethics procedures and Objectivity, credibility and replicability of the explorations, respectively. Thirdly, the approach allowed for a use of mixed methods, rich datasets, including both interactional and elicited data which are claimed to be often neglected in language educational research (Bax, 2003), and an analysis grounded in and led by the data (see Navarro & Thornton, 2011).

## RESEARCH SITE

The research context was a university in Mexico where learners are expected to learn English as a foreign language (EFL) at a proficiency level that allows them to work as EFL teachers or translators after studying a five-year degree programme. In this setting, teachers and learners perform classroom practices which are focused on developing learners' four language skills (speaking, writing, reading and listening), grammar and vocabulary. Every semester, learners have the freedom to choose the subjects according to their needs and interests, which may involve working with a different language teacher every semester.

The explorations of the FLIs were specifically conducted in three undisturbed English courses: English I (basic level), English V (intermediate level), and English X (advanced level). The following table sum-

Table 5.1 Descriptions of the English courses (Garcia Ponce, 2017)

COURSE	TYPE OF UNIT	THEORY HOURS PER WEEK	PRACTICE HOURS PER WEEK
Basic level (English I)	Compulsory	3	3
Intermediate level (English V)	Compulsory	3	3
Advanced level (English IX)	Optional	2	3

marises general information of these courses:

As shown in Table 5.1, English at basic and intermediate levels are offered as credit-bearing units; the advance level is studied as an optional unit which has no credits. After semester III (the second half of Year 2), learners are required to choose two majors: in English or French, and in language teaching or translation studies. Therefore, all the participant learners at the intermediate and advanced levels were majoring in English, and most of them were trained to become EFL teachers. Courses at basic and intermediate levels involve six hours of English study per week, where three hours are centred on learning the language form (theory) and other three on practising the language skills. In English courses at advanced levels, learners study the language form for two hours per week, and practise the language for three hours per week. According to the curriculum, the argument that lies behind the decision to reduce the number of hours after semester VI (Year 3) is that learners will study the language independently as part of a self-learning programme encouraged by the university (UAEM, 2009, 2010). However, a high number of learners in this context do not comply with this stipulation, and mostly practise the target language in the classroom (García Ponce, 2011). Assessment of the language skills is determined by the teachers, who have



the ‘academic freedom’ (in Spanish, *libertad de cátedra*) to set their own curricula. This includes continuous assessment tasks and, in some cases, oral presentations or final assignments which could be a project which demonstrates that learners have met the linguistic goals of the unit. The minimum passing grade is 6.0/10.0 for all the subjects in this teaching and learning context.

Most of the learners that take English I (basic level) come from state schools which offer limited opportunities to practise the target language (SEP, 2006b). Due to the fact that these learners are expected to develop language competence in five years, this limited linguistic background poses a problem for them in terms of linguistic performance and development (Consolo, 2006). This thus highlights the importance of ensuring that the linguistic objectives are met as stipulated in the curriculum since these learners’ main requisite for finding jobs will be their teaching as well as linguistic skills.

## PILOT STUDY

Prior to conducting the explorations of the FLIs, a small-scale pilot study was carried out following Gass and Mackey’s (2007) suggestion. The objective of the pilot study was twofold:

1. *to understand* the nature of FLIs and interactional data, and how these data were going to be collected, processed, and analysed in the main study.

Three female English teachers and 66 learners, who were enrolled in similar proficiency levels to the participants in the main explorations (namely, basic, intermediate and advanced proficiency levels), were invited to participate in the pilot study. The participants were informed of the pro-

cedures for data collection and their rights to be anonymised or withdraw at any time. All participants provided consent to participate, and for the researcher's use of data for the purposes of the pilot study.

In total, three hours were recorded (one per class) to make decisions as to the interactional data collection, data processing, and aspects of classroom talk for analysis in the explorations of the FLIs. During these recorded classroom interactions, we noted that the two recorders used to collect the data were able to capture the teacher-led interactions (TLIs). However, the quality of the recorded peer interactions (PIs) was poor, because of the fixed positioning of the recorders and their distance from the learners that made the recording of the PIs impossible. In order to record PIs, we decided to use a higher number of recorders in the main study, and position them closer to the interactions between learners. Moreover, we observed that the teaching behaviour at the three proficiency levels was not always aimed at practising speaking, but grammar, vocabulary, listening or reading. Thus, we decided to request the participant teachers to inform us of possible dates for speaking practice sessions in order to record interactions focused on developing speaking skills.

After having recorded the three classes, the need to use transcription conventions that enable us to obtain data according to the scope of the explorations then became apparent (see Jordan & Henderson, 1995). The three-hour classroom interactions were then transcribed following Koester's (2006) transcription conventions (see initial transcription conventions in Appendix 1). However, we found that some conventions were irrelevant for the purpose of exploring the FLIs (e.g., the sotto voice, inhalation, aspiration) since they were mostly designed to investigate talk by native speakers (NS) at workplaces following a conversation analysis approach. Therefore, these conventions were adapted and replaced for others which were relevant to the aims of the explorations, see final version in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Final transcription conventions (adapted from Koester [2006] and Walsh [2006])

CONVENTION	SPECIFICATION
T	Teacher
L1, L2, L3, etc.	Identified learner
LL	More than one learner or whole class
L?	Unidentified learner
//	Two slashes indicate AS-unit boundaries.
<>	<> indicates clause boundaries.
.	End of discourse unit or clause
!	Animated intonation
?	Rising intonation: question
...	Pause or break of less than 1 second within a turn
-	False start or sound abruptly cut off.
:	Colon after vowel indicates elongated vowel sound
::	Two colons indicate longer elongation
=	Latching: no perceptible inter-turn pause between continuous turns.
→	Speaker's turn continues without interruption
PERfect	Emphatic stress
/ /	Words between slashes indicate uncertain transcription
((5))	Unintelligible 5 seconds: a stretch of unintelligible speech with the length given in seconds
↕	Double arrow indicates overlapping or simultaneous speech.
[5] [T nods]	Square brackets indicate non-linguistic information, e.g., pauses of 1 or longer (the numbers of seconds is indicated), speakers' gestures or actions
[...]	Ellipsis between square brackets indicates intentionally omitted data by the researcher.
'Hehehe'	Indicates laughter in a turn; a 'he' is transcribed for each syllable laughed.

As shown in Table 5.2, some transcription conventions were included to identify the anonymised teachers and learners in the interactions (T, L1), and emphatic stress (mostly used to correct pronunciation or elicit learners' self-corrections); to add extra information of the interactions (square brackets [ ]); and to indicate data that was intentionally omitted (ellipsis between square brackets [...]), and AS-unit (//) and clause boundaries (<>).

In examining the transcripts of the three one-hour interactions, we observed that the following aspects of classroom discourse were relevant for exploring the FLIs, and learner talk during speaking practice:

#### Nature of the FLIs

- IRF patterns
- Teacher-initiated exchanges (namely, *informing*, *directing*, *eliciting*, *checking*)
- Teachers' questions
- Teachers' and learners' amount of talk
- Teachers' and learners' turn length

#### Learner talk

- Language performance (i.e., fluency, complexity, and accuracy)
- Discourse functions
- Negotiations of meaning
- Length of responses

The above aspects of classroom discourse were later gathered together to be part of the Framework of Interactional Strategies of Foreign Language Interaction (FISFLI), which aims at understanding the nature of the FLIs (involving IRF patterns, teacher-initiated exchanges, teachers' questions, amount of classroom talk, and turn length), and how their nature has an impact on four learner variables (i.e., language performance,

discourse functions, negotiations of meaning, and length of responses) (please refer to Chapter Six for a detailed description of these interactional strategies and the calculations used to measure them).

2. *to design, trial, and adjust* the instruments for eliciting the teachers' and learners' beliefs around speaking practice.

As discussed in Chapter Four, the effectiveness of classroom interactions has been found to be largely influenced by teacher and learner beliefs. Therefore, there was a need to design, trial, and adjust instruments which elicit the teachers' and learners' perceptions and underlying beliefs around speaking practice for the explorations of the FLIs. Interviews and questionnaires were then included in the pilot study. The interviews were conducted with the pilot teachers and three learners (one from each proficiency level). These interviews were performed following a question guide consisting of ten open-ended items. In examining the elicited data from the interviews, the teachers' and learners' responses were considerably focused on their interactional behaviour in the classroom. However, we found that their responses yielded scarce attitudinal and cognitive information concerning speaking practice. Therefore, we needed to re-structure the questions for the explorations of the FLIs so as to elicit data which would enable us to explore the interplay between the classroom behaviour during speaking practice and teacher and learner beliefs. Moreover, we decided that learner focus groups would be carried out in order to avoid learners' coercion, and promote a positive rapport between the researcher and learners.

The questionnaires were administered to all the learners and teachers at the three proficiency levels. During the administration of the questionnaires, we observed that the informants spent a considerable amount of time answering them since the initial versions contained a large number of open-ended questions. At the end of the questionnaires, the teachers and learners commented that they found the questionnaire time-con-

suming since it was structured with open-ended questions. Consequently, it was necessary that we re-structured the questions, using a continuum from easy questions (e.g., questions which elicit reported classroom actions and behaviour) to complex questions (e.g., questions which elicit perceptions and beliefs) (Hernández Sampieri, Fernández-Collado & Baptista, 2006), and a higher number of multiple-option items in order to administer the questionnaires in a less time-consuming way. During both the interviews and administration of questionnaires, we also observed that the use of English was a limitation to the flow of communication since the pilot teachers and learners appeared to be focused on the accuracy rather than the content of their responses.

This limitation was raised by Mackey and Gass (2005), who suggest that the use of the L2 for collecting elicited data may yield inaccurate or incomplete understandings, due to the complex demands of describing teacher- and learner-internal (e.g., beliefs and perceptions) and external (e.g., interactional behaviour) phenomena. Therefore, we decided that the L1 (Spanish) would be used during teacher interviews and learner focus groups and questionnaires in order to facilitate the provision of information, and thus gain clearer insights into the teachers' and learners' beliefs and their effects on the classroom behaviour.

In brief, the pilot study enabled us to obtain a clear picture of how the FLIs are carried out by teachers and learners in this context. This involvement in the research site allowed us to make decisions as to how the interactional data would be collected, processed, and analysed in order to gain an understanding of the effectiveness of the FLIs in which teachers and learners engage to practise speaking. Moreover, this involvement in the pilot study allowed us to design, trial and adjust the instruments which would provide insights into the interplay between beliefs and classroom behaviour during speaking practice.

# EXPLORATIONS OF THE FLIS

## Ethics procedures

Following Robson's (2003) suggestion that it is fundamental to conduct investigations in an ethical<sup>1</sup> and responsible way, we adhered to and complied with the 'recommendations on good practice in Applied Linguistics' of the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) concerning confidentiality and ethical issues of the explorations. These recommendations provide a range of principles and values which are specific to research related to applied linguistics (BAAL, 2006). As stated in Section The approach, the approach adopted in the explorations of the FLIs followed a naturalistic inquiry, which involved a collection of naturally-occurring data in the research site. This required that the researcher was immersed in the context, maintaining a role of non-participant observers during the FLIs, and interacting with the participants during the interviews, focus groups and administration of questionnaires. The researcher's previous and recent involvement in the research site opened up concerns related to ethical issues which needed to be carefully addressed in order to ensure trustworthiness<sup>2</sup> and credibility of the explorations of the FLIs (Rallis & Rossman, 2009). Thus, it became particularly important in these explorations that:

- we avoided participants' stress or coercion by informing the teachers and learners of the data collection, and how these data were going to be used (BAAL, 2006; Walsh, 2013);

---

<sup>1</sup> Ethics refers to rules of conduct which are in conformity to a code or set of principles (Creswell, 2005).

<sup>2</sup> Trustworthiness, according to Rallis and Rossman (2009), refers to a set of standards which need to be met in order to demonstrate methodologically competent and ethically sensitive research practice.

- we provided informants with the right to refuse to participate in the explorations of the FLIs (BAAL, 2006; Walsh, 2013);
- we provided information about the research, such as possible consequences, confidentiality and data security (BAAL, 2006);
- we obtained written and signed permission from all participants before any recording can begin (Rallis & Rossman, 2009; Walsh, 2013);
- we anonymised the participants' names and identities (BAAL, 2006; Rallis & Rossman, 2009); and
- we provided informants with the right to access the data and/study (BAAL, 2006).

After being informed of their rights and how the data were going to be treated, all the learners (63) and teachers (3) at the three proficiency levels provided their consent to participate in the explorations in order to respect the research site (Creswell, 2005). At the end of the data collection, the participants were informed of their right to access the data and explorations upon request.

## Participants

### *Participant learners*

The learners, male and female, that participated in the main study were enrolled in three on-going classes similar to those of the pilot study: English I (basic level), English V (intermediate level), and English IX (advanced level). In total, 63 learners (17 at the basic level; 26 at the intermediate level; and 20 at the advanced level) participated. They were originally from Mexico, and their age ranged from 18-24 years old. The majority of the learners had educational backgrounds from state schools where exposure to the language is normally 5 hours per week in classrooms of approximately 40-50 learners.



Other learners, though not many, came from private schools where exposure to English ranges from 15 to 20 hours per week. As we shall outline in Section Mixed methods and data collection procedures, the learners participated in recorded classroom interactions, focus groups and questionnaires. Complying with their right to be anonymised and protected, the learners' names and identities were carefully anonymised in the data. Instead, abbreviations and pseudonyms are used. Throughout this book, the word 'Learner' or the letter 'L' and an identification number (e.g., L21) are used to refer to specific learners in the transcripts, extracts, analysis and discussions.

### *Participant teachers*

Three female teachers at the three proficiency levels, different from the three pilot teachers, participated in the explorations of the FLIs. The following table summarises their language and teaching backgrounds:

Table 5.3 Summary of teachers' language and teaching background

TEACHER	YEARS OF FORMAL LEARNING OF ENGLISH	OPPORTUNITIES TO LEARN THE LANGUAGE ABROAD	YEARS TEACHING ENGLISH	TEACHING QUALIFICATIONS
María (basic)	14 years	Five months	12 years	BA in teaching languages Teacher training programme
Tanya (intermediate)	15-16 years	One year	Seven years	BA in languages Teacher training programme Seminars
Aranza (advanced)	More than 20 years	None	17 years	Masters in applied linguistics Teacher training programme Certificates

As shown in Table 5.3, the teachers stated that they have been learning English for 14 or more years, and teaching it for seven or more years. Moreover, the three teachers stated that they are qualified to teach English, as indicated in their degrees and teacher training programmes. This table generally suggests that the three teachers appear to have the pedagogical as well as experiential knowledge to teach the language. As we shall see in Section Mixed methods and data collection procedures, the three teachers participated in recorded interactions and interviews, which were held at their convenience. Similar to the learners' data, the names and identities of the participant teachers were anonymised, and pseudonyms are used throughout this book to refer to them: *María* for the teacher at the basic level, *Tanya* for the teacher at the intermediate level, and *Aranza* for the teacher at the advanced level.

## Mixed methods and data collection procedures

The primary aim of these explorations, as stated previously, is to understand the factors that influence the effectiveness of FLIs and thus learner achievement. As discussed in Chapters Two to Four, there is research evidence which suggests that the effectiveness of classroom interactions and learner achievement can be shaped by instructional, interactional, and cognitive factors that need teachers' and learners' consideration. Based on this evidence, there is a need to explore observable (i.e., instructional and interactional) and non-observable (i.e., cognitive) behaviour in order to gain accurate insights into the factors that influence the effectiveness of the FLIs (Wesely, 2012). In order to attain these insights, this study adopts a mixed methods approach, involving a quantitative and qualitative analysis, which is claimed to enable researchers to develop an in depth understanding of teachers' and learners' behaviours and meanings (Lillis, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). According to Lillis (2008), the importance of mixed methods is that they not only allow a

*thick* description of what may prove to be potentially significant, but also help researchers maintain an openness to what may be important to the participants. The aim of using mixed methods is not to replace one method for the other, but to complement each method's strengths (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In line with this, Malina, Nørreklit, and Selto (2011) contend that a research outcome achieved in mixed method research is stronger than in research which employs an individual method. Thus, following Storch's (2001) suggestion that research tools should be determined by research questions and context, the use of mixed methods in this study involved the following data collection procedures:

- For *interactional data*: 1) recorded classroom interactions
- For *elicited data*: 2) teacher interviews and learner 3) focus groups and 4) questionnaires

The rationale behind the use of the above data collection procedures is two-fold. Firstly, the four instruments were used following the argument that a multiprocedural approach which gathers interactional as well as elicited data provide insights into the interplay between classroom interactional behaviour and beliefs (Munby, 1982; Wesely, 2012), which a large number of empirical studies in this field have failed to combine and explore (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; De Costa, 2011; Peng, 2011). Secondly, data from the FLIs were complemented and triangulated with elicited data in order to increase objectivity and credibility of the findings (see Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Perry, 2005). The following four sections outline the four instruments, their objectives, design process, and implementation/administration.

### *Recorded interactions*

According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), classroom interactions can provide a detailed and comprehensive description of participants' in-

teractional behaviour. Researchers working with interactional data from classroom interactions are able to look for patterns in an unrestricted way because of the naturally-occurring nature of the data (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Following this claim, recorded interactions were carried out at each proficiency level in two sessions of two hours each (100 minutes approximately). In total, 600 minutes of classroom interactions were recorded. The second session at each proficiency level (300 minutes in total) was solely aimed at obtaining more data of PIs (see Section Peer interactions). Four professional recorders were used to capture as many oral interactions as possible. Moreover, the researcher was present during the recorded interactions in order to take notes of the interactions, and position the recorders closer to the PIs during speaking practice.

Despite the researcher's efforts to maintain an onlooker role so as not to interfere with the FLIs, the possible inauthenticity and subjectivity involved in the recorded interactions has been raised. In the first instance, it has been noted that the presence of observers may influence participants to adopt approaches or behaviours which do not reflect their normal practices in order to make good impressions (Graham et al. 2014). In the second instance, it has been highlighted that the observers' own perceptions may influence interpretations of classroom interactions (Sheal, 1989). Thus, in order to avoid the above and increase the credibility of the understanding that the explorations of the FLIs aim to gain, the interactional data were complemented and triangulated with elicited data that were obtained from questionnaires, interviews and focus groups (see Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Perry, 2005).

## Questionnaires

As research instruments, questionnaires are useful for obtaining significant information about perceptions of participants who are immersed in the teaching and learning site. Moreover, the results of questionnaires

“can usually be quickly and easily quantified by either a researcher or through the use of a software package” (Ravitch & Carl, 2016, p. 173), and are claimed to enable researchers “to collect data which are more amenable to quantification than other research instruments” (Nunan, 1992, p.143). The final version of the learner questionnaire contained 19 items (see Appendix 2). In general, it aimed at exploring the learners’ foreign language background, interactional behaviour, and underlying beliefs around speaking practice, as summarised below.

Table 5.4 Aims of the questions in the learner questionnaire

QUESTION	AIM
Item 1	To identify the learners’ motivations for learning the foreign language.
Items 2 and 3	To determine the skills perceived to be the most practised, and which should be practised more.
Items 4-10	To investigate the learners’ beliefs about speaking practice, its characteristics, and the amount of time dedicated to it.
Item 11	To elicit the learners’ recommendations for teachers’ actions that could enhance speaking practice.
Items 12-16	To understand their attitudes towards practising speaking and perceived learning benefits.
items 17-19	To determine their perceptions about proficiency level of the class and theirs.

Since 15 learners participated in the focus groups, questionnaires were administered to the remaining 48 learners (12 at the basic level, 21 at the intermediate level and 15 at the advanced level) at the end of recorded interactions in their classrooms. It is worth mentioning that their responses provided insights into their reported actions, underlying beliefs and learning practices, rather than actual practices (Borg, 2006; Borg & Burns, 2008), which were informed by the recorded classroom interactions.

## Interviews

Interviews are claimed to provide an understanding of how informants make sense of interactions in relation to the context which they inhabit (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Nespor (1987) contends that the failure to include such information in the study of classroom interactions vitiates any attempts to explore what is *really* going on in the classroom since the understanding would be developed inaccurately. Therefore, interviews were included in the explorations of the FLIs in order to gain insights into the teachers' perceptions of, beliefs about, and decisions regarding speaking practice.

After the interactional data was collected, the three teachers were invited to participate in the recorded interviews, and expressed their desire to participate. During the interviews, a guide of 31 questions was used (see Appendix 3) whose aims are summarised as follows.

Table 5.5 Aims of questions in the teacher interviews

QUESTION	AIM
Items 1-4	To explore the teachers' linguistic and teaching background.
Items 5 and 6	To investigate the skills that the teachers perceived are the most practised, and the skills that are part of learners' preference.
Items 7-11	To understand the teachers' rationales and processes involved in the planning of speaking practice.
Items 12-20	To explore the teachers' underlying beliefs about and actions for speaking practice.
Items 21-30	To explore the teachers' perceived benefits of speaking practice.
Item 30	To identify teachers' recommendations for enhancing speaking practice and language learning.

A second session of teacher interviews was conducted in order to confirm and deepen the understanding of the teachers' views about classroom interactional patterns. Specifically, the second session was aimed at exploring in greater depth the teachers' decision-making and beliefs around the following themes (please refer to Appendix 4 for more information about the items used during the second interviews):

- Teachers' underlying beliefs and attitudes towards speaking practice;
- Teachers' decision-making for promoting learners' language performance;
- Teachers' decision-making for promoting learners' discourse competence; and
- Teachers' underlying beliefs around negotiations of meaning and negative feedback.

The second session of interviews was secondly motivated by the danger of reifying the teachers' perspectives and reported actions when interviews take place in one moment in time (Lillis, 2008). However, despite the fact that an invitation was sent to the three teachers, only two teachers (the intermediate and advanced teachers) expressed their desire to participate in the second interviews.

The first and second interviews were conducted by the researcher, and lasted between 25 and 30 minutes. As suggested by Ravitch and Carl (2016), a friendly and relaxed role was maintained during the interviews so as to avoid causing the teachers stress by feelings of being criticised. Moreover, the two sessions of interviews were performed in Spanish so as to facilitate and motivate the communication between the researcher and teachers. The first and second interviews were recorded, transcribed in their entirety, and analysed involving a theme categorisation (see Section Elicited data).

## *Focus groups*

A focus group is defined as a group of individuals who were selected and assembled by a researcher in order to gain information about the topic that is the subject of the research (Morgan, 1997; Powell, Single & Lloyd, 1996). The benefits of focus groups are that insights are gained into not only people's views, attitudes and values, but also how they are influenced by others (Gibbs, 1997). According to Gibbs (1997), this is because focus groups enable participants to engage in group interactions during which individual as well as group attitudes, feelings and beliefs are revealed. By complementing explorations of interactions with the participants' attitudes, feelings and beliefs, it is claimed that the gap between 'what people say they do' and 'what they actually do' is bridged and better understood (Lankshear, 1993). Thus, focus groups were of particular importance in order to understand the FLIs and speaking practice from the participant learners' perspectives.

Five learners from each proficiency level were randomly invited to participate in the focus groups under no obligation to accept. The 15 learners expressed willingness to participate in the focus groups, and their consent for data use was granted. The focus groups were arranged at the learners' convenience after the interactional data were collected, and took place just once. A question list was used to facilitate and guide the oral interactions (see Appendix 5). In total, 34 questions were chosen, and their aims are summarised below.

The focus groups lasted approximately 25 to 30 minutes, and were conducted in Spanish so as to avoid the learners' anxiety about the correctness of their utterances in the L2. In order to avoid coercion, we decided that the focus groups would be performed in another classroom without the presence of the teachers and other classmates. Moreover, we anticipated that the interviewer's presence, as an unknown individual to the learners, and the recorder may inhibit learners to talk. Therefore, we decided that the focus groups would be performed as friendly



discussions in order to motivate the interviewer's and learners' rapport, flow of communication, and provision of information (see Lankshear & Knobel, 2014). For analysis purposes, the oral interactions during the focus groups were recorded and transcribed, and analysed using a theme categorisation (please refer to Section Elicited data).

Table 5.6 *Aims of questions in the learner focus groups*

QUESTION	AIM
Items 1-4	To explore the learners' foreign language background.
Items 5-7	To understand the learners' perceptions about the language skills and practice.
Items 8-13	To understand the learners' underlying beliefs around speaking practice.
Items 14-17	To identify the learners' perceived needs for speaking practice.
Items 18-27	To investigate the learners' attitudes towards FLIs and speaking practice.
Items 28-33	To identify the learners' perceptions and attitudes towards some features of classroom talk.
Item 34	To explore the learners' recommendations for improving speaking practice.

## Data processing and transcriptions

After having collected the data, the recordings of the interactional (classroom interactions) and cognitive (from interviews and focus groups) data were downloaded as MP3 files to facilitate the transcriptions and data processing for the analysis.

The interactional and elicited data were transcribed completely, a time-consuming process but, in Hayes' (2008) words, "a valuable process for developing in-depth familiarity with the content of the data" (p.7). Following Allwright and Bailey's (1991) recommendation that data should be transcribed using standard orthography or detailed phonetic representations of speech in relation to the research goal, we decided that transcriptions of interviews and focus groups were made with standard orthography in order to focus on the content of the informants' responses, their perceptions and underlying meanings. In the case of the interactional data, we transcribed them following the transcription conventions taken and adapted from Koester (2006) and Walsh (2006) in order to gain detailed information about the FLIs at the three proficiency levels (Allwright & Bailey, 1991) (see the final version in Table 5.2). As discussed in Section Pilot study, we found in the pilot study that some of the Koester's (2006) transcription conventions were irrelevant for the analysis of the interactional data (for example, conventions for emphatic stress, unintelligible speech, extra non-linguistic information, etc.) since these conventions were designed and used to explore NS talk at workplaces. Therefore, we replaced those conventions, and included others for identifying teachers, learners, silence, unit boundaries, etc., which facilitated the use and analysis of the transcripts. Once the transcriptions were finished, we then needed to identify and delimit the TLIs and PIs during which the teachers and learners practised speaking English.

### *Delimiting the interactional data*

As observed during the pilot study, speaking practice in this context is carried out in TLIs and PIs. In order to obtain a full picture of the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels, we thus needed to identify the TLIs and PIs whose aim was to practice speaking. This was facilitated by the transaction boundaries set up by the teachers which inform the learners when an activity, in TLI or PI, starts and ends (Boulima, 1999) as follows.

### Extract 5.1 PI 5 (advanced level)

2. T: Okay! Good! [2] let's continue with this vocabulary related to: 'skills intelligence and ability' uh-huh? Number three ... tell your partner about anyone you know who is ... a competent secretary ... a proficient typist ... a craft man or a woman ... I mean ... probably you don't know a person ... but you know that certain people in this area are very ... I don't know ... skilled craft men or women okay? ... an expert cook? ... a computer expert ... and an accomplished musician ... it could also a famous person ok? ... you don't need to know this person ... not necessary ... please.

[Peer interaction takes place]

83. T: Okay! [T stops the peer interactions]

*Note:* T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

As shown in Extract 5.1, the teacher constructed utterances to inform the learners when an activity starts, as in line 2, and ends, as in line 83. In order to do this, the teachers used discourse markers such as 'okay' which attracted the learners' attention, and signalled the activity boundaries. It was these discourse markers and the change of the participants' interactional behaviour that allowed the identification and segmentation of the data into TLIs and PIs. The following table summarises the interactional data:

Table 5.7 Interactional data

PROFICIENCY	1 <sup>st</sup> FLIs (100 minutes approximately at each proficiency level)		2 <sup>nd</sup> FLIs (100 minutes approximately at each proficiency level)	
	TLIs	PIs	TLIs	PIs
Basic	5	11	0	11
Intermediate	4	2	0	6
Advanced	2	9	0	3
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led Interaction; PI= Peer Interaction.				

As Table 5.7 shows, the interactional data of each proficiency level was obtained from two recorded FLIs (whole datasets) which each lasted for 100 minutes approximately. For analysis purposes, the first FLIs (one at each proficiency level), 11 TLIs in the first FLIs (five at the basic level; four at the intermediate level; and 2 at the advanced level), and 18 PIs (the six lengthiest PIs in the first and second FLIs at each proficiency level) were identified and segmented.

## Teacher-led interactions

A *teacher-led interaction* refers to the interactional classroom discourse controlled by teachers which serves the purpose of practising speaking. The explorations of the TLIs were relevant since they provided insights into the interactional opportunities that learners had while interacting with the teachers. At this stage, it is relevant to establish and explain the characteristics of these teacher and learner interactions, which the following extract illustrates:

### Extract 5.2 Part of TLI 3 (basic level)

1. T: Okay good very very good ... now ... close your books for a while [88 seconds] [T gets her material ready and LL close their books and get ready for the next activity] Okay [3] how can I ge:t ... from here to town centre? [1] on foot? By bus?
2. L2: //By bus//=
3. L8: =//By foot by bus//
4. T: Okay ... let's listen ... okay? L16 what's your suggestion?
5. L16: //By bus//= →
6. T: =Okay.
7. L16: It's- it's very- //it's very fast//
8. T: Okay ... very fast ... good ... L2?
9. L2: //I think ... you should go ... walking// →
10. T: Okay.

*Note:* T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //>=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

As shown in Extract 5.2, the interaction is led and controlled by the teacher, involving turns to provide instructions (line 1); initiate questions and allocate turns (lines 1, 4 and 8); and provide feedback and signal acceptance of learners' responses (lines 4, 6, 8 and 10). As in lines 2, 3, 5, 7 and 9, learners are mostly given the opportunity to respond to the teacher's turns. Many of these interactional strategies typified much of the interaction that is led by the teachers at the three proficiency levels, and were key to explore the TLIs during speaking practice.

The 11 TLIs were transcribed completely, and used for the analysis. The following table summarises information of the TLIs and characteristics of tasks:

Table 5.8 Information summary of the TLIs

No.	TASK CHARACTERISTICS	FOCUS	LENGTH
BASIC LEVEL			
TLI 1	Discussions of perceptions about some illustrated actions.	Meaning	1 min 24 s
TLI 2	Discussions of actions and expressions after a listening activity.	Form	5 min 20 s
TLI 3	Practice of suggestions and responses by using formulaic expressions.	Form	7 min 20 s
TLI 4		Form	5 min 13 s
TLI 5	Discussions of long journeys that learners recently experienced.	Meaning	2 min 45 s
INTERMEDIATE LEVEL			
TLI 1	Practice of specific vocabulary related to relationships.	Form	6 min 16 s
TLI 2	Discussions of perceptions about types of relationships.	Meaning	7 min 20 s
TLI 3	Discussions of perceptions about the importance of certain personal relationships.	Meaning	12 min 55 s
TLI 4	Discussions of perceptions about certain relationships in other cultures.	Meaning	5 min 21 s
ADVANCED LEVEL			
TLI 1	Practice of vocabulary related to skills.	Form	1 min 50 s
TLI 2	Practice of vocabulary related to sleeping habits.	Form	5 min 40 s

In brief, Table 5.8 shows that the teachers and learners engaged in TLIs to practise speaking from 1 min 24 s to 12 min 55 s. In some occasions, the TLIs followed on from one another (e.g., TLIs 2-4 at the basic level; TLIs 1 and 2 at the intermediate level; TLIs 1 and 2 at the advanced level), or carried out after the PIs (e.g., TLIs 1 and 5 at the basic level; TLIs 2 and 3 at the intermediate level). As also shown in Table 5.8, the TLIs followed a focus on *meaning*, to perform discussions oriented towards the communication, or *form*, to practise vocabulary, expressions or grammar. This information will be relevant in the discussion of the data findings in Chapter Seven.

## Peer interactions

A *peer interaction* refers to the discourse that is constructed by learners in pairs or, in a few instances, in trios to practise speaking. The following extract illustrates part of a PI in which learners practise speaking:

### Extract 5.2 Part of PI 5 at the intermediate level

58. L10: In a cons it would be that ... //it is hard to leave your two dogs//  
 59. L9: //No!// you have to take- //you can take them// ... yes! ... //there in the airport you have to make ... like- fill ... a:: format// ... a::nd <> ... //in order- in order to take them ... to you//  
 60. L10: //What if they die in the plane?//  
 61. L9: //No!// //they don't die//  
 62. L10: //You're sure?//  
 63. L9: //Yes!// ... //there i:s a:: part in the plane// ... //that is very big// ... <> //and you can have your dog dogs or your pet//  
 64. L10: //It's a cabin?//  
 65. L9: //No// ... no //the cabin /is where is the pilot// ... it's like- //I don't know// ... it's like-  
 66. L10: //They put the luggage?//  
 67. L9: //Yes!// //But not all// ... //I think it's like a:::- this part of the plane is only for animals ... for pets// ... <> //and it's very big// <> ... //and you have to take them in their cage//

*Note.* T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

Extract 5.2 shows an interaction at the basic level during which learners discuss the advantages and disadvantages of some situations provided in a text. In contrast to the TLI, learners are given responsibility over the discourse during speaking practice by extending their contributions (as in lines 58, 59, 63, 65 and 67), initiating questions (as in lines 60, 64 and 66), and following up the interaction (as in lines 62, 64 and 66). These learner interactional strategies used during PIs are also of particular importance for the purpose of exploring the FLIs because it allowed explorations as well as comparisons of learner interactional behaviour during speaking practice in TLIs and PIs.

As previously mentioned, from 42 PIs that were identified in the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> recorded FLIs, the six lengthiest PIs at each proficiency level were transcribed and segmented for the analysis. The following table summarises information of the 18 PIs taken from the three proficiency levels:

Table 5.9 Information summary of t

No.	TASK CHARACTERISTICS	FOCUS	LENGTH
BASIC LEVEL			
PI 1	Discussions and descriptions of illustrated situa- tions.	Meaning	3 min 20 s
PI 2	Discussions of a long journey that happened in the past.	Meaning	5 min 47 s
PI 3	Discussions of the importance of physical appear- ance.	Meaning	2 min 53 s
PI 4	Practice of the use of suggestions according to some situations.	Form	9 min 03 s
PI 5			
PI 6			
INTERMEDIATE LEVEL			
PI 1	Discussions and descriptions of life stages and life- styles provided as visual aid.	Meaning	8 min 31 s
PI 2			
PI 3			
PI 4	Discussions of the advantages and disadvantages of some written situations. A written aid was provided for this activity.	Meaning	13 min 02 s
PI 5			
PI 6			

ADVANCED LEVEL			
PI 1	Negotiations and agreements on one image for an effective campaign.	Meaning	11 min 42 s
PI 2			
PI 3			
PI 4	Discussions of skilful people that the learners know.	Meaning	6 min 20 s
PI 5			
PI 6	Discussions of sleeping habits (personal information).	Meaning	6 min 20 s

As shown in Table 5.9, the PIs ranged in time from 2 min 53 s to 13 min 01 s approximately. Only three PIs at the basic level showed a focus on form; the rest of the PIs were focused on meaning. To summarise, the interactional data consisted of three FLIs (1<sup>st</sup> complete recorded sessions at each proficiency level), 11 TLIs (five at the basic level; four at the intermediate level; and 2 at the advanced level) and 18 PIs (six PIs at each proficiency level).

## Data analysis

### *Interactional data*

The analysis of the interactional data was performed at a discourse level since it enables researchers to develop an understanding of how spoken language is used by teachers and learners in classrooms (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Thornbury & Slade, 2006). In order to attain this, we designed an analytical framework which we call the ‘Framework of Interactional Strategies in Foreign Language Interaction’ (FISFLI) (see Appendices 6 and 7). The FISFLI comprises interactional strategies which were found in the pilot study to be relevant in exploring why some interactions in the interactional data might be less effective than others. The interactional



strategies in the FISFLI were then trialled on extracts from the interactional data in order to determine its effectiveness for understanding the FLIs, TLIs and PIs. In general, this framework consists of interactional strategies that provided insights into the nature of the FLIs at the three proficiency levels, and measures that explored the impact of the FLIs on the learners' interactional behaviour (i.e., learners' language performance, discourse functions, negotiations of meaning, and length of responses).

### *Elicited data*

The analysis of the elicited data (from interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires) was aimed at exploring the teachers' and learners' underlying beliefs, defined as the sets of ideas that teachers and learners bring with them to a learning space, and perceptions, defined as the ways in which teachers and learners perceive the immediate learning context, goals and their own capabilities. In particular, the analysis of the elicited data set out to develop an understanding of the role of teachers' and learners' beliefs in influencing the classroom behaviour and speaking practice. According to Barcelos (2003, as cited in Graham et al. 2014), understanding the role of beliefs and perceptions is valuable information for understanding classroom interactions from emic perspectives.

As a first step, the elicited data from the interviews and focus groups were analysed following a meaning categorisation which is believed to facilitate the identification of patterns, themes, and meaning (Berg, 2009). This involved identifying extracts manually, and attributing them to theme categories and sub-categories which emerged from the data and recorded interactions (see the complete list of categories and sub-categories in Appendix 8). In order to understand the effects of the teachers' and learners' beliefs on speaking practice, the elicited data were also analysed following an adaptation of Lillis' (2008) three ways for analysing talk (around academic texts), as shown below.

1. *Transparent/referential* (insider accounts/emic perspectives/practices related to the informants)
2. *Discourse/indexical* (indexing-specific discourses about the informants, interactional behaviour, context, beliefs)
3. *Performative/relational* (the researcher and the researched performing research, identity, power, specific practices at specific moment/place in time)

That is, the informants' responses were analysed as *transparent/referential* data indicating teaching decision-making and perceptions of classroom practices; as *discourse/indexical* data indicating underlying beliefs, and how beliefs influence classroom teaching and interactional behaviour; and as *performative/relational* data that were constructed in relation to the researcher's and informants' immediate situation, identities, status, specific practices. For the purpose of the explorations of the FLIs, analysing the elicited data following Lillis' (2008) categories was of particular significance since it enabled us not only to explore the teachers' and learners' perceptions of speaking practice (Category 1), but also to understand 'bits of language' (Lillis, 2008, p. 376) that point to underlying values and beliefs about themselves, teaching, language, interactions for speaking practice, and wider discourses around them (Category 2), and to explore in some cases how the researchers and participants were performing identity, power and specific practices at a specific moment and place in time (Category 3).

In the case of the questionnaires, the responses from the 48 questionnaires administered to learners were analysed quantitatively, and put into tables for analysis. The quantification of the learners' responses and analysis was facilitated by the use of items which required the learners to choose from multiple options, tick boxes, and give a hierarchy to some situations.

## Objectivity, credibility and replicability of the explorations

In general terms, objectivity in research can be defined as the absence of researchers' bias, judgement or prejudice. In the case of the explorations of the FLIs, the nature of their naturalistic and exploratory inquiry opens up concerns related to objectivity. Due to the fact that we were immersed in the context during the data collection for the pilot and main explorations (i.e., in contact with the participants during classroom interactions; and interacting orally with them during the interviews, focus groups, and administration of the questionnaires), it is possible that the explorations of the FLIs are subjective to some extent. However, as Burton (1988) points out, even the most carefully designed and controlled experiment reflects the bias and values of the researcher. In his own words, he explains that "someone has to decide what questions to include or exclude on a survey or what variable to isolate or attend to during an experimental study" (p. 766). In line with this, Kumaravadivelu (2001) contends that research in social sciences and humanities can hardly be objective. As Patton (1990) points out, the issue is not objectivity or subjectivity, especially due to the fact that absolute objectivity is impossible to attain in practice, but the explorations need to be *credible*. Credible research does not set out to prove a particular perspective (Rallis & Rossman, 2009; Storch, 2001), or generalise findings (Rallis & Rossman, 2009; Walsh, 2013). Rather, it aims to develop understandings which are context-bound (Walsh, 2013).

According to Rallis and Rossman (2009), credibility is ensured by meeting standards which demonstrate that research has been conducted in an *ethical* and *competent* way. Therefore, credibility is, in the first instance, ensured by having carefully addressed the ethical issues raised by the nature of the explorations and our involvement in the research site. According to Rallis and Rossman (2009), competent research also ensures credibility by providing detailed descriptions of the research procedures, researchers engaging in the research site, and triangulating findings using mixed methods. Thus, credibility is, in the second instance,

ensured by the detailed descriptions of the explorations of the FLIs, context, participants, the researcher's involvement in the research site, and triangulation by the use of mixed methods.

Once credibility is ensured, Rallis and Rossman (2009) and Storch (2001) claim that readers are able to determine for themselves the usefulness of findings, and replicability of the explorations. Thus, in providing detailed descriptions of the approach, context, research tools, FISFLI (see next chapter), and so on, this chapter enables the reader to judge whether the methods, analysis, findings and pedagogical implications of the explorations of the FLIs can be replicated, or transferred to their teaching and learning context.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

The general aim of Chapter Five was to provide a detailed description of the approach that the explorations adopted to examine the FLIs during which speaking was practised. In the first part, we provided background information about the research site, objectives of the curriculum, and pilot study. The aim of the pilot study was to conduct initial explorations in order to gain closer understandings of the context, participants and data; design and fine-tune the methods; and make decisions as to how the data were going to be processed and analysed in the explorations of the FLIs. In the second part of the chapter, we described the implementation of the explorations which were not only informed by literature, but also by the findings of the pilot study. In particular, we provided detailed information about the participants, instruments, and procedures for collecting the interactional and elicited data. In the third part, we thoroughly described the data processing and analysis. In the case of the interactional data from the recorded interactions, the analysis was facilitated by an analytical framework (FISFLI) which was informed by the pilot study,

nature of the data, and literature. The elicited data from interviews and focus groups were analysed following a meaning categorisation, which involved the classification and analysis of categories and sub-categories that emerged from the data, and an adaptation of Lillis' (2008) three ways for analysing talk (around academic texts). From the questionnaires, the elicited data involved a quantitative analysis.

As discussed throughout this chapter, the approach adopted in the explorations of the FLIs was naturalistic, and largely informed by the pilot study, research instruments, the researcher's involvement in the research site and a rich use of data from four instruments. As stated previously, the rationale that lies behind the adoption of this approach is that explorations need to be conducted *in situ* in order to address perceived limitations, and identify context-sensitive solutions (Walsh, 2013). However, as discussed in this chapter, the issue that emerges from this decision is that the findings may not be transferred unproblematically to other educational settings, due to the fine-tuning of the methods and contextual meanings that emerged from the data. However, the detailed information given about the approach, research site, instruments, the FISFLI, and nature of the data provides the reader with the opportunity to assess whether the methods, findings and pedagogical implications can be replicated and/or extrapolated to their context.



## Chapter six

### THE FISFLI





## INTRODUCTION

Chapter Six provides a detailed description of the Framework of Interactional Strategies in Foreign Language Interaction (FISFLI) which was designed as a tool for exploring FLIs (see complete version in Appendices 7 and 8). The FISFLI does not intend to encompass all mechanisms, interactional strategies or measures to explore teacher and learner talk. Rather, this framework is presented as a starting point for exploring the nature of the FLIs in which teachers and learners engaged to practise speaking, and for examining the impact of the nature of FLIs on learner talk. The FISFLI consists of calculating simple totals, percentages, ratios and averages following the argument that complex statistical computations may obscure findings (Foster, 1998), and the purpose of exploring undisturbed FLIs rather than to test hypotheses.

Due to lack of finiteness, operationality, and objectivity, research literature has highlighted the subjectivity and weaknesses of category frameworks (see, for example, Long et al. 1976; Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Despite the exhaustive design of the FISFLI informed by findings of the pilot study and research literature, we acknowledge that it lacks finiteness as to discourse functions, which have been reported in other studies to be higher in number than those included in this framework. However, consistent with the aims of their approach, the explorations examine the discourse functions that were observed in the pilot study to be initiated during the FLIs. Concerning operationality, we suggest that it is ensured by the detailed descriptions of the FISFLI, interactional strategies and measures. These descriptions avoid risks of serious cases of overlap regarding the classification of interactional strategies into the categories. As for its objectivity, we believe that all frameworks are subjective to some degree since the classification of language features into categories mostly relies on intuition.

As shown in Table 6.1, the FISFLI explores the nature of the FLIs indicated by IRF patterns, teacher-initiated exchanges, teachers' ques-

tions, and teachers' and learners' amount of talk and turn length (see Section Nature on the FLIs).

Table 6.1. Framework of Interactional Strategies in Foreign Language Interaction

NATURE OF THE FLIs
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. IRF (Initiation/Response/Feedback) pattern</li> <li>2. Teacher-initiated free exchanges</li> <li>3. Teachers' questions</li> <li>4. Turn length</li> <li>5. Amount of talk</li> </ol>
LEARNER TALK
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>6. Discourse functions</li> <li>7. Language performance</li> <li>8. Negotiations of meaning</li> <li>9. Length of answers</li> </ol>

Unlike other frameworks that are centred on teacher talk, the FISFLI is also an initial framework for understanding the effects of the nature of the FLIs on four aspects of learner talk: use of discourse functions, language performance, negotiations of meaning, and learners' length of answers. This chapter also discusses issues concerning the transferability of the FISFLI.

## SPEECH UNIT

Prior to conducting the analysis of the interactional data, the need for an adequate speech unit that allows the analysis of classroom talk according to the interactional strategies of the FISFLI became apparent. Specifically, there was a need for a syntactic (speech) unit which facilitates the explorations of the teachers' and learners' amount of talk and turn length and learners' language performance, which involves measuring not only number of words, but also subordination and coordination.

As suggested by Foster (1998), there is still little consensus on which speech unit is the best to measure oral production. *Simple turns*<sup>1</sup>, defined as a unit which consists of a lexical, non-lexical, clausal, phrasal, or sentential item that a speaker constructs orally (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974), and *clauses*, defined as a group of words that relate to each other, containing at least either a finite or non-finite verb (Foster & Skehan, 1996) were initially considered as speech units for the analysis of the interactional data, as briefly illustrated below.

Figure 6.1. Turns divided by clauses in FLI (basic level)

10. T: [Exactly! And //we're waiting for you// <>... //do you have the same answers?//]	2 clauses
12. T: [Ok L8 number two]	
11. LL: [Yes]	0 clauses
12. T: [Ok L8 number two]	0 clauses
<i>Note:</i> T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary	

<sup>1</sup> Turns are determined by intonational contour and pause boundaries; they also constitute a single semantic unit (Crookes & Rulon, 1985).

As shown in Figure 6.1, turns are bounded by [ ] and clauses segmented by //. Solely turn 10 contains clausal constructions. In the case of turns 11 and 12, the oral constructions do not involve any clauses. These non-clausal constructions were observed to characterise a large amount of the interactional data. Therefore, we needed to find a speech unit which involves clausal and non-clausal oral constructions in order to explore the amount of talk and language performance in the FLIs with greater accuracy.

We eventually chose the AS-unit (Analysis of Speech unit) proposed by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000). An AS-unit is defined as “a single speaker’s utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either” (Foster et al. 2000, p. 365). Foster et al. (2000) claim that the use of the AS-unit provides the following advantages:

1. It allows an analysis of classroom discourse from structured and semi-structured perspectives;
2. It allows an analysis of interactions from one-word to multi-clause constructions;
3. It is mainly syntactic, but also considers dialogic oral data which contain many non-syntactic segments (Norris & Ortega, 2009); and
4. It facilitates determining a speaker’s language performance.

The following table summarises the specifications of the AS-unit and the number of clauses and AS-units they correspond to:

Table 6.2. The AS-unit and specifications (table taken from Garcia Ponce [2017])

SPECIFICATION	NO. OF CLAUSES	NO. OF AS-UNITS
An independent clause with a finite (conjugated) verb	1 clause	1 AS-unit
An independent clause with a subordinate clause that depends on the main clause.	2 clauses	1 AS-unit
A subordinate clause with a finite or non-finite verb and, at least, a subject, object, complement or adverb	2 clauses	1 AS-unit,
An independent sub-clausal unit that contains one or more phrases that can be elaborated to a full clause.	1 sub-clauses	1 AS-unit,
	2 sub-clauses	2 AS-unit,
A minor utterance defined as an irregular sentence.	0 clause	1 AS-unit
		1 AS-unit
A coordinated clause; independent clauses that are separated by a conjunction such as and, but and or.	2 clauses	2 AS-units
	1 sub-clause	
A coordinated clause with one or more clauses, sharing the subject and with pauses less than 0.5 seconds.	2 clauses	1 AS-unit

In short, Table 6.2 shows that the AS-unit allows “a full analysis of data” (Foster et al., 2000, p.370). That is, an AS-unit can consist of one-word turns, minor utterances, full clauses, subordination and coordination. This unit was of particular relevance for the FISFLI which intends to explore the teachers’ and learners’ talk from a length-based and syntactic analysis. As suggested by Foster et al. (2000), self-repetitions and false starts in the interactional data are disregarded in order to measure accurately the classroom talk containing full ideas and intentions.

## NATURE OF THE FLIS

In this section, we describe the interactional strategies and measures that were included in the FISFLI to explore the nature of the FLIs. Firstly, we describe a (IRF) pattern that has been claimed to characterise classroom discourse (Walsh, 2013). Secondly, we outline teacher-initiated exchanges, paying closer attention to free exchanges which were found in the pilot study to recur in the FLIs. Thirdly, we detail the criteria that we considered for classifying the teachers' questions. Finally, we describe the criteria and calculations used to examine the teachers' and learners' turn length and amount of talk.

### IRF pattern

The IRF pattern is claimed to typify classroom discourse (Walsh, 2013), comprising moves by which the lesson progresses (Boulima, 1999). The IRF pattern normally consists of an *initiation* by the teacher, a *response* by the learner and *feedback* again by the teacher (Cullen, 2002). The following extract illustrates this three-move pattern:

#### Extract 6.1. IRF pattern in an FLI (basic level)

- |   |
|---|
| <p>4. <b>I</b> T: Ok! ... so L7?</p> <p>4. <b>R</b> L7: //What ... are ... you doing?// ((2))</p> <p>4. <b>F</b> T: Please speak up L7 ... because I can't hear you.</p> <p>4. <b>R</b> L7: //What ... are you doing?//=</p> <p>4. <b>F</b> T: =What are you doing?</p> <p>4. <b>R</b> L7: //I'm /sitting/ in a- in traffic// ... //it's awful// and ((3)) &lt;&gt; //we're-we're waiting// for you'.</p> <p>4. <b>F/I</b> T: Exactly! And we're waiting for you ... do you have the same answers?</p> <p>4. <b>R</b> LL: //Yes//</p> |
| <p><i>Note:</i> T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //=AS-unit boundary; &lt;&gt;=clause boundary</p>   |

As shown in Extract 6.1, it is the teacher who usually makes use of initiation moves (as in lines 4 and 10) and feedback moves (as in lines 5, 7, 9 and 11). Learners usually utilise response moves (as in lines 6, 8 and 10). As can be seen from this extract, it is the teacher who dominates the classroom discourse by utilising a higher number of moves than the learners. For the purpose of exploring the FLIs, the IRF patterns are examined in order to:

- understand the nature of classroom interactions during which speaking was practised;
- explore the teachers' control of interactions and learners' role; and
- determine to what extent the classroom interactions were monotonous and mechanical (see Walsh, 2011).

Moreover, the findings into IRF patterns, according to Walsh (2011), may be significant for assisting teachers in developing an understanding of alternative sequences, and designing activities which encourage more effective classroom interactions. In order to examine the moves that the teachers and learners initiated in the FLIs, the percentages are calculated by firstly identifying and counting the total number of each move by teachers or learners. This total number is then calculated by dividing it (total number of each move type by teachers or learners) by the total number of moves in the interaction, and multiplying the result by 100.

## Teacher-initiated exchanges

Teachers are known to control the content and procedures of classroom discourse (Walsh, 2011, 2013). As part of their teaching role, teachers initiate exchanges which serve the purpose of teaching the language, as summarised below.

Table 6.3. Free teacher-initiated exchanges (Boulima, 1999)

EXCHANGE TYPE	DESCRIPTION
Inform (Free)	The teacher informs pupils of facts, opinions, ideas, new information, or language form (Boulima, 1999).
Direct (Free)	The teacher asks learners to perform something; to carry out a nonverbal behaviour (Boulima, 1999).
Elicit (Free)	The teacher asks learners to say or answer something orally (Boulima, 1999).
Check (Free)	The teacher checks that everything is clear and that the lesson is progressing as expected (Boulima, 1999).

Table 6.3 shows the free exchanges initiated by teachers do not depend on a previous utterance to construct or reiterate their meaning. These exchanges are performed in teachers' initiation moves to deliver the pedagogic content of the lesson (Raine, 2010). According to the literature, there are other (bound) exchanges which are initiated by teachers, always preceded by a free exchange that reiterates its meaning (Raine, 2010), and which cannot occur in isolation:

Table 6.4. Bound teacher-initiated exchanges (Coulthard & Sinclair, 1992)

EXCHANGE	DESCRIPTION
Re-initiate for no response (Bound)	The teacher repeats or rephrases his/her elicitation after not receiving any response.
Re-initiate for wrong answer (Bound)	When the teacher gets a wrong answer, he asks the question to another learner.
List (Bound)	The teacher asks one question more than once until s/he gets two to three answers.
Reinforce (Bound)	The teacher detects a learner being slow or has not understood.
Repeat (Bound)	The teacher repeats for several reasons.



As shown in the above tables, the main difference between free and bound exchanges thus lies in the degree of meaning independence of the exchange to carry out teaching practices. In the FISFLI, free teacher-initiated exchanges (i.e., exchanges for *informing*, *directing*, *eliciting* and *checking*) are only explored for two reasons. Firstly, it is claimed that in these exchanges most of the language teaching takes place (Raine, 2010). Secondly, free exchanges were found in the pilot study to dominate the FLIs over bound exchanges. Therefore, in order to gain insights into the teacher-initiated free exchanges during the FLIs, the total number of each exchange type is firstly counted, then divided by the total number of exchanges in the interaction, and the result multiplied by 100.

## Teachers' questions

Teachers' questions have been subject to extensive investigation with the intention to explore their structure, benefits, and limitations to language learning (see, for example, Kim, 2010; Tsui, 1995). For the purpose of examining the effects of the teachers' questions on learners' oral production, The FISFLI explores the role of display and referential questions during the FLIs. According to the literature, display questions are useful for promoting the practice and communication of structures and vocabulary (Walsh, 2006). In contrast, referential questions encourage learners to express their opinions or life experiences (Boulima, 1999), promoting "greater learner productivity" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 127; see also Walsh, 2006). These two elicitation techniques are described below.

- *Display Questions.* These are questions whose answers are already known by teachers; are usually followed by feedback moves; and serve the purpose of checking or evaluating understanding, concepts, language forms, and previous learning (McCarthy, 1991; Walsh, 2011), for example:

Extract 6.2. A display question in an FLI (advanced level)

177. T: Okay! Let's check these definitions very quickly ... so 'snooze' ... so who wants to define 'snooze' let's see here ... L8?

178. L8: //Sleep a little bit//

179. T: Yeah! To sleep a:- for a short time ... usually during the day ... and in some dictionaries it says that not necessarily in bed ... so for example if you are very tired probably you can do it here ... or in your- I don't know

Note: T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 6.2, the teacher initiates a question related to the definition of the verb 'snooze.' In line 178, L8 provides the definition expected by the teacher. As shown in this extract, the teacher's elicitation technique is a display question since its aim is to elicit and check the understanding of a specific language form, that is, a verb, followed by her acceptance in turn 179.

- *Referential questions.* These questions are defined as questions whose answers are not yet known by the teacher, and are satisfied by learners' open-ended constructions which serve to inform the teacher rather than to be evaluated as 'good' or 'bad' (Tsui, 1995), for example:

Extract 6.3. A Referential question in an FLI (intermediate level)

224.T: A turtle? ... So what's the relationship like with a turtle?

225.LL: [Laugh]

226.T: I mean!- ... It has always intrigued me girls!

227.L7: //I:t's nice// ... because em ... for example //when I fee:d// it ... he starts to- [1] //I don't know// <> //how do you say /hit the water/?//

228.T: Yes

229.L1: *Patalear*

230.T: To KICK

Note: T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 6.3, the teacher initiates an open-ended question (line 224) to which L7 responds in line 227. The learner's answer in line 227 is not known by the teacher, and is extended by the use of four clauses. In line 228, the teacher follows up the interaction rather than evaluating it. In this case, the elicitation technique is a referential question since it is satisfied by L7's open-ended answer which serves the purpose of informing the teacher, and is not evaluated by the teacher in turn 228. In the FISFLI, the percentages of the total number of display and referential questions in the FLIs are obtained by counting the total number of each kind of (display or referential) question initiated by the teachers or learners. The total number is then divided by the total number of questions in the interaction, and multiplying the result by 100.

## Turn length

Prior to classifying the teachers' and learners' turns as 'short' or 'long', we needed to establish their specification criteria. In the literature, several units have been used to measure turn length (see Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), and there is still little consensus on which speech unit is adequate to measure oral production (Foster, 1998). As discussed previously, we chose for the AS-unit which allows an analysis of turns from several syntactic levels (from minor utterances and sub-clauses, to subordinated or coordinated clauses) (Foster et al., 2000). In particular, we considered that this speech unit was adequate to establish the distinctions between short and long turns in the FISFLI. As shown in Table 6.5, short turns consist of one independent clause, one sub-clause, or one minor utterance. Therefore, short turns in the FISFLI are defined as constructions involving one-idea utterances, elliptical structures or one-word constructions whose meaning is independent.

Table 6.5. Short turns in the FLIs

TYPE	SPECIFICATION
Full clause	One independent clause with a finite (conjugated) verb
Sub-clause	One independent sub-clausal unit that contains one or more phrases that can be elaborated to a full clause.
Minor utterance	One irregular sentence

As shown in Table 6.6, long turns, in contrast, consist of multiple clauses (including sub-clauses or minor utterances), subordinated and coordinated clauses. Thus, long turns are defined as complex constructions involving more than one clausal, sub-clausal or minor unit.

Table 6.6. Long turns in the FLIs

TYPE	SPECIFICATION
Multiple clauses	A turn formed of more than one minor utterance, full clause, sub-clause
Subordination	A subordinate clause with a finite or non-finite verb and at least a subject, object, complement or adverb
Coordination	A coordinated clause; independent clauses that are separated by a conjunction such as and, but and or

By classifying and counting the occurrences of the teachers' and learners' short and long turns, the FISFLI intends to explore the proportion of turn length during the FLIs. It is worth mentioning that by establishing the above criteria, teachers' and learners' turn length is measured and explored in a less time-consuming way. The percentages of the teachers' or

learners' total number of short and long turns in the FLIs are obtained by classifying the teachers' or learners' turns are firstly classified as short or long and then counted. Secondly, the total number of teachers' or learners' short and long turns are divided by the total number of turns in the interaction, and the result multiplied by 100.

## Amount of talk

It is widely known that teachers dominate the classroom discourse and, in particular, the quantity of classroom talk. Following the purpose of exploring the FLIs, the FISFLI aims to explore the extent to which the teachers and learners contributed to the teacher-led interactions (TLIs) in terms of amount of talk. The following table shows the measure that was used to explore this.

Table 6.7. Measure for amount of talk in the TLIs

MEASURE	CALCULATION
Amount of talk	The total number of teachers' or learners' words is divided by the total number of words in the interaction, then multiplied by 100.

As shown in Table 6.7, the teachers' and learners' amount of talk is obtained by calculating the percentages of words used during the TLIs. In the case of learner talk in the peer interactions (PIs), other length-based measures are included to explore the learners' amount of talk in these interactions.

## LEARNER TALK

The nature of classroom interactions shape learners' interactional behaviour and thus language achievement. Following this claim, the FISFLI explores the impact of the nature of FLIs on four aspects of learner talk: discourse functions, language performance, negotiations of meaning, and length of responses to display and referential questions. These four aspects are explored in TLIs as well as PIs, which we previously discussed that are also beneficial for language learning. As in the previous sections, the interactional strategies and measures used in the FISFLI to explore learner talk are described.

### Discourse functions

In everyday communication, speakers utilise a number of discourse functions in order to get across their messages and intent. In classroom communication, this is not exception. It is believed that learners by utilising a range of discourse functions can develop discourse competence (Long & Porter, 1985). However, learners' discourse functions during teacher-led discussions have been found to be limited as to quantity and variety (Ellis, 2012), since it is teachers who usually dominate them. These claims motivated the inclusion of a category in the FISFLI which explores the learners' use of discourse functions during the TLIs and PIs. The following table summarises the discourse functions included in the FISFLI and their specifications:

Table 6.8. 17 discourse functions (Taken and adapted from Garcia Ponce [2017])

DISCOURSE FUNCTION	SPECIFICATION
1. Moves conversation on to a new topic/activity	The teacher or learner changes the activity or topic as part of the task/lesson.
2. Extends a previous contribution	The teacher or learner retakes the whole or part of a previous idea, and includes new information.
3. Jokes	The teacher or learner comments on something funny which causes laughter.
4. Exemplifies	The teacher or learner provides an example to illustrate something being discussed.
5. Summarizes or ends discussions/task	The teacher or learner signals orally the end of a discussion or task.
6. Confirms	The teacher or learner expresses confirmation or approval of something being discussed.
7. Hypothesizes	The teacher or learner discusses something speculative or imaginary.
8. Makes an observation	The teacher or learner provides a comment or a judgement about something being discussed.
9. Defines	The teacher or learner provides information about the nature or characteristics of something.
10. Negates	The teacher or learner expresses reluctance or negation of something being discussed.
11. Concludes	The teacher or learner signals orally the conclusion of the class/discussion.
12. Praises or encourages	The teacher or learner praises or motivates others.
13. Completes	The teacher or learner completes an unfinished utterance.
14. Interrupts	The teacher or learner interrupts others' utterances.
15. Speaks simultaneously	The teacher or learner speaks at the same time as others' ongoing turn.
16. Explains/gives information	The teacher or learner provides a detailed explanation or extra information.
17. Gives instructions	The teacher or learner gives instructions for something to be discussed or done.

As shown in Table 6.8, 17 discourse functions feature in the FISFLI. These discourse functions were taken and adapted from Garcia Ponce (2017) and Long et al.'s (1976) Embryonic Category System (ECS). From the total number of categories (44) that they list, the pilot study indicated that the 17 discourse functions were frequent in the FLIs, and relevant to evaluating learners' discourse performance across the different activity types at the three proficiency levels. It is acknowledged that the discourse functions present in the FISFLI are not conclusive; the total number is far more extensive. As noted by Walsh (2011), turns sometimes include more than one discourse function, as illustrated below.

Figure 6.2. Complex turns in terms of discourse functions (Garcia Ponce, 2017)

Turns	Example	Discourse Functions
1 turn	T: //No// //it's for English III VI and IX//	<i>Negates/Gives information</i>
1 turn	T: //No no// //you don't// //coz you're studying English// heheh //right?// //So that's it// ... //I know// //I told you <> you might// //but ... I was just confused// ... //It's ah ... the III for PET the VI for FCE and IX for ... the CAE// ... //So you don't have a PET// //you don't have to be on Friday// //you don't have to be here on ... Tuesday// ... //those were the announcements//	<i>Negates/Explains/Gives information</i>
<i>Note:</i> T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; // =AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary		

As shown in Figure 6.2, the two teachers' turns are complex in terms of discourse functions. That is, more than one discourse function is simultaneously performed in each turn, one after the other. Consequently, the identification of discourse functions in the interactional data is facilitated by the data segmented into AS-units since meaning as well as discourse functions are isolated in each AS-unit.



After segmenting the interactional data into AS-units and identifying the discourse functions in the FLIs, the learners' discourse functions are classified into their respective category and tallied. In order to explore the proportion of the teachers' and learners' use of discourse functions during the FLIs, percentages of the total number of the teachers' and learners' discourse functions are calculated by dividing the total number of the teachers' or learners' discourse functions by the total number of discourse functions in the interaction, and the result then multiplied by 100. Moreover, in order to explore the extent to which the learners utilised discourse functions in the TLIs and PIs, percentages are calculated by dividing the total number of each discourse function initiated by the learners by the total number of learners' discourse functions in each kind of interaction (TLI or PI), and the result then multiplied by 100.

## Language performance

In the research literature, it has been found that tasks play a role in learners' language development (Ellis, 2009, 2012; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Skehan 1996, 1998, 2003, 2009; Robinson, 2007, to name a few). This is because the design and methodological aspects reflect the cognitive processing and demands which learners need in order to produce their utterances and thus promote their language development (Foster & Skehan, 1996). However, some limitations concerning learners' attentional resources to these processing and demands have been found in empirical studies (see Foster & Skehan, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Skehan, 1998, 2003, 2009). Moreover, it has been argued that learners' language performance is context-specific, and conditioned by the linguistic teaching and learning environment (Wolfe-Quintero et al. 1998). Following these claims, the FISFLI explores the extent to which the TLIs and PIs and speaking tasks have an impact on the learners' language performance, and examines the learners' opportunities to promote their oral

development during speaking practice. The learners' language performance in the FISFLI is explored through metrics which index the learners' fluency, complexity, and accuracy during speaking practice. The following tables describe these metrics, starting with the fluency measures:

Table 6.9. Measures for fluency levels

MEASURE	CALCULATION
Mean Turn Length	The MLT is calculated by counting the number of learners' words, and dividing them by the learners' total number of turns.
Words per AS-unit	The length of AS-units is calculated by counting the total number of words in learners' AS-units per the total number of learners' AS-units.
Words per Clause	The length of clauses (either main, subordinated or coordinated) is calculated by counting the total number of words in the learners' clauses per the total number of learners' clauses.

Table 6.9 shows the three metrics that are used to explore the learners' fluency levels in the TLIs and PIs: *Mean Turn Length* (MLT), *Words per AS-unit* and *Words per Clause*. Although we decided to use length-based measures of fluency, we acknowledge that these have been under criticisms, and alternative measures suggested. Skehan (1998) and Foster and Skehan (1999) explain that measuring fluency is more contentious than the other dimensions (complexity and accuracy). This is explained by a high number of fluency measures that research literature has formulated (Foster & Skehan 1996; Skehan, 2009; etc.). For example, measures that explore temporal variables (i.e., the speed of speaking) and hesitation phenomena (i.e., dysfluency) (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005); 'breakdown fluency' and 'repair fluency', respectively, for Skehan (1998, p.275). In particular, a debate has been triggered as to whether length-based mea-

asures, such as the three above, tap complexity or fluency (see Norris & Ortega, 2009). Consistent with Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998), the FISFLI includes the above length-based measures as indicative of fluency rather than complexity. The rationale behind this is that the number of words per unit (turn, clause, AS-unit) is found to index the learners' ability to construct the length of utterances in an articulate way during speaking practice. Alternatively, the FISFLI includes three complexity-based metrics which tap the learners' ability to construct elaborate language with greater syntactic patterning (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Foster & Skehan, 1996), described below.

In the FISFLI, the learners' complexity is indexed by clausal complexification, subordination and coordination (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) which are commonly associated with the idea that "more (complexity) means better" (Foster et al., 2000, p.355). The following table shows the complexity-based metrics included in the FISFLI:

Table 6.10. Measures for complexity levels

MEASURE	CALCULATION
Clauses per AS-units (Phrasal elaboration)	Phrasal elaboration is obtained by calculating the total number of learners' full clauses per the total number of learners' AS-units.
Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses (Subordination)	Subordination in learner talk is calculated by adding up the total number of subordinate clauses in learner talk per the total number of clauses (independent and dependent) (Norris & Ortega, 2009).
Coordination Index (Coordination)	Coordination is measured following the Coordination Index proposed by Bardovi-Harlig (1992). The Coordination Index is calculated by dividing the number of learners' coordinated clauses per the total number of learners' coordinated and subordinated clauses.

As shown in Table 6.10, the syntactic complexity of learner talk is measured by the *clauses per AS-units* (phrasal complexity), *dependent clauses per total clauses* (subordination) and *the Coordination Index* (coordination). The Coordination Index was included following Norris and Ortega's (2009) recommendation that learner talk at basic proficiency levels, which was the level of the basic learners in the explorations of the FLIs, should be measured in terms of coordination since this metric is predictive of and sensitive to determining the amount of clausal complexity achieved at early stages of language learning.

Prior to analysing the learners' accuracy in the interactional data, we needed to establish what constituted an error. The following criteria were then coded for identifying and counting errors in order to measure the learners' levels of accuracy:

- Errors in word selection
- Errors in morphology
- Errors in syntax
- Errors in pronunciation
- False starts, hesitations and self-corrections were excluded.

After identifying and counting the learners' errors, two metrics are used in the FISFLI to determine the learners' accuracy levels, as shown below.

Table 6.11. Measures for accuracy levels

MEASURE	CALCULATION
Error-free clauses	Percentages are calculated by identifying the number of learners' error-free clauses, divided by the total number of clauses produced by learners, and multiplying the result by 100 (Mehnert, 1998).
Errors per 100 words	The ratios are obtained by counting the total number of learners' errors in the oral interaction, divided by the number of words produced by learners, and multiplying the result by 100 (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998).

As shown in Table 6.11, the learners' accuracy levels are measured by *error-free clauses* and *errors per 100 words*. These two measures have been widely used as holistic measures of accuracy (Skehan & Foster, 1999).

## Negotiations of meaning

As discussed in Section Speech modifications, negotiations of meaning (i.e., interactional speech modifications) are “those modifications that occur in conversations between speakers which include a whole range of attempts to understand and to be understood” (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p.123). Negotiation of meaning provides learners with input that is fine-tuned to their level of comprehension through modified utterances (i.e., repetitions, extensions, reformulations, rephrasing, expansions) (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Long, 1996), drawing learners' attention to (phonological, lexical, and syntactic) forms in their interlanguage which are not target-like (Naughton, 2006; Pica, 1996b) and thus providing them with metalinguistic information concerning the clarity, accuracy, and comprehensibility of their messages (Foster, 1998; Foster & Ohta, 2005; Long, 1996). Besides an increase on input comprehensibility, negotiation of meaning is claimed to facilitate learners with opportunities to produce output (Long, 1996; van Lier, 2000), and modify it in more creative, accurate, and complex ways (Pica, 1996b). During negotiation of meaning, interactional strategies are used both strategically, to avoid difficulties during communication, and tactically, to re-establish communication if trouble occurs (Long, 1983). Supported by several empirical studies, negotiations of meaning are believed to encourage language development (Ellis et al. 1994; Long, 1996; Loschky, 1994; Pica et al. 1987). The following example is an instance of a negotiation of meaning identified in

Extract 6.4. A negotiation of meaning during an FLI (basic level)

486. T: [...] you ... okay what other things you take with you?

486. L13: //Take a ... bottle of water//

487. T: Okay.

488. L16: //Take a /brIk///

489. T: Take a?

490. L16: ///brIk///

491. T: /brIk/?

492. L16: //Break!//

493. T: Take a break ... okay take a break ... alright ... what else?

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

the interactional data:

Extract 6.4 shows a negotiation of meaning that is triggered after a mispronunciation by L16 (line 489). In line 490, the teacher asks L16 to repeat the word, which L16 again mispronounces in line 491. The teacher in line 492 centres L16's attention on the mispronounced word which L16 corrects in line 493. The negotiation of meaning is finalised in turn 494 by the teacher signalling acceptance of the previous utterance. As illustrated in this extract, the teacher uses strategies to which this study refers as *negotiation moves*. The moves of negotiations of meaning can be in the form of questions or partial or exact repetitions which serve the purpose of re-establishing communication, and maintaining comprehension. In total, five negotiation moves are used in the FISFLI to identify negotiations of meaning performed in the TLIs and PIs, as detailed below.

1. *Comprehension checks*, according to Long (1980), are *any* expressions, mostly in the form of questions, initiated to establish whether a preceding utterance has been understood by the interlocutor.

Extract 6.5. A comprehension check in an FLI (basic level)

T: Ok ... very very good alright ... so now open your books to page 88 [1] yes page 88 [6] so remember those are expressions that are used to make suggestions okay? [2] 'Below the box, there are some sentences that are in disorder' [T reads the instructions in the book] ... okay?

*Note:* T=Teacher; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

Extract 6.5 shows the teacher's turn in which she gives instructions and explains the use of some expressions. In this part of her turn, the question 'okay?' functions to check comprehension of her directives.

1. *Confirmation checks* are questions initiated to elicit confirmation that a preceding utterance by the interlocutor has been correctly understood or heard by the speaker (Long, 1980). These questions involve a rising intonation and/or repetition of all or part of a preceding utterance. Unlike repetitions, confirmation checks serve the purpose of eliciting confirmation, not providing negative feedback or new information.

Extract 6.6. A confirmation check in an FLI (basic level)

283. L11: //The woman ... calls a taxi//

284. T: the woman?

285. L11: //Calls a taxi//

286. T: The woman calls a taxi ... okay ... did you get everything correct?

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 6.6, the negotiation of meaning is initiated by the teacher's lack of understanding. In line 284, she repeats the first part of L11's previous turn in order to trigger the part that she did not understand. L11 provides the part that was not heard (line 285), for which the teacher signals understanding in line 286.

1. *Clarification requests* are mostly wh- or bipolar questions which are initiated to elicit clarification of the interlocutor's preceding utterance(s). These questions require the interlocutor to either furnish new information or recode information previously given (Long, 1980):

Extract 6.7. A clarification request in an FLI (basic level)

348.T: okay why don't we go to Place 1? Okay: ... good any other suggestion?

349.L3: //Why don't we-?//

350.T: Sorry ... say that again?

351.L3: //Why don't we [2] play ... a game?//

352.T: Okay ... let's play a game alright ...

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

Extract 6.7 shows a negotiation of meaning triggered by a lack of information in line 349. The teacher in line 350 requests L3 to repeat his utterance which is extended in line 351. The teacher finalises the negotiation of meaning in 352 by signalling understanding.

According to Long (1996), negative evidence<sup>2</sup> can be provided during negotiation of meaning. Negative evidence can take several forms

---

<sup>2</sup> Explicit or implicit information that is provided to learners concerning errors in their oral production (Gass, 2003, p. 225).



including grammar explanations, explicit feedback, recasts, and communication breakdowns followed by repair sequences. With the aim of understanding the extent to which negotiations of meaning during TLIs and PIs provided learners with negative evidence. The FISFLI coded for and explored the incidence of *corrective repetitions* (explicit feedback) and *recasts* (explicit feedback):

1. *Corrective repetitions* serve the purpose of reshaping another speaker's utterance. These are the most common types of negative feedback which usually contain an additional feature, for example, stress or lengthening of a segment, questioning intonation, etc. (Chaudron, 1988).

Extract 6.8. Corrective repetitions by the teacher (basic level)

256.	T: Speak up L6 ... again but speak up
257.	L6: //Listen egain [ <i>sic</i> ]//→
258.	T: LisTEN! [Correcting the stress on the verb]
259.	L6: //Listen egain [ <i>sic</i> ]// →
260.	T: Again! [Correcting the first vowel of the word]
261.	L6: //Again ... complete the sentence with words ... from the box//
<i>Note:</i> T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <=>=clause boundary	

Extract 6.8 shows an interaction during which the teacher asks L6 to read some instructions. The negotiation of meaning is triggered by L6's mispronunciation in line 257. The teacher firstly corrects the word stress by repeating the first word (line 258). L6 corrects the stress, but mispronounces the second word (line 259), which the teacher corrects by repeating it (line 260). The negotiation of meaning finalises in line 261 by the learner's uptake.

1. *Recasts* are ways in which participants reshape, reformulate or refine all or part of others' utterances (Walsh, 2006). The criteria to consider a recast are: 1) they contain content words of a preceding incorrect utterance, 2) they reshape utterances in a phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical way (Braidì, 2002), and 3) they focus on meaning rather than form (Long & Robinson, 1998).

Extract 6.9- A recast in the FLI (basic level)

243. T: Tell me where are they going?

244. LL: //Waterfront//

245. L?: //Waterfront//

246. T: Waterfront? ... hall! Waterfront hall [T writes on the board the name of the place]

*Note:* T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; LL=Several learners; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

Extract 6.9 shows an answer being reformulated. The teacher asks the learners the location of some people (line 243) to which they only provide half of the expected answer. The teacher in line 246 reformulates the expression by including the missing word. Unlike corrective repetitions or clarification requests, interlocutors are not required to provide further information since it is the speaker who usually reshapes the utterances.

In order to explore the nature of negotiations of meaning and the extent to which learners had the opportunity to negotiate meaning in the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels, two calculations are made. Firstly, the total number of negotiations of meaning are calculated by counting the occurrences of negotiations of meaning and their moves. Secondly, ratios between negotiations of meaning per minute are obtained by dividing the total number of negotiations of meaning in each TLI or PI per the total number of minutes of each interaction.

## Length of responses

In order to explore the effects of display and referential questions on learner talk during the FLIs, the FISFLI examines the learners' responses to display and referential questions by using three metrics already described in previous sections:

Table 6.12. Measures for learners' length of answers

MEASURE	CALCULATION
Mean Length of Turn	This is obtained by adding up the total number of words in the learners' responses per the total number of learners' responses.
Clauses per Responses	This is calculated by counting the total number of clauses in the learners' responses per the total number of learners' responses.
Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses	This is calculated by the total number of dependent clauses in the learners' responses per the total number of clauses in the learners' responses.

As shown in Table 6.12, fluency- (i.e., Mean Length of Turn) and complexity-based (i.e., clauses per response and dependent clauses per total clauses) measures are included in the FISFLI to explore the effects of the teachers' display and referential questions on the learners' responses in the FLIs.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter Six thoroughly described the FISFLI. As discussed in this chapter, the FISFLI was designed as an initial tool for exploring the FLIs in which teachers and learners engage to practise speaking. In the first part of the chapter, we described the speech unit and interactional strategies that were included in the FISFLI to explore the nature of the FLIs. In the second part, we outlined the four aspects of learner talk that were considered in the FISFLI to determine the impact of the nature of the FLIs on the learners' interactional behaviour during speaking practice.

Due to the detailed information of these interactional strategies and measures, we believe that the reader can assess whether the FISFLI is a framework which can be extrapolated to their context; help them explore their classroom interactions; and thus gain a understanding of their FLIs (see Rallis & Rossman, 2009; Storch, 2001).

Very much in line with Skehan's (2003) contention that the study of classroom interactions involves more than just frequencies and calculations of interactions, we put forward the argument that the study of the FLIs involve not only explorations of classroom interactional patterns, but also cognitive factors (i.e., participants' decision-making, perceptions, and underlying beliefs). This is addressed in this book by combining the analysis of interactional with elicited data with a view to illuminating how teachers and learners tend to make sense of their classroom interactions, and the interplay between beliefs and classroom (teaching, learning and interactional) behaviour during speaking practice.

## Chapter Seven

### THE ANALYSIS: INTERACTIONAL DATA



## INTRODUCTION

Classroom interactions are fundamental to developing several aspects of a target language (see, for example, Gass, 2003; Swain, 2000, 2005; Walsh, 2013). In foreign language (FL) classrooms, classroom interactions are claimed to be typically the only opportunity for many learners to practise the FL and thus develop speaking skills (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Philp & Tognini, 2009; Yoshida, 2013a). This was corroborated in a previous study that we conducted in the research site of the present explorations. We found that foreign language interactions (FLIs) are mostly the only opportunity for learners to practise the target language, and that there are limitations concerning the FL teaching and learning and, in particular, the development of learners' speaking skills. These limitations raised the need to conduct explorations of the FLIs in which teachers and learners engage to practise and develop speaking skills.

In order to gain insights into the FLIs, the explorations are guided by RQ1 (i.e., what are the instructional, interactional and cognitive factors that influence the development of learners' speaking skills during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels?) which explores the extent to which interactional as well as cognitive factors have an impact on the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice. By attaining this, the explorations of the FLIs aim to develop an understanding of the effectiveness of the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels, and to assist the teachers and learners in developing a more context-sensitive pedagogy for speaking practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

In addressing RQ2 (i.e., what is the likely impact of teaching and interactional patterns on learner talk, namely, learners' language performance, discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning, during speaking practice across proficiency levels?), Chapter Seven begins with an exploration of the nature of the FLIs which was facilitated by the interactional strategies covered in the FISFLI. The chapter then explores how accurate, fluent and complex were learners' utterances in teacher-led

interactions (TLIs) and peer interactions (PIs) across the different activity types and proficiency levels. It also examines the number and range of discourse functions that learners utilised in the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels. It concludes by investigating the extent to which negotiations of meaning occurred in the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels. The contributions made by the chapter are that, besides the teachers' dominance and control of the interactions, the nature of the FLIs influenced and, in some cases, limited learner talk in terms of amount, language performance, use of discourse functions, and opportunities to engage in negotiations of meaning.

## NATURE OF THE FLIS

In this section, the results concerning the nature of the FLIs at the three proficiency levels are outlined. Namely, the findings into the IRF pattern, teacher-initiated exchanges, teachers' questions and their effects on learners' responses, and teachers' and learners' turn length and amount of talk are discussed. Overall, the findings confirm that the teachers dominated the EFL classroom discourse, despite the teachers' claims about the importance of learners practising and developing skills (see Chapter Eight). This section concludes by suggesting that some interactional strategies of teacher talk and learners' limited opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse were unaligned with the aim of practising speaking and developing learners' speaking skills that the teachers reported during the interviews.

### IRF patterns

As documented in the research literature (see Consolo, 2006; Cullen, 2002; Hall & Walsh, 2002), the IRF pattern frequently recurred during the FLIs at the three proficiency levels, as detailed below.



Table 7.1. IRF pattern in the FLIs at the three proficiency levels

Move	BASIC		INTERMEDIATE		ADVANCED	
	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	LEARNERS
Initiation	244 (31.6%)	29 (3.7%)	243 (38.1%)	34 (5.3%)	121 (37.1%)	14 (4.2%)
Response	15 (1.94%)	303 (39.3%)	21 (3.2%)	258 (40.5%)	6 (1.8%)	112 (34.3%)
Feedback	179 (23.2%)	0 (0.0%)	81 (12.7%)	0 (0.0%)	73 (22.3%)	0 (0.0%)
Total moves	770		637		326	

As Table 7.1 shows, the FLIs at the three proficiency levels relied on IRF moves. It is apparent that teachers dominated the IRF moves by constructing a greater number of initiations (a teachers' percentage range from 31.6% to 38.1% compared to a learners' percentage range from 3.7% to 5.3% of the total number of moves) and feedback moves (a percentage range from 12.7% to 23.2% of the total moves) than the learners. From this table, it is evident that the learners mostly initiated response moves. The immediate issue that emerges from these findings is that the FLIs were considerably dominated by the teachers in terms of IRF moves, mostly leaving the learners opportunities to initiate response moves, which were continuously evaluated by the teachers.

## Teaching exchanges

In order to explore the nature of the teaching moves during the FLIs at the three proficiency levels, it became apparent the need to explore the

most dominant teacher-initiated exchanges (namely, *informing*, *directing*, *eliciting* and *checking*) were explored. The results are summarised below.

Table 7.2. Teaching exchanges in the FLIs at the three proficiency levels

MOVE	BASIC	INTERMEDIATE	ADVANCED
Informing	24 (9.8%)	49 (20.1%)	29 (23.9%)
Directing	19 (7.7%)	29 (11.9%)	22 (18.1%)
Eliciting	175 (71.7%)	143 (58.8%)	62 (51.2%)
Checking	26 (10.6%)	22 (9.0%)	8 (6.6%)
Total	244	243	121

*Note:* Due to the fact that the teaching exchanges varied in number across proficiency levels, the percentages shown above were calculated in relation to the total number of exchanges at each proficiency level.

As can be seen from Table 7.2, the exchanges that were initiated by the teachers at the three proficiency levels mostly involved *eliciting* information, ranging from 51.2% to 71.7% of the total number of exchanges across proficiency levels. Ranging from 51.2% to 71.7%, the teacher-initiated exchanges to *elicit* information in turn explain the high incidence of learners' response moves during the FLIs. Besides exchanges to *elicit* information, the three teachers also initiated exchanges to *inform* learners (e.g., provide explanations) (a percentage range of 9.8% to 23.9% of the total number of exchanges across proficiency levels). The least dominant exchange of the four was to *check* learners or activities.

The following extract illustrates how the teaching exchanges were typically initiated to elicit information, and how the learners' responses were influenced by the exchanges:

Extract 7.1. Exchanges initiated by the teacher to elicit responses (basic level)

32. T: Okay ... ye:s ... that's another suggestion ... good!  
L12 do you have a suggestion for this?

[2]

33. LL: [Laugh]

34. L12: //Why don't we do a party?//

35. T: Why don't we-?

36. L12: //Why don't we do a party?//

37. T: Okay! ... alright good ... What's your response ...  
about this party?

38. L12: //THAT's a good idea!//

39. T: That's a good idea? ... alright [...]

*Note:* T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 7.1, the teacher and L12 engage in an interaction to practise vocabulary expressions related to suggestions. In turns 32, 35 and 37, the teacher's elicitation function to obtain oral responses by L12. It is apparent from this extract that the teacher's exchanges to elicit information entail the use of questions which serve different purposes, such as eliciting answers (turns 32 and 37), allocating turns (turn 32), requesting clarifications (turn 35), and checking confirmations (turn 39). Moreover, the teacher's use of questions appears to influence the nature and length of L12's responses. That is, since the aim of the speaking practice is to practise vocabulary expressions, the teacher uses display questions which enable her to check the L12's use of particular expressions, not involving freer and more extended oral contributions, as indicated by one AS-unit in each response and no subordinated clauses. The learner limits himself to display his knowledge of structures expected by the teacher.

## Questions and responses

As discussed in the previous sections, the FLIs were considerably dominated by the teachers' initiations and feedback moves. In particular, it was found that the FLIs were typified by a high use of elicitations in the form of questions, namely, in the teachers' initiation moves. Table 7.3 confirms that the general observation that questions and answers typified the FLIs at the three proficiency levels. These elicitation techniques as interactional strategies were dominated by the teachers at the three proficiency levels. This again suggests that the learners were mostly given the opportunity to contribute to the FLI and TLI discourse by responding to the teachers' questions.

Table 7.3. Total number of questions in the FLIs at the three proficiency levels

BASIC		INTERMEDIATE		ADVANCED	
TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	LEARNERS
175 (94.5%)	10 (5.4%)	143 (79.8%)	36 (20.1%)	62 (89.8%)	7 (10.1%)
<i>Note:</i> The percentages represent the total number of questions initiated by the teachers and learners in the FLIs (whole recorded sessions; approximately 100 minutes).					

It can also be seen that the teacher at the advanced level initiated a lower number of questions compared to the other two (basic and intermediate) teachers. As observed in the interactional data and suggested in the elicited data, the lower number of the advanced teacher's questions than the other teachers can be explained by the teacher's reliance on peer-led discussions for speaking practice (please refer to Chapter Eight for a full discussion regarding this teacher's decision).

Motivated by the high number of teachers' questions found in the FLIs at the three proficiency levels, and the argument that teachers' ques-

tions may have either beneficial or limiting effects on learners' responses (Boulima, 1999; Chaudron, 1988; Walsh, 2013), the type of teachers' questions and their effects on the fluency and complexity of learners' responses were then explored, as detailed below.

Table 7.4. Kind of questions in the FLIs at the three proficiency levels

Type of Question	Basic		Intermediate		Advanced	
	Teacher	Learners	Teacher	Learners	Teacher	Learners
DQ	123 (66.4%)	0 (0.0%)	44 (24.5%)	0 (0.0%)	46 (66.6%)	0 (0.0%)
RQ	18 (9.7%)	9 (4.8%)	33 (18.4%)	7 (3.9%)	5 (7.2%)	4 (5.7%)
Y/NQ	34 (18.3%)	1 (0.5%)	66 (36.8%)	29 (16.2%)	11 (15.9%)	3 (4.3%)
Total	185		179		69	
Note: %=percentage of questions in relation to the total number of turns; DQ=Display questions; RQ=referential questions; Y/NQ=yes/no questions; Total=total number of questions.						

Again, Table 7.4 shows that the teachers initiated a higher number of display, referential and yes/no questions than the learners at the three proficiency levels. Regarding yes/no questions, as the name implies, these elicitation techniques are often answered by a 'yes' or 'no'. For the purpose of determining the effects of teachers' questions, these questions were therefore disregarded since they were seen not to have an impact on the fluency and complexity of learners' responses. However, some of these questions were used to explore the nature of negotiations of meaning triggered by confirmation checks (see Sections Negotiations of meaning and Nature and patterns of negotiations of meaning). It is interesting from Table 7.4 that the most frequent kind of questions during the FLIs was the teachers' display questions. In contrast, the scarcest questions were the teachers'

referential questions across proficiency levels. Prior to exploring the effects of the teachers' questions on the fluency and complexity of learners' responses, it is useful to establish the distinct nature between display and referential questions, as illustrated in the two extracts below.

Extract 7.2. Responses to display questions (basic level)

40. T: //Now in the following exercise you have to correct one mistake in each sentence// [2] //L3 what's the mistake?//  
41. L3: //What do you do?//  
42. T: //What do you do?// //It says// //what are you do?// ... //what's the mistake?//  
43. L3: //Are//  
44. T: //Are?// ... //ok// ... //you can say// //what do you do?// //that's one question o:r?//  
45. LL: //What are you doing?//  
46. T: //Excellent!// Yes //what are you doing?// ... //do you remember the difference between 'what do you do?' and 'what are you doing?//

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 7.2, the basic teacher and learners interact to check the answers of a grammar exercise. It can be seen from the extract that the teacher is in control of the interaction by allocating the turns randomly or initiating the questions (turns 40, 42, 44 and 46), providing feedback (turn 44), and signalling acceptance of responses (turns 42 and 46). Since the aim of the TLI is to practise form, the teacher initiates display questions (turns 40, 42 and 44) which serve the purpose of learners displaying knowledge of grammatical structures of questions. Therefore, the learners' responses are required by the teacher to provide specific information which does not raise fluency and complexity levels (e.g., the learners' utterances con-

sisting of no more than one AS-unit), as shown in turns 41, 43 and 45. In contrast, the teachers' referential questions serve a different purpose, having an impact on the fluency and complexity of learners' responses as illustrated in Extract 7.3.

Extract 7.3. Response to a referential question (intermediate level)

<p>391. T: [...] //L20 and L21? Did you ... agree on something or ... not really? ... About the pictures// ... //so which are the most important for your- well in your opinion//</p> <p>392. L21: Parent and- //parents and children//</p> <p>393. T: //O:h! really?// ... Really? //Can you tell us why? ... in your humble opinion of course ... L20?//</p> <p>394. L20: //In one people marriage// &lt;&gt; //because ... you can have a good relationship with one ... husband// and //in the other people as parents ... you should be confident with your children//</p>
<p><i>Note:</i> T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //AS-unit boundary; &lt;&gt;=clause boundary</p>

In Extract 7.3, the intermediate teacher initiates a discussion with two learners about the importance of certain relationships. As in Extract 7.2, the teacher controls the interaction by allocating the questions (in turns 391 and 392) and following up L21's response (in turn 393). Serving a purpose of eliciting the learners' personal views, the teacher asks one referential question in turn 391. This referential question yields a specific response by L21 in turn 392. Following up the interaction, the teacher asks a second referential question (turn 393) which elicits L20's explanation of their choice. It is evident that the second referential question has an impact on the fluency and complexity of L20's response, as indicated by the number of AS-units and clauses constructed. The distinc-

tion illustrated in Extracts 7.3 and 7.4 is of great relevance for exploring the nature of the FLIs because it indicates that not only the teachers formulated two different types of questions, but also these two distinct elicitation techniques served different purposes which in turn influenced learners' responses in terms of fluency and complexity, as detailed below.

Table 7.5. Learners' responses to display and referential questions: fluency and complexity

METRIC	BASIC		INTERMEDIATE		ADVANCED	
	DISPLAY	REFER- ENTIAL	DISPLAY	REFER- ENTIAL	DISPLAY	REFER- ENTIAL
MLT	5.2	10.4	1.8	25.0	5.8	6.3
Clauses per response	0.8	1.5	0.1	3.6	0.8	0.8
DC per TC	0.06	0.2	0	0.2	0.1	0.2
<i>Note:</i> MLT=Mean Length of Turn; DC per TC=dependent clauses per total clauses.						

Table 7.5 shows that the teachers' display questions during the FLIs at the three proficiency levels motivated lower fluency and complexity in learners' responses than the referential questions (for example, a range of 0 to 0.1 DC per TC in responses to display questions compared to 0.2 DC per TC in responses to referential questions). In comparing Tables 7.4 and 7.5, it is thus apparent that display questions during the FLIs not only outnumbered referential questions, but also encouraged less fluent and complex learner responses than referential questions. This in turn indicates that the FLIs followed question and answer routines which were mostly aimed at learners displaying knowledge of form, limiting their opportunities to push their oral contributions to be more creative, elaborated and complex.



## Turn length and amount of talk

In order to explore the general opportunity that the teachers and learners at the three proficiency levels had to contribute to the interaction, the number and length of their turns during the FLIs (whole recorded sessions) and amount of talk during the TLIs (teacher-led discussions to practise speaking) were measured. As a basic unit to measure the participants' opportunity to interact, the total number of the teachers' and learners' turns were counted and calculated in percentages in order to compare the proportion of turns initiated by the teachers and learners during the FLIs. The following table summarises the results.

Table 7.6. Teachers' and learners' turns in the FLIs

Turns	BASIC	INTERMEDIATE	ADVANCED
Teachers' turns	319 (49%)	268 (47.8%)	116 (47.9%)
Learners' turns	332 (50.9%)	292 (52.1%)	126 (52%)
Total number of turns	651	560	242

The table indicates that the learners contributed a slightly higher number of turns than the teachers during the FLIs at the three proficiency levels (a percentage range of 50.9% to 52.1% of learners' turns compared to 47.8% to 49% of teachers' turns). These results sharply contrast with the results of the IRF patterns, which indicated that the teachers dominated the classroom discourse in terms of moves. The varied results can be explained by the fact that teachers' turns can be complex in terms of moves (see Extract 7.1). That is, a teacher's turn can, for example, provide feedback and then initiate questions, which is then a turn with feedback and initiation moves.

The above figures are within, according to Nápoles and Vázquez-Ramos (2013), the percentage range that “successful teachers” contribute to classroom discussions. However, the following results indicate that the teachers considerably dominated the classroom discourse. In the first instance, we explore the teachers’ and learners’ turn length during the FLIs. In the second instance, we examine in greater detail the teachers’ and learners’ amount of talk during the TLIs. Table 7.7 shows the percentages of the total number of teachers’ and learners’ turns across the FLIs according to their length:

Table 7.7. Teachers’ and learners’ short and long turns in the FLIs

LENGTH OF TURN	BASIC		INTERMEDIATE		ADVANCED	
	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	LEARNERS
Long Turns	129 (40.4%)	26 (7.8%)	139 (51.8%)	48 (16.4%)	66 (56.8%)	16 (12.6%)
Short Turns	190 (59.5%)	306 (92.1%)	129 (48.1%)	244 (83.5%)	50 (43.1%)	110 (87.3%)

The table shows that the three teachers contributed almost similar percentages of short and long turns. In comparing the teachers’ and learners’ turn length, it is evident that the three teachers dominated the number of long turns (a percentage range of 40.4% to 56.8 of the teachers’ long turns compared to 7.8% to 16.4% of the learners’ long turns). In contrast, the learners constructed a high number of short turns (a percentage range of 83.5% to 92.1% across proficiency levels), consisting of no more than one AS-unit. These figures thus suggest that the learners during the FLIs (whole recorded sessions) mostly had opportunities to construct turns that consisted of one word, phrase, or a sentence involving one clause.

Moreover, these findings link back to the learners' fluency and complexity levels which were not benefitted in their responses, as discussed in the previous section.

The limited learners' opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse were also found in the TLIs at the three proficiency levels. Interestingly, the percentages show that the learners' amount of talk tended to vary according to the focus (meaning or form) of the interactions. In order to show this pattern, we explore the teachers' and learners' amount of talk during the TLIs at each proficiency level. The following table summarises the teachers' and learners' amount of talk during the basic TLIs:

Table 7.8. Amount of talk in the basic TLIs

INTER-ACTION	WORDS		PERCENTAGE	Focus
	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	
TLI 1	79	77	50.6%	Meaning
TLI 2	277	79	77.8%	Form
TLI 3	302	132	69.5%	Form
TLI 4	290	160	64.4%	Form
TLI 5	79	140	36%	Meaning
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; Words #=Number of words; Total=Total number of words.				

Table 7.8 shows that at the basic level, teacher, in terms of amount of talk, dominated most of the TLIs with a higher number of words than the learners. It is interesting from this table that there was a greater amount of learner talk in some TLIs. Namely, TLIs 1 and 5 which followed a focus on meaning appear to have motivated a greater amount of learner talk than the TLIs focused on form (a percentage of 49.3% in TLI 1 and 63.9% in TLI 5 compared to a percentage range of 22.1% to 35.5% in the TLIs

focused on form). This interactional pattern was also found in the intermediate TLIs, as shown in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9. Amount of talk in the intermediate TLIs

INTERACTION	WORDS		PERCENTAGE	FOCUS
	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	
TLI 1	550	161	71.3%	Form
TLI 2	505	319	62.8%	Meaning
TLI 3	758	704	51.8%	Meaning
TLI 4	425	210	66.9%	Meaning
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; Words #=Number of words; Total=Total number of words.				

It can be seen from this table that the amount of teacher talk was dominating over learner talk during the TLIs, as indicated by the percentage range of 51.8% to 71.3% of the teacher's amount of talk compared to 22.6% to 48.1% of the learners' amount of talk. Similar to the basic level, there is an increase in the learners' amount of talk in the meaning-focused TLIs 2 to 4 (a percentage range from 33% to 48% compared to 22.6% in the form-focused TLI 1). At the advanced level, only two TLIs, both of which focused on form, were carried out, as shown in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10. Amount of talk in the advanced TLIs

INTERACTION	WORDS		PERCENTAGE		FOCUS
	TEACHER	LEARNERS	TEACHER	LEARNERS	
TLI 1	156	46	77.2%	22.7%	Form
TLI 2	448	58	88.5%	11.4%	Form
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; Words #=Number of words; Total=Total number of words.					

This table shows that the teacher at the advanced level dominated the teacher-led discussions (77.2% and 88.5% in the two TLIs respectively), even more than the teachers during the basic and intermediate TLIs. The greater dominance of the advanced teacher than the other two teachers can be explained by the aims of the TLIs which required the learners to define vocabulary, not favouring freer, creative and extended oral contributions by the learners.

The above figures confirm the general idea that the teachers at the three proficiency levels dominated the discourse during the FLIs and, in particular, the TLIs during which speaking was practised. However, the amount of learner talk appeared to raise in the meaning-focused TLIs rather than the form-focused TLIs, during which the teachers tended to dominate the talk more. Extract 7.4 illustrates a meaning-focused TLI, and how the interactional strategies of teachers had an impact on learners' amount of talk:

Extract 7.4. A part of TLI 2 at intermediate level

40. T: Who has pets here then?  
[L18 raising hand]
41. T: Oh so you can share something with us ... L8 is there something you'd like to share with us? Do you think there's more positive things or negative things? What would you say?
42. L18: //I think <> //that- that if you don't like responsibilities// u:h //pets aren't for you=//
43. T: =heheheh.
44. L18: //A:nd if you like// ... animals- //if you love animals// //and if you love nature// <> //you can consider having a pet//
45. T: Yes! ... So pets are not for irresponsible people=
46. L18: //No never//
47. T: Have you become a more responsible people thanks to that?
48. L18: //No// heheh
49. LL: [Laugh]
50. T: You haven't?
51. L18: //No// //because I'm not usually at home most of the time// ... <> //becau:se- u:h ... when she was// ... //how do you say?// ... //She was a puppy// a:h ... //we used to care- take care of her a lot more than now// ... //because she is- she was a puppy//
52. T: Ah! Now she is more independent.
53. L18: //Yeah//

*Note:* T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In this extract, the teacher and L18 initiate a discussion about the responsibilities of having a pet. It is apparent that the teacher controls the interaction by initiating the questions, allocating turns to participate, and following up the learner's responses. With the aim of practising speaking, the teacher contributes two interactional strategies focused on meaning, that is, the communication. In the first instance, the teacher initiates two referential questions (turns 41 and 50) which have an impact on longer and more complex L18's turns (turns 42, 44 and 51), as indicated by the number of words, AS-units and clauses. The teacher, in the second instance, initiates follow-up moves (turns 41, 45, 47, 50 and 52) which impact on motivating L18's oral contributions during the interaction. As illustrated in the above extract, these interactional strategies were found to be frequent in the meaning-focused TLIs which tended to increase the learners' amount of talk. This evidence thus suggests that teachers, whilst remaining in control of the interaction, can enhance the learners' opportunities to increase the amount of talk and thus contribute more to the teacher-led discussions if they initiate interactional strategies (e.g., questions and discourse moves) which are in line with the goal of the interaction.

So far, we have seen that the teachers at the three proficiency levels dominated the classroom discourse during teacher-led speaking practice. Namely, the teachers' dominance over classroom discourse involved a higher number of initiations and feedback moves, elicitations in the form of questions, short and long turns, and a greater amount of talk during the interactions. In contrast, learner talk was limited to responding to the teachers' display questions, which motivated lower levels of fluency and complexity than referential questions. This thus implies that the learners had limited opportunities not only to construct longer and more complex turns, but also to contribute to the discourse during the speaking practice. However, the interactional data also showed that the amount of learner talk tended to vary depending on the focus (meaning or form) of the TLIs. In exploring the nature of the meaning-focused TLIs, the learners' interactional opportunities during speaking practice tended to be

enhanced by the teachers' use of interactional strategies. This evidence is of particular relevance for the explorations of the FLIs because it suggests that the teachers, whilst maintaining control of the interactions, can create interactional opportunities with a conscious use of interactional strategies during TLIs. In Section Learner talk, we provide further evidence which indicates that the nature of the FLIs influenced and, in some cases, limited the learners' opportunities to develop their language performance, use discourse functions and engage in negotiations of meaning.

## LEARNER TALK

This section examines the effects of the nature of the FLIs at the three proficiency levels on three aspects of learner talk. Following the argument that learners' successful language performance can be fruitfully captured by the fluency, complexity and accuracy constructs (Skehan, 2009), the section begins by discussing the results of learners' language performance with the aim of exploring the extent to which learners' fluency, complexity and accuracy were benefitted during the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels. The section then explores the learners' use of discourse functions in order to determine the extent to which the TLIs and PIs were conducive to promoting learners' discourse competence. The section concludes by examining the extent to which the teachers and learners engage in negotiations during the TLIs and PIs, and by exploring the nature of their negotiations of meaning across proficiency levels. Overall, the results indicate that the kind (TLI or PI) and focus (meaning or form) of the interactions and other task characteristics had an impact on learners' language performance and use of discourse functions at the three proficiency levels, suggesting that learner talk during speaking practice was largely shaped by an interplay of instructional (i.e., the teachers' pedagogic decisions concerning the kind and focus of interactions for speaking practice) and interactional (i.e., the teachers' and learners' in-

teractional behaviour) factors. In the case of negotiations of meaning, the findings indicate a scarcity in the foreign classroom discourse at the three proficiency levels, and a nature limited to lexical forms and certain negotiation moves, suggesting that negotiations of meaning may possibly have been avoided by the teachers' and learners' perceptions of them as face-threatening strategies.

## Fluency

In order to explore how fluent, complex and accurate the learners' utterances were during the TLIs and PIs across proficiency levels, the present section begins by exploring the learners' fluency at each proficiency level and the factors that played a role in their levels. The learners' complexity and accuracy levels are then discussed in Sections Complexity and Accuracy, respectively. The following two tables summarise the learners' fluency levels in the TLIs and PIs at the basic level.

Table 7.11. Learners' fluency levels in the basic TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	TLI 5	AVERAGE
	MEANING	FORM	FORM	FORM	MEANING	
MLT	8.5	3.5	4.2	4.1	6.3	5.32
Words per AS-unit	8.1	3.7	4.2	4.1	5.8	5.18
Words per Clause	6.0	5.0	4.4	4.5	6.3	5.24
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; MLT=Mean Length of Turn.						



Table 7.11 shows wide variation in the MLT, Words per AS-unit and Words per Clause metrics across the different TLIs. However, it can be seen a dominant pattern that the TLIs which were focused on meaning involved the learners generating more words. This thus indicates greater fluency than in the form-focused interactions (for example, 8.1 Words per AS-units in TLI 1 and 5.8 Words per AS-units in TLI 5 compared to a range of 3.7 to 4.2 Words per AS-units in TLIs 2-4). This pattern can also be seen in Table 7.12.

Table 7.12. Learners' fluency levels in the basic PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVER- AGE
	MEANING	MEANING	MEANING	FORM	FORM	FORM	
MLT	4.0	4.7	7.6	5.1	3.2	4.9	4.91
Words per AS-unit	3.3	2.8	4.4	4.5	4.2	3.9	3.85
Words per Clause	4.1	6.2	6.3	5.4	5.7	6.1	5.63
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; MLT=Mean Length of Turn.							

Again, Table 7.12 shows that there is significant variation in the measures of MLT, Words per AS-unit, and Words per Clause across the six PIs. As in the TLIs, the meaning-focused PIs promoted a higher number of learners' words, indicating greater fluency than in some PIs focused on form. In comparing the fluency levels between the basic TLIs and PIs, the averages are varied and indicate greater fluency in the TLIs than in the PIs. The varied fluency levels at the basic level can be explained by the focus of the TLIs and PIs on either meaning or form. In the form-focused TLIs and PIs, the tasks required the learners to drill formulaic phrases to make suggestions, which raised the number of words,

AS-units and clauses and in turn influenced the results. However, the learners in these interactions did not produced more creative and fluent utterances as in the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs because they were expected to display knowledge of structures.

As at the basic level, the intermediate learners' utterances also involved greater fluency in the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs than in a form-focused TLIs and PIs, as detailed in the following two tables<sup>1</sup> below.

Table 7.13. Learners' fluency levels in the intermediate TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	AVERAGE
	FORM	MEANING	MEANING	MEANING	
MLT	3.6	9.6	9.1	15	9.32
Words per AS-unit	3.3	6.7	7.8	9.1	6.72
Words per Clause	6.4	6.1	7.1	6.4	6.5
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; MLT=Mean Length of Turn.					

Again, similarly to the basic level, it can be seen from Table 7.13 that the results of the three measures widely varied across the intermediate TLIs. However, it is evident that greater fluency was promoted during the meaning-focused TLIs 2-4 than the form-focused TLI 1. In comparing the basic and intermediate TLIs, it seems that the intermediate learners produced more fluent turns than the basic learners. In the case of the PIs, all the learner interactions were focused on meaning, as shown in Table 7.14.

<sup>1</sup> Note that the comparisons are based on nine meaning-focused interactions compared to one form-focused interaction.

Table 7.14. Learners' fluency levels in the intermediate PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	
MLT	18.4	18.2	17.5	31.7	21.2	16.6	20.6
Words per AS-unit	6.5	8.0	7.7	8.2	8.1	7.3	7.63
Words per Clause	7.3	7.4	6.1	7.5	7.0	6.6	6.98
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; MLT=Mean Length of Turn.							

As in the TLIs, the MLT, Words per AS-unit, and Words per Clause show varied fluency levels across the intermediate PIs. In comparing the TLIs and PIs at the intermediate level, the averages of the three metrics show that the fluency levels were significantly higher in the PIs than in the TLIs. This evidence contrasts with the fluency levels at the basic level which showed a tendency towards greater fluency in the TLIs than in the PIs. Considering the characteristics of task at the intermediate level (which required the learners to discuss, negotiate choices and reach agreements), the PIs show the highest fluency levels. The task characteristics in the six PIs at the intermediate level, as well as PIs 1-3 at the advanced level, promoted not only high fluency levels, but also complexity levels.

At the advanced levels, a similar pattern of greater fluency in the PIs than in the TLIs was found. These results are summarised in the two tables below:

Table 7.15. Learners' fluency levels in advanced the TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	AVERAGE
	FORM	FORM	
MLT	4.6	3.6	4.1
Words per AS-unit	4.6	3.6	4.1
Words per Clause	4.7	4.7	4.7
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; MLT=Mean Length of Turn.			

Table 7.15 shows an MLT of 4.6 and 3.6, 4.6 and 3.6 Words per AS-unit, and 4.7 and 4.7 Words per clause, respectively. It is interestingly to note that the learners in these two TLIs produced less fluent utterances than the learners during the basic and intermediate TLIs. This thus indicates that the form-focused TLIs, during which tasks required learners to define verbs, did not promote the learners' fluency during the advanced TLIs. However, a different pattern can be seen in the following table:

Table 7.16. Learners' fluency levels in the advanced PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN-ING	MEAN-ING	MEAN-ING	MEAN-ING	MEAN-ING	MEAN-ING	
MLT	21.5	15.3	13.3	17.2	6.6	8.8	13.78
Words per AS-unit	8.5	7.7	6.6	5.3	4.6	5.6	6.38
Words per Clause	6.2	6.4	6.3	5.2	5.1	6.2	5.9
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; MLT=Mean Length of Turn.							

Table 7.16 shows considerable variation in terms of fluency across the MLT, Words per AS-unit, and Words per Clause metrics. These measures show that the fluency levels were higher during these PIs than the two form-focused TLIs. As at the intermediate level, PIs 1-3, motivated higher fluency levels than PIs 4-6. The task characteristics demanded that the learners considered new information, evaluated it, and then defended opinions. In comparing these advanced PIs with other interactions at the basic and intermediate levels, it is evident that the six advanced PIs motivated greater fluency than the basic PIs. However, the fluency levels during the intermediate PIs proved superior to the fluency levels during the advanced PIs. This may be explained by the characteristics of the meaning-focused PIs at the intermediate level which required the learners to discuss, negotiate choices and reach agreements and in turn had an impact on the highest fluency levels across the datasets.

So far, the interactional data indicated variation in terms of the learners' fluency levels in the TLIs and PIs across proficiency levels. However, it was found that the TLIs and PIs focused on meaning tended to raise the learners' fluency levels. In contrast, the form-focused TLIs and PIs encouraged the learners to construct utterances with a lower number of words, indicating lower fluency levels than the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs. At the intermediate and advanced levels, the learners' fluency was greater in the PIs than in the TLIs. This suggests that the meaning-focused PIs allowed the learners to produce more fluent utterances than the TLIs, during which the talk was dominated by the teachers as discussed in Section Turn length and amount of talk. Interestingly, the six PIs at the intermediate level and PIs 1-3 at the advanced level, which encouraged learners to consider new information, evaluate it, and defend an opinion, raised fluency levels even higher than other meaning-focused TLIs and PIs across the data. This evidence thus indicates that the learners' fluency levels were influenced by the focus (meaning or form) and kind (TLI or PI) of the interactions and other task characteristics.

## Complexity

This section discusses the learners' complexity levels at the three proficiency levels. Similarly to the learners' fluency, the complexity levels appeared to be dependent on the focus (meaning or form) and kind (TLI or PI) of the interactions and other task design characteristics, as discussed below. The following two tables outline the learners' complexity levels at the basic level:

Table 7.17. Learners' complexity levels in the basic TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	TLI 5	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	FORM	FORM	FORM	MEANING	
Clauses per AS-unit	1.3	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.84
DC per TC	0.5	0	0.1	0.03	0.2	0.16
Coordination Index	0.2	0.1	0	0	0.3	0.12
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; DC per TC=Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses						

In Table 7.17, the measures of Clauses per AS-unit, Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses and Coordination Index indicate that the learners' complexity levels varied significantly in TLIs 1 and 5 compared to TLIs 2-4. It can also be seen that the meaning-focused TLIs motivated higher complexity levels than the form-focused TLIs. Interestingly, the meaning-focused TLIs at the basic level motivated higher levels of both fluency and complexity than the form-focused TLIs. A similar pattern can be seen in the basic PIs, as detailed below.

Table 7.18. Learners' complexity levels in the basic PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	FORM	FORM	FORM	
Clauses per AS-unit	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.53
DC per TC	0.2	0.07	0.2	0.1	0.01	0.1	0.11
Coordination Index	0	0	0	0.04	0	0.2	0.04
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; DC per TC=Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses.							

In Table 7.18, the three metrics shows that the complexity levels varied considerably across the six PIs. As in the TLIs, the meaning-focused PIs involved the learners constructing a higher number of AS-units and clauses, indicating greater complexity than in the form-focused PIs 5 and 6. From the above two tables, it is evident that the learners in the TLIs produced more complex utterances than the PIs. However, as discussed in the previous section, we should treat this evidence carefully because there were also form-focused TLIs and PIs at the basic level whose implementation characteristics required the basic learners to drill ready-made phrases. This, in turn, shows an increment in the fluency and complexity levels, but leaving the learners without much opportunity to practise more elaborate, creative and complex utterances as in the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs.

Similarly, the learners' complexity levels at the intermediate level tended to raise in the meaning-focused TLIs and, particularly, the PIs, as shown in the two following tables.

Table 7.19. Learners' complexity levels in the intermediate TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	AVERAGE
	FORM	MEANING	MEANING	MEANING	
Clauses per AS-unit	0.3	1.0	1.0	1.3	0.9
DC per TC	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.27
Coordination Index	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.27
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; DC per TC=Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses					

Table 7.19 shows that the complexity levels are characterised by variation across the four TLIs. As we might expect, it is evident that the meaning-focused TLIs promoted more complex turns than the form-focused TLIs (as also found in the intermediate learners' fluency). In comparing the intermediate TLIs and PIs (see Table 7.20), the averages indicate that the learners tended to produce more complex utterances in the PIs than in the TLIs. This suggests that the meaning-focused PIs allowed more opportunities for the learners to push their utterances towards greater complexity as well as fluency than the TLIs. Interestingly, some metrics indicate that the learners' utterances in some meaning-focused TLIs were similarly or more complex than in some PIs (for example, learners' complexity levels in TLI 4 compared to the PIs). Section Patterns of language performance provides some interactional evidence which suggests that the teacher at the intermediate level, at times, was able to facilitate an interactional space during the TLIs which had a beneficial impact on the learners' fluency and complexity.



Table 7.20. Learners' complexity levels in the intermediate PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	
Clauses per AS-unit	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.01
DC per TC	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.23
Coordination Index	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.43
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; DC per TC=Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses.							

The averages in Tables 7.19 and 7.20 show the learners in the TLIs and PIs at the intermediate level initiated more complex utterances than the basic learners in the TLIs and PIs. Moreover, as with the intermediate learners' fluency, the PIs at the intermediate level show the highest complexity levels across the three proficiency levels. Again, this can be explained by the characteristics of these PIs which required the learners to negotiate choices and reach agreements, influencing high complexity levels. Similar to the intermediate level, the advanced learners constructed a higher number of AS-units and clauses in the PIs than in the TLIs, indicating greater complexity, as detailed below.

Table 7.21. Learners' complexity levels in the advanced TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	AVERAGE
	FORM	FORM	
Clauses per AS-unit	0.8	0.5	0.65
DC per TC	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coordination Index	0.5	0	0.25
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; DC per TC=Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses			

The learners' complexity levels varied considerably in these two TLIs. It is surprising that these complexity levels are lower than the learners' complexity levels in the intermediate and basic TLIs. Again, in order to understand the low complexity levels in these TLIs, the task characteristics can help us explain the results, since learners were required to define verbs constructing no more than one clause or AS-unit. However, as in the case of the fluency levels, it is apparent from Table 7.22 that the learners' utterances in the advanced PIs were constructed with a higher number of AS-units and clauses than in the TLIs, encouraging greater complexity. In particular, PIs 1-3 whose characteristics required the learners to discuss, negotiate choices and reach agreements motivated not only higher fluency but also higher complexity levels than PIs 4-6.

Table 7.22. Learners' complexity levels in the advanced PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	
Clauses per AS-unit	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.98
DC per TC	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.26
Coordination Index	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.05	0.2	0.22
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; DC per TC=Dependent Clauses per Total Clauses.							

In sum, as in the case of fluency, the three complexification and coordination metrics showed variation in terms of complexity levels during the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels. However, the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs tended to promote greater complexity than the form-focused TLIs and PIs. Moreover, the intermediate and advanced PIs which followed a focus on meaning promoted higher levels of com-

plexity than the TLIs. In particular, the six PIs at the intermediate level and PIs 1-3 at the advanced level whose task characteristics required the learners to discuss, negotiate choices and reach agreements motivated the highest complexity levels. These findings thus corroborate that the learners' fluency and complexity were influenced by the focus (meaning or form) and kind (TLI or PI) of interactions and other task characteristics.

### Accuracy

The results in this section confirm the idea that the focus (meaning or form) and kind (TLI or PI) of interactions and other design characteristics of the tasks had a significant impact on the learners' accuracy, as well as fluency and complexity, levels. The following two tables show the learners' accuracy levels in the TLIs and PIs at the basic level:

Table 7.23. Learners' accuracy levels in the basic TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	TLI 5	AVERAGE
	MEANING	FORM	FORM	FORM	MEANING	
Error-free clauses	83.3	72.7	96	93.7	85	86.2
Errors per 100 words	3.9	3.8	1.5	1.9	3.6	2.92
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction.						

As we might expect, Table 7.23 shows that the results of the two accuracy metrics varied considerably across the TLIs. What is interesting from this table is that the meaning-focused TLIs 1 and 5, which involve learners generating fewer error-free clauses and more errors per 100 words, indicate lower accuracy levels than the form-focused TLIs. This interactional

data thus suggests that the learners' utterances during interactions which are focused on meaning can be more fluent and complex, but less accurate than in interactions focused on form, suggesting trade-off effects between fluency and accuracy, and complexity and accuracy. As we shall see in the remainder of this section, the basic learners' accuracy during the above two meaning-focused TLIs appear to be higher than the meaning-focused TLIs and some PIs at the intermediate and advanced levels. In observing the transcribed interactional data, TLIs 1 and 5 at the basic level were seen to be performed after PIs. It is possible that these TLIs functioning as post-tasks, i.e., tasks performed after main tasks, may have enabled the learners to construct utterances that were already rehearsed during the PIs, having an impact on more accurate utterances. A similar pattern of lower accuracy levels in the meaning-focused PIs than in the form-focused PIs is seen in the table below.

Table 7.24. Learners' accuracy levels in the basic PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	FORM	FORM	FORM	
Error-free clauses	30.7	57.1	70	79.0	75.8	82.6	65.9
Errors per 100 words	5.6	6.0	3.9	3.2	3.4	2.2	4.0
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction.							

As in the TLIs, the learners' accuracy levels during the six PIs varied widely. Again, it can be seen lower accuracy levels in the meaning-focused PIs than in the form-focused PIs. In comparing the basic TLIs and PIs, the learners' turns were more accurate in the TLIs than in the PIs. This evidence thus confirms that the focus (meaning or form) and

kind (PI or TLI) of interactions and other design characteristics of tasks (such as post-tasks) influenced the learners' accuracy levels during speaking practice at the basic level.

A similar pattern was found at the basic level during the intermediate TLIs and PIs, the results of which are summarised in the following two tables:

Table 7.25. Learners' accuracy levels in the intermediate TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	AVERAGE
	FORM	MEANING	MEANING	MEANING	
Error-free clauses	88.2	72.3	74.7	60	73.8
Errors per 100 words	1.2	4.0	3.6	6.1	3.7
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction.					

Table 7.25 shows that the learners' accuracy levels in the TLIs vary widely. As at the basic level, the pattern which dominates in these data is that the learners' utterances were less accurate in meaning-focused TLIs than in the form-focused TLI. Moreover, as in the case of the TLIs 1 and 5 at the basic level, the meaning-focused TLIs 2 and 3 that functioned as post-tasks of PIs involved more accurate utterances than the meaning-focused TLI 4 and some PIs (1-3).

Table 7.26. Learners' accuracy levels in the intermediate PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	
Error-free clauses	50	74.7	73.2	78.4	89.9	77.5	73.9
Errors per 100 words	6.8	3.3	4.7	3.1	1.3	3.2	3.7
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction.							

Besides varied levels shown in Table 7.26, it is clear that the learners' utterances were more accurate in PIs 4-6 than in PIs 1-3. In observing the interactional data, it was interesting that the learners during PIs 4-6 were making use of a written text as part of the task implementation which may have had an impact on greater accuracy levels than in PIs 1-3. In Section Patterns of language performance, we provide further evidence from the transcribed data which suggests that the written texts may have played a role in raising the learners' accuracy levels in these PIs (4-6). In comparing the intermediate TLIs and PIs, the averages indicate that the learners' utterances tended to be similarly accurate in both kinds of interactions. Based on this evidence, we thus suggest the possibility that the design characteristics of the tasks in the meaning-focused TLIs 2 and 3 (performed as post-tasks) and PIs 4-6 (during which written aids were provided to learners) may have benefitted the intermediate learners' accuracy during both the TLIs and PIs.

As in the two previous proficiency levels, the learners' accuracy levels during the advanced TLIs and PIs appear to be dependent on the kind and focus of the interactions, as discussed below.

Table 7.27. Learners' accuracy levels in the advanced TLIs

METRIC	TLI 1	TLI 2	AVERAGE
	FORM	FORM	
Error-free clauses	100	100	100
Errors per 100 words	0	0	0
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction			

In Table 7.27, it is evident that the learners' accuracy was not compromised during the two form-focused TLIs. In other words, the learners' utterances were free of errors during the two advanced TLIs. However, Table 7.28 shows that the learners' utterances were considerably less accurate in the meaning-focused PIs than in the form-focused TLIs. It is also apparent that the learners produced less accurate utterances in the PIs 1-3 than 4-6. It is possible that the characteristics of PIs 1-3 during which negotiations of choices involved a greater cognitive processing (see Foster & Skehan, 1996). In order to ease this cognitive load, the learners may have opted to be more fluent and complex (see Tables 7.16 and 7.22), but less accurate than PIs 4-6, during which learners discussed personal information.

Table 7.28. Learners' accuracy levels in the advanced PIs

METRIC	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	MEAN- ING	
Error-free clauses	70.2	71.6	71.9	90.5	89.4	77.5	78.5
Errors per 100 words	4.9	4.5	4.5	1.7	2.2	3.3	3.5
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction.							

Overall, the above metrics show, as expected, that accuracy levels of the basic, intermediate and advanced learners were dependent on the focus (meaning or form) and kind (TLI or PI) of interactions and other task design characteristics (i.e., post-tasks and written aids to discuss). In contrast to the fluency and complexity, the learners' accuracy tended to be lower in the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs. This suggests that there were trade-off effects between fluency and accuracy, and complexity and accuracy. However, it seems possible that the learners' utterances during meaning-focused interactions can be pushed towards greater accuracy, as well as fluency and complexity, when learners are provided with opportunities to perform post-tasks, or manipulate information of tasks (e.g., written texts).

The following section summarises the findings regarding the learners' language performance, and provides further evidence of how 1) the PIs promoted the learners' fluency and complexity; 2) the teachers' use of interactional strategies encouraged greater fluency and complexity in the TLIs; and 3) a written text may have encouraged greater accuracy, fluency and complexity during some meaning-focused PIs.

## Patterns of language performance

Overall, the learners' language performance indicated by fluency, complexity and accuracy levels was found to be varied across the different kind of interactions and proficiency levels. Across the three proficiency levels, the learners' fluency, complexity and accuracy were dependent on the focus (meaning or form), kind (in TLI or PI), and other task design characteristics (i.e., tasks to negotiate choices, task consecutively performed after other tasks, written information about the tasks). Namely, the learners' utterances across proficiency levels were found to be more fluent and complex in the meaning-focused than in the form-focused TLIs and PIs, which required learners to display knowledge of vocabu-



lary (i.e., some basic TLIs and PIs, and one intermediate TLI) and verb definitions (i.e., the two advanced TLIs). Moreover, the intermediate and advanced PIs, which were all focused on meaning, enabled the learners to construct more fluent and complex utterances than the TLIs, during which the classroom discourse was dominated by the three teachers. The following extract illustrates how the meaning-focused PIs played a role in raising the learners' fluency and complexity levels:

Extract 7.5. PI 1 at the intermediate level

9. L2: //The two?// //Yes//
10. L1: the second- ... //the second// ... //there a::re two- ... a: couple// ... //I think// ... //tha:t ... the first one ... they a:: ... boyfriends// ... yes? So:- ... //and the second picture ... they:: got married? // <>... //and ... they:- they have a:: child? // ///a beautiful one/// ... //a::nd ... they become ... fathers// <> ... //a::nd they have many ... responsibilities about the:: child// <> ... and they have to change many things in her- many things// in her- ... //they have ... even worried about her- ... their child//
11. L2: //It's girl? // <> ... //or it's a boy? //
12. L1: //I think <> that is a boy ... yes//
13. L2: //I thi::nk <> ... tha::t they: mi::ght be worried ... about ... her healthy// <> ... //becau::se- ... well ... it's- now the child ... is more im- portant=//
14. L1: =//And they have to:: protect him//=
15. L2: //Yes// (2) a::h //for the third picture// ... //I think <> tha:t it's a:: girl <> who in he:r childhood was a: ... little:: ... a little:: (1) older person// <> ... //but her lifestyle change many many=//
16. L1: //So much?//
17. L2: //Yes// ... a:h ... //for example// ... //as you can see// ... in his- in her childhood ... //she had many: things in her- ... in her ... bedroom?// <> ... //a::nd ... in the other side ... when she become chi- adult <> ... she has to worried about-// ... //I supposed <> she's planning// to:- ... to:-
18. L1: ¿Amueblar?
19. L2: //Yes// ... //to pay the furniture of the:: ... house// <> ... //I think//

Note: T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 7.5, L1 and L2 engage in a meaning-focused PI to interpret some images that were provided by the teacher. Due to the absence of the teachers' dominance over the discourse, it is apparent from these data that the two learners are responsible for the discourse by extending their utterances (turns 10, 13, 15 and 17), initiating questions (turns 11, 16 and 18), and completing (line 14) and following up previous contributions (turns 15 and 16). This extract suggests that the interactional responsibility delegated to the learners in the meaning-focused PIs not only encourages the learners to use a range of interactional strategies, but also promotes their utterances to be more fluent and complex than in TLIs, as indicated by the number of AS-units and clauses. This interactional behaviour is seen to be typical across the meaning-focused PIs at the three proficiency levels, and of particular relevance for the explorations of the FLIs since it suggests that speaking practice in PIs can be environments during which learners practise and develop more fluent and complex utterances.

As pointed out in Sections Fluency and Complexity, the learners' utterances were more fluent and complex in the TLIs at the intermediate level than in the TLIs at the basic and advanced levels. These findings raise concerns as to the basic and advanced learners' opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse and thus push their utterances to be more fluent and complex during speaking practice led by the teachers. However, it seems possible that the teachers can remain in control of the interaction, yet still encourage learner involvement, promoting fluency and complexity, when they develop an understanding of their interactional strategies. This suggestion is illustrated in following extract:

Extract 7.6. A part of TLI 4 at the intermediate level

1. T: Got it? Yes ... guys? Right ... so that was the reading ... uh ... what would you say I mean in general for those of you who read it? Are relationships different?  
[1]
2. L18: //Yeah//
3. T: So ... why do you think they're different L18? It's a general question ... but just give us- share with us one or two examples ... why do you think the relationships in family are not the same all over the world?
4. L18: Hm::: //becau:se [1] so:me people have different ideals ... like i::n Ame:ri-ca// ... //it says in the text// <>... //a:h ... families don't eat together// ... //kids can like have their plates// <> //and go and eat in front of the TV// <> ... //and the parents will be in the living room and stuff like that//
5. T: [...] I think that it's a shame that Britain is becoming much more LIKE THAT right now ... so they are mentioning ... America /whether/ you say in Britain so: what do you say? Do you think ... that's the thing? ... or do you think there's something to do about it? [1] like can we save ... those people from that situation? ... or is it the future of us for that matter?
6. L18: //I think// <> //it could be saved// ...<> //because ... it all depends// <> //o:n [1] or what we think// <> //or what we want// ... //if we want to spend with our family// //if we want to have communication with them// ... //we say// <> //that communication is the best for everything// ... //so if you don't have communication// <> //you can't really have a good relationship with anybody//
7. T: Exactly! Yes ... yes! Yes L1?
8. L1: //Maybe in this one// ... //people is not used to communicate with their family// //that's really sad//
9. T: When there's ... how do you say *una barrera*?
10. LL: //A wall?//
11. T: A wall! Or a barrier [...]
12. L6: Teacher!
13. T: Yes?
14. L6: //It is important to mention// <> //that ... in the:se ... countries where the culture ... is different// ... and //in here in Mexico ... mothers are ... more worried ... about all// ... //and maybe it's not that// ... //these relationships or with the family is that bad// ... it's the- it's this- //it's like this//
15. T: =It's how it works right?
16. L6: //Yes//

Note: T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Learners; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary.

In Extract 7.6, the teacher at the intermediate level initiates a discussion about relationships in other cultures. Extract 7.6 shows that the interaction is controlled by the teacher by allocating the turns (in turns 7 and 13), initiating and asking the questions (in turns 1, 3, 5 and 9), following up the learner utterances (in turns 3, 7, 9 and 15), and extending her oral contributions to share her perceptions (in turn 5). However, the teacher provides the learners with opportunities to participate by using interactional strategies, namely, referential questions (in turns 3 and 5) and follow-up moves (turn 3) which enable the learners to contribute more to the discourse. This in turn appears to have a positive impact on the fluency and complexity of the learners' utterances, as shown in the number of clauses and AS-units in turns 4, 6 and 14. It is also interesting that both L1 and L6 even signal their desire to contribute to the classroom discourse in turns 8 and 12, suggesting that the interactional space is open for learners volunteering oral contributions. This evidence is also of particular importance for the explorations of the FLIs because it suggests that interactional opportunities can be promoted and transferred to learners during TLIs when teachers direct their interactional strategies towards enhancing the classroom interactional space, that is, maximising the interactional opportunities so that learners interact, maintain genuine communication, and contribute more to the teacher-led discourse (Walsh, 2011; see also Walqui, 2006).

Unlike the learners' fluency and complexity, the learners' accuracy tended to be lower in the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs than in form-focused TLIs and PIs across proficiency levels. Moreover, the TLIs at the basic and advanced levels motivated higher levels of accuracy than the PIs. At the intermediate level, the TLIs and PIs promoted almost equal levels of accuracy. What this suggests is that there were trade-off effects between fluency and accuracy, and complexity and accuracy. These trade-off effects thus imply that the focus (form or meaning) and kind (in TLI or PI) of interactions may not always be conducive to promoting learners' fluency, complexity and accuracy equally. However, it is possible that learners' accuracy may be promoted during meaning-focused interactions if learners are allowed to ma-

nipulate certain task design characteristics. This suggestion is supported by the interactional data which showed that the tasks that were performed as post-tasks (i.e., basic TLIs 1 and 5; intermediate TLIs 2 and 3) or provided learners with materials containing written information to be discussed (i.e., intermediate PIs 4-6) benefitted not only fluency and complexity, but also accuracy. The following extract illustrates how the learners' access to written information about the tasks before and during the meaning-focused PIs 4-6 at the intermediate level may have encouraged accuracy:

Extract 7.7. A part of PI 4 at the intermediate level

48. L6: //So ... I don't worry ... about /that thing/// (2) //‘Going abroad’// //‘You are 28 years old <> and working for an insurance ... company// ... //your job ... as a sales rep- representative is well-paid <> ... and hasn't able- ... has enabled you// <> //to take out a mortgage on a smile- on a sma:ll ... house <> ... where you now live with your two dogs// ... //your partner is proud of your success <> ... but you now have begun to feel dissatisfied with the very routine <> ... but languages have always been your passion <> ... and you ... have appli- applied to being accepted for work ... a::s a:: language teacher in China’// //Oh my God!//
49. L7: Well ... //I now identify with this// heheh ... I::- //I think tha::t ... u::m <> ... it's very difficult go abroad <> ... becau:se ... we're always- it's living another life// ... //livi:ng o::ther culture// ... <> //specially if you're working as a language teacher// ... so:: ... //I think <> tha::t- (1) it's a:- ... a:- ... a challenge? ... <> because ... you have to ... be- ... work harder in ... that ... kind ... of style ... of life//
50. L6: //Yes// ... //one of my dream is going abroad// //but ... not alone// ... //I would like to go abroad// //but wi::th- ... probably with my husband// ... a::nd ... but when I ha:ve ... when- ... //when I: have a: work// <> //or enough money to:- to go- to go ahead <> because ... at the moment ... as a student I don't have enough money to do- to do this thing// ... //probably if you go abro- ... if you go abroad// as a- ... as a::= →
51. L7: =//Study?//
52. L6: //To learn// ... //yes// //as a study// ... a:nd- ... or- or //if you know <> that ... you are ... going to:: go- are going to go ... abroad <> ... but you have a:: ... work ... in- in there ... yes in there? In there place?// <> ... //probably you go <> ... because you: ... you have- ... you will have a work// <> //and ... you wi:lll earn money fo:r- for you// ... <> //but ... and got more experience=//

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; // = AS-unit boundary; <> = clause boundary

In Extract 7.7, L6 and L7 discuss a situation written in a text which was provided by the intermediate teacher. In turn 48, L6 reads an imaginary situation about travelling abroad, and starts talking about the situation in the remaining turns. It was observed during these interactions that the learners took some time to read the written situations prior to engaging in the discussions, and returned to the information during the discussions to build or support their opinions. Following the claim that accuracy can be improved when learners are provided with opportunities to manipulate task information and conditions (Skehan, 2003), it is possible that these written texts allowed the learners to plan their utterances and manipulate the information of the tasks, promoting accuracy. This evidence is relevant for the purpose of exploring the FLIs because it suggests that the speaking practice following a focus on meaning approach can benefit fluency, complexity and accuracy if teachers develop an understanding of the interactions and task characteristics.

## Discourse functions

In order to explore the extent to which the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels promoted discourse functions, this section discusses the results of learners' use of discourse functions during the speaking practice at each proficiency level. Despite recent movements to promote learner-centred teaching and learning practices in the language classroom, the data in Table 7.29 indicate that the use of discourse functions was dominated by the teachers during the FLIs at the three proficiency levels (a percentage range from 61.3% to 84.8%).

Table 7.29. Total number of discourse functions in the FLIs

LEVEL	TEACHER TALK	LEARNER TALK	TOTAL
Basic	391 (73.7%)	139 (26.2%)	530
Intermediate	334 (61.3%)	210 (38.6%)	544
Advanced	236 (84.8%)	42 (15.1%)	278

In contrast, the learners initiated a lower number of discourse functions than the teachers (a percentage range of 15.1% to 38.6%). These results can be explained by the teachers' dominance over classroom talk and a reliance on display questions, discussed in Section Questions and responses, which limited the learners' opportunities to contribute to the discourse and thus initiate a range of discourse functions. From this table, it is interesting to note that the intermediate learners used the highest number of discourse functions across proficiency levels. At the end of this section, we shall provide and discuss interactional evidence which may explain the intermediate learners' greater use of discourse functions than the basic and advanced learners.

In order to explore, in greater depth, the number and range of discourse functions that the learners utilised during speaking practice in the TLIs and PIs, 17 discourse functions were measured at the three proficiency levels. For practicality reasons, the tables summarise in order of frequency the discourse functions that were initiated during the TLIs and PIs. The following two tables outline the learners' discourse functions in the TLIs and PIs at the basic level:

Table 7.30. Discourse functions in the basic TLIs

FUNCTIONS	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	TLI 5	AVERAGE
	MEAN- ING	FORM	FORM	FORM	MEAN- ING	
Provides an example	1 (7.1%)	0 (0%)	27 (90%)	34 (91.8%)	0 (0%)	12.4
Explains/gives info.	6 (42.8%)	14 (58.3%)	3 (10%)	2 (5.4%)	14 (66.6%)	7.8
Jokes	0 (0%)	7 (29.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (14.2%)	2.0
Confirms	1 (7.1%)	2 (8.3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (19%)	1.4
Hypothesises	5 (37.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1.0
Gives instructions	1 (7.1%)	1 (4.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.4
Extends a previous contrib.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.7%)	0 (0%)	0.2
Total	14	24	30	37	21	25.2

Table 7.30 shows that the basic learners initiated a range of seven discourse functions in the TLIs. In particular, the learners mostly utilised the discourse functions: 1) *provides an example*, 2) *explains/gives information*, 3) *jokes* and 4) *confirms*. As detailed in Table 7.31, it is interestingly that the PIs provided the learners with opportunities to initiate a greater number and range of discourse functions than the TLIs.



Table 7.31. Discourse functions in the basic PIs

FUNCTIONS	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
Provides an example	4 (6.7%)	4 (10%)	9 (28.1%)	37 (33.9%)	44 (48.3%)	25 (27.4%)	20.5
Explains/ gives info.	17 (28.8%)	16 (40%)	11 (34.3%)	15 (13.7%)	14 (15.3%)	30 (32.9%)	17.16
Extends a pre. contrib.	0 (0%)	13 (32.5%)	0 (0%)	19 (17.4%)	12 (13.1%)	16 (17.5%)	10.0
Negates	14 (23.7%)	0 (0%)	5 (15.6%)	12 (11%)	5 (5.4%)	0 (0%)	6.0
Confirms	1 (1.6%)	6 (15%)	1 (3.1%)	8 (7.3%)	8 (8.7%)	8 (8.7%)	5.33
Moves conv. on to t/a	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (12.5%)	5 (4.5%)	6 (6.5%)	5 (5.4%)	3.33
Hypothe- sises	16 (27.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2.66
Makes an observation	4 (6.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (7.3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2.0
Defines	0 (0%)	2 (5%)	0 (0%)	4 (3.6%)	0 (0%)	3 (3.2%)	1.5
Summarises or ends d/t	0 (0%)	1 (2.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.16

The data in Table 7.31 indicate that ten different discourse functions were initiated during the basic PIs. Across the PI datasets, the most frequent discourse functions were 1) *provides an example*, 2) *explains/gives information*, 3) *extends a previous contribution*, 4) *negates* and 5) *confirms*. In comparing the discourse functions between the basic TLIs and PIs, the tables reveal that the learners' utterances during the PIs involved not only a greater number, but also a greater range of discourse functions than during the TLIs, as indicated by a percentage average of 70.33 dis-

course functions per PI compared to 25.2 discourse functions per TLI. This can be explained by the absence of the teacher's dominance over the foreign classroom discourse during the PIs which delegated greater responsibility for the discourse to the learners. This responsibility, defined as an agentive interactional role of learners, involved a greater range of learners' interactional strategies and discourse moves, which had an impact on the learners' use of discourse functions during the PIs. At the end of this section, we provide some interactional evidence which suggests that this was the case across the PIs.

A similar pattern is found in Tables 7.32 and 7.33 which outline the learners' discourse functions at the intermediate level.

Table 7.32. Discourse functions in the intermediate TLIs

FUNCTIONS	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	AVERAGE
Explains/gives info.	12 (27.9%)	21 (56.7%)	38 (39.5%)	9 (60%)	20.0
Provides an example	22 (51.1%)	2 (5.4%)	20 (20.8%)	0 (0%)	11.0
Confirms	2 (4.6%)	4 (10.8%)	19 (19.7%)	2 (13.3%)	6.75
Negates	5 (11.6%)	7 (18.9%)	7 (7.2%)	2 (13.3%)	5.25
Jokes	0 (0%)	3 (8.1%)	11 (11.4%)	1 (6.6%)	3.75
Extends a previous contrib.	2 (4.6%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.0%)	0 (0%)	0.75
Defines	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (6.6%)	0.25
Total	43	37	96	15	47.75

As in the TLIs at the basic level, the TLIs promoted the use a range of seven discourse functions. The learners' dominant discourse functions were 1) explains/gives information, 2) provides an example and 3) confirms. In comparing the use of discourse functions at the three proficiency levels, it is apparent that the number of discourse functions in the TLIs at the intermediate level is higher than the TLIs at the basic and advanced levels. Similar to the basic level, the learners' turns involved a greater number and range of discourse functions in the PIs than in the TLIs (see a percentage average of 54.66 discourse functions per PI compared to 47.75 discourse functions per TLI), as shown in Table 7.33.

Table 7.33. Discourse functions in intermediate PIs

FUNCTIONS	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
Explains/ gives info.	17 (37.7%)	19 (44.1%)	25 (39%)	17 (34.6%)	30 (46.8%)	34 (53.9%)	23.66
Negates	4 (8.8%)	7 (16.2%)	2 (3.1%)	10 (20.4%)	4 (6.2%)	10 (15.8%)	6.16
Confirms	5 (11.1%)	5 (11.6%)	10 (15.6%)	6 (12.2%)	5 (10.2%)	4 (6.3%)	5.83
Makes an obs.	0 (0%)	5 (11.6%)	9 (14%)	3 (6.1%)	9 (14%)	7 (11.1%)	5.5
Hypothe- sises	13 (28.8%)	2 (4.6%)	10 (15.6%)	2 (4%)	3 (4.6%)	0 (0%)	5.0
Extends a prev. cont.	3 (6.6%)	2 (4.6%)	3 (4.6%)	4 (8.1%)	4 (6.2%)	4 (6.3%)	3.33
Moves conv.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (10.2%)	4 (6.2%)	1 (1.5%)	1.66
Provides an example	1 (2.2%)	3 (6.9%)	2 (3.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.5%)	3 (4.7%)	1.66
Interrupts	1 (2.2%)	0 (0%)	2 (3.1%)	0 (0%)	4 (6.2%)	2 (3.1%)	1.5
Completes	1 (2.2%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.33
Defines	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.33
Total	45	43	64	49	64	63	54.66

Table 7.33 shows that the intermediate learners initiated a range of 11 discourse functions during the intermediate PIs. Specifically, the most recurrent discourse functions were 1) *explains/gives information*, 2) *negates*, 3) *confirms*, 4) *makes an observation* and 5) *hypothesises*.

As at the basic and intermediate levels, a pattern of greater number and range of discourse functions is found in the PIs than in the TLIs, as shown in Tables 7.34 and 7.35.

Table 7.34. Discourse functions in the advanced TLIs

FUNCTIONS	TLI 1	TLI 2	AVERAGE
Defines	0 (0%)	6 (35.2%)	3.0
Jokes	4 (25%)	1 (5.8%)	2.5
Provides an example	4 (25%)	1 (5.8%)	2.5
Negates	3 (18.7%)	2 (11.7%)	2.5
Confirms	1 (6.2%)	3 (17.6%)	2.0
Extends a previous contribution	2 (12.5%)	2 (11.7%)	2.0
Explains/gives information	2 (12.5%)	2 (11.7%)	2.0
Total	16	17	16.5

Table 7.34 shows that the learners utilised a range of seven discourse functions in the two TLIs at the advanced level. The most frequent discourse functions that the learners initiated were 1) *defines*, 2) *jokes*, 3) *provides an example*, and 4) *negates*. Across proficiency levels, the advanced learners' turns in the TLIs involved the lowest number of discourse functions. As previously discussed, this low incidence of discourse functions can be explained by a focus on form of these TLIs which required the learners to explain and define verbs, thus limiting their use of discourse functions. However, as at the basic and intermediate levels, the advanced learners' turns in the PIs involved a greater number and range of dis-

course functions than the TLLs (as indicated by a percentage average of 109.1 discourse functions per PI compared to 16.5 discourse functions per TLL), as detailed in Table 7.35.

Table 7.35. Discourse functions in advanced PIs

FUNCTIONS	PI 1	PI 2	PI 3	PI 4	PI 5	PI 6	AVERAGE
Explains/ gives info.	50 (35.2%)	51 (32.4%)	53 (34.8%)	17 (36.1%)	29 (35.3%)	32 (42.6%)	38.6
Makes an obs.	27 (19%)	24 (15.2%)	33 (21.7%)	9 (19.1%)	13 (15.8%)	16 (21.3%)	20.3
Confirms	16 (11.2%)	21 (13.3%)	20 (13.1%)	2 (4.2%)	6 (7.3%)	3 (4%)	11.3
Provides an example	0 (0%)	18 (11.4%)	15 (9.8%)	10 (21.2%)	14 (17%)	6 (8%)	10.5
Extends a prev. con.	14 (9.8%)	14 (8.9%)	6 (3.9%)	2 (4.2%)	3 (3.6%)	6 (8%)	7.5
Negates	17 (11.9%)	10 (6.3%)	4 (2.6%)	1 (2.1%)	3 (3.6%)	5 (6.6%)	6.6
Moves conv.	8 (5.6%)	7 (4.4%)	8 (5.2%)	4 (8.5%)	5 (6%)	1 (1.3%)	5.5
Interrupts	3 (2.1%)	2 (1.2%)	9 (5.9%)	0 (0%)	2 (2.4%)	5 (6.6%)	3.5
Hypothe- sises	6 (4.2%)	5 (3.1%)	1 (0.6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2
Completes	0 (0%)	3 (1.9%)	3 (1.9%)	0 (0%)	3 (3.6%)	1 (1.3%)	1.6
Defines	1 (0.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.1%)	2 (2.4%)	0 (0%)	0.6
Speaks simult.	0 (0%)	2 (1.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (2.4%)	0 (0%)	0.6
Praises or encour.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.1
Total	142	157	152	47	82	75	109.1

As shown in Table 7.35, the advanced learners' turns in the PIs involved a range of 13 out of 17 discourse functions. The most recurrent discourse functions were 1) *explains/gives information*, 2) *makes an observation*, 3) *confirms* and 4) *provides an example*. The data in the advanced PIs indicate that the opportunity for the advanced learners to utilise a greater number and range of discourse functions was enhanced during the PIs.

As indicated by the above results, the three teachers dominated the number and range of discourse functions during the FLIs and TLIs across proficiency levels. This can be explained by the teachers' role in carrying out their activities and particularly their dominance over the discourse. This interactional dominance in turn enabled them to initiate a greater quantity and range of discourse functions than the learners. During the PIs, the learners at the three proficiency levels were found to utilise a greater number and range of discourse functions than the TLIs. The following extract illustrates how the PIs typically facilitated the learners with the opportunity to initiate a wider range of discourse functions than the TLIs:

18. L9: //I think// <> //that to you: and to everybody like ... is in this moment ... o:r is in this ... period of their lives// (1) <> //becau:se also I'm having those kind of problems ... o:r ... that kind of questions// <> //becau:se ... I don't know// <> //if I am going to stay here in Mexico// ... o:r //I am going to leave heheheh to another country:// ... //for example if I want to leave to ... the United States or Canada: ... or England// ... //I have to work harder// ... <> a::nd //we'll be a:l like (1) MOre stressful than- ... than now// <> //because ... I will live all alone ... no family near//  
(1)
19. L10: //No boyfriend=//
20. L9: //Boyfriend//! Heheh ... //no nothing// ... and //there is like a different culture// →
21. L10: //Yes//
22. L9: //Another language// (2) //another lifestyle// (3) and //it's very difficult// <> //to think about this in the future//
23. L10: //But you are now// <> //like looking forward to live in- in- to work abroad?//
24. L9: //Yes//
25. L10: //Are you doing something to get? To do that?//
26. L9: //Yes// ... //my: mothe:r has a friend ... who lives there?//
27. L10: //Where?//
28. L9: //To the United States ... in Place 1// ... //so:: she:: i::s offering me// <> //to live there and work there// ... and-
29. L10: //As a teacher?//
30. L9: //Uh-huh// ... heheheh ... and maybe I would- //I still study in there// ... I need- //I want another major?// ///Yes ... like psychology// (2) a:nd //maybe ... I could do both// ... it look like=
31. L10: //Psychologist?//
32. L9: Heheheh (2) //that was- that was ... one of my options ... like first languages and then ... psychology// ... bu::t-
33. L10: //Would you like to get a master?//
34. L9: //Yes!//

In Extract 7.8, L9 and L10 initiate a discussion about life stages. Because of the absence of the teacher's control, the learners are delegated responsibility of the interaction. This interactional responsibility encourages them to extend their oral contributions to share their perceptions (turns 18 and 30), ask each other referential questions (turns 23, 25, 27, 29, 31 and 33), and follow up previous responses (turns 19, 21, 25, 27, 29, and 31). It seems that this responsibility over the discourse has an impact on the learners' fluency and complexity levels and the use of discourse functions, such as *explains/gives information* (turns 18, 20, 22, 26, 28, 30 and 32), *negates* (turn 20), *confirms* (turns 21, 24, 26, 30 and 34), and the like. This suggests that peer-led speaking practice can promote the development of learners' fluency and complexity and possibly a discourse competence. However, the above results in turn reveal the limitations of the TLIs as to the learners' opportunities to initiate a range of discourse functions during speaking practice.

As previously noted, the intermediate learners' turns involved the greatest number of discourse functions during the FLIs and TLIs. The following extract illustrates how the interactional opportunities created by the intermediate teacher allowed the learners to utilise a range of discourse functions, and suggests how teachers may use interactional strategies towards enhancing the interactional space during TLIs which enables learners to utilise a range of discourse functions:



Extract 7.9. Question-answer patterns in the FLI at the intermediate level  
(Garcia Ponce, 2017)

77. T: L13 and uh ... L14? Everybody has to tell me something huh? ... so prepare your speech [2]
78. L13: //At the first sight I stand for the: ... relationship between the:: ... employer and employee// <> //but then I changed my mind// <> ... //because she told me// <> //that the relationship between ... parents and children is better//
79. L14: //Parents and children//
80. T: Any plans for the future in your case? ... You know marriage? Family?
81. L13: //Maybe// heheheh.
82. T: Maybe?
83. LL: [Laugh]
84. L13: //I don't know exactly//
85. T: You don't know exactly ... what about you L14?
86. L14 //In my case ... I think// <> //that the best ... relationship is parents and children- is between parents and children//
87. T: That's what people say yes=
88. L14: =//Yeah// ... //In my case ... I think// <> that if you- //if you don't have a communication? With your childrens// <> ... //they don't have /confense/? Confidence ... in you//

*Note:* T=Teacher; L?=Unidentified Learner; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 7.9, the teacher and learners discuss relationships between parents and children. It is apparent from this extract the teacher's intentions to encourage the learners' oral production by initiating several questions to the same learners (turns 77, 80, 82 and 85) and following up the interaction (turns 82, 85 and 87). As the teacher motivates the learners' oral production through these moves, a greater number and range of discourse functions are initiated, such as discourse functions to *explain* (turns 77, 84, 86 and 88), *make an observation* (line 78), and *hypothesise* (line 88). This interactional evidence adds weight to the argument that the teachers can remain in control of the interaction, yet still use their interactional strategies towards enhancing the interactional space and thus promote not only learners' fluency and complexity, but also a range of discourse functions during the speaking practice.

## Negotiations of meaning

The last section of this chapter examines the extent to which negotiations of meaning occurred during the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels. The results are summarised in tables, which include 1) the occurrence of negotiation moves, 2) the total number of negotiations of meaning, and 3) the negotiations of meaning per minute. Overall, the findings indicate that the negotiations of meaning were scarce during the foreign classroom discourse at the three proficiency levels, and triggered by certain negotiation moves. The following two tables summarise the negotiations of meaning and moves during the TLIs and PIs at the basic level:

Table 7.36. Negotiations of meaning in the basic TLIs

MOVE	TLI <sub>1</sub>	TLI <sub>2</sub>	TLI <sub>3</sub>	TLI <sub>4</sub>	TLI <sub>5</sub>	AVERAGE
Confirmation Check	2	1	6	1	1	2.2
Clarification Request	2	1	1	4	1	1.8
Comprehension Check	0	1	1	2	0	0.8
Corrective repetition	0	2	0	2	1	1.0
Recast	0	0	1	0	1	0.4
No. of moves	4	5	9	9	4	6.2
NoMs	3	3	8	5	2	4.2
NoM per minute	2.2	0.5	1.0	0.9	0.7	1.0
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; NoM=Negotiation of meaning.						

Table 7.36 shows that the negotiations of meaning occurred from two to eight during the TLIs, a range of 0.7 to 2.2 negotiations of meaning per minute. In these basic TLIs, meaning was negotiated through confirmation checks, clarification requests and corrective repetitions. Across these TLIs, comprehension checks did not initiate any negotiation work due to its function as discourse marker rather than to trigger negotiations. Negotiations of meaning involving corrective repetitions tended to be frequent during the basic TLIs. It is possible that the teacher at this proficiency level was compelled to correct the learners' turns by repeating their contributions due to the learners' beginner level. However, as we shall see, these negotiation moves were absent during the TLIs and PIs at the intermediate and advanced levels. Negotiations of meaning involving recasts were the scarcest in the TLIs at the basic level. In the case of the

PIs, Table 7.37 shows an increase of negotiations of meaning compared to the TLIs (an average of 1.5 negotiations of meaning per minute in the PIs compared to 1.0 negotiations of meaning per minute in the TLIs).

Table 7.37. Negotiations of meaning in the basic PIs

MOVE	PI <sub>1</sub>	PI <sub>2</sub>	PI <sub>3</sub>	PI <sub>4</sub>	PI <sub>5</sub>	PI <sub>6</sub>	AVERAGE
Confirmation Check	4	5	6	7	5	12	6.5
Clarification Request	2	4	2	14	7	6	5.8
Comprehension Check	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Corrective repetition	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Recast	0	4	2	4	1	0	1.8
No. of moves	6	13	10	25	13	18	14.16
NoMs	4	8	8	13	12	13	9.6
NoM per minute	1.2	1.3	2.8	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; NoM=Negotiation of meaning.							

Learners in the PIs engaged in four to 13 negotiations of meaning, a range of 1.2 to 2.8 negotiations of meaning per minute. As in the TLIs, the negotiations of meaning were mostly initiated by confirmation checks and clarification requests. Interestingly, the learners performed a higher number of recasts during the PIs than the TLIs, during which the teachers may have avoided them in order to maintain the learners' face. In these PIs, negotiations of meaning involving comprehension checks and corrective repetitions were absent.

Unlike the basic TLIs and PIs, Tables 7.38 and 7.39 show that the intermediate learners engaged in a greater number of negotiations of meaning in the TLIs than in the PIs (an average of 1.1 negotiations of meaning per minute during the TLIs compared to 0.5 negotiations of meaning per minute during the PIs).

Table 7.38. Negotiations of meaning in the intermediate TLIs

MOVE	TLI 1	TLI 2	TLI 3	TLI 4	AVERAGE
Confirmation Check	8	7	10	1	6.5
Clarification Request	4	5	6	4	4.7
Comprehension Check	0	0	3	4	1.7
Corrective repetition	0	0	0	0	0
Recast	0	1	2	0	0.7
No. of moves	12	13	21	9	13.7
NoMs	9	10	13	4	9.0
NoM per minute	1.4	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.1
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; NoM=Negotiation of meaning.					

Table 7.38 shows that the teacher and learners engaged in a range of 1.0 to 1.4 negotiations of meaning per minute in the TLIs. As in the TLIs at the basic level, most of these negotiations of meaning involved a greater number of confirmation checks and clarification requests than comprehension checks. Negotiations of meaning involving corrective repetitions and recasts were not frequent in the TLIs at the intermediate level.

Table 7.39. Negotiations of meaning in the intermediate PIs

MOVE	PI <sub>1</sub>	PI <sub>2</sub>	PI <sub>3</sub>	PI <sub>4</sub>	PI <sub>5</sub>	PI <sub>6</sub>	AVERAGE
Confirmation Check	3	5	3	7	5	4	4.5
Clarification Request	2	1	0	1	2	5	1.8
Comprehension Check	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Corrective repetition	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Recast	4	0	0	0	1	0	0.8
No. of moves	9	6	3	8	8	9	7.1
NoMs	7	6	3	7	7	7	6.1
NoM per minute	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; NoM=Negotiation of meaning.							

Table 7.39 shows that the learners in the PIs engaged in three to seven negotiations of meaning, 0.3 to 0.8 negotiations of meaning per minute. Again, these negotiations of meaning were mostly triggered by confirmation checks and clarification requests. As in the PIs at the basic level, there is a slight increase of recasts during the PIs compared to the TLIs at the intermediate level. Moreover, comprehension checks and corrective repetitions were absent in these PIs. As shown above, the TLIs at the intermediate level promoted a greater number of negotiations of meaning than the PIs, and the TLIs at the basic and advanced levels (see below).

Table 7.40. Negotiations of meaning in the advanced TLIs

MOVE	TLI <sub>1</sub>	TLI <sub>2</sub>	AVERAGE
Confirmation Check	1	0	0.5
Clarification Request	0	0	0
Comprehension Check	0	7	3.5
Corrective repetition	0	0	0
Recast	0	0	0
No. of moves	1	7	4
NoMs	1	0	0.5
NoM per minute	0.5	0	0.2
<i>Note:</i> TLI=Teacher-Led interaction; NoM=Negotiation of meaning.			

At the advanced level, Table 7.40 shows that the teacher and learners in the TLIs engaged in only one negotiation of meaning.

Table 7.41. Negotiations of meaning in the advanced PIs

MOVE	PI <sub>1</sub>	PI <sub>2</sub>	PI <sub>3</sub>	PI <sub>4</sub>	PI <sub>5</sub>	PI <sub>6</sub>
Confirmation Check	3	2	2	2	5	5
Clarification Request	2	3	0	2	1	3
Comprehension Check	0	0	0	0	0	0
Corrective repetition	0	0	0	0	0	0
Recast	0	3	1	0	0	0
No. of moves	5	8	3	4	6	0
NoMs	5	7	3	4	5	4
NoM per minute	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.6
<i>Note:</i> PI=Peer interaction; NoM=Negotiation of meaning.						

The negotiation of meaning triggered in TLI 1 involved one confirmation check. As pointed out previously, the seven comprehension checks did not initiate any negotiations of meaning due to their function as discourse markers. However, the number of negotiations of meaning increased during the PIs, as shown below.

Table 7.41 shows that the advanced learners engaged in three to seven negotiations of meaning, 0.2 to 0.7 negotiations of meaning per minute. As at the basic and intermediate levels, these negotiations of meaning mostly involved confirmation checks (an average of 3.1 per PI), clarification requests (an average of 1.8 per PI), and recasts (an average of 0.6 per PI). In comparing the PIs across proficiency levels, it is evident that the advanced learners engaged in a lower number of negotiations of meaning than the basic and intermediate learners (for example, an average of 4.6 negotiations of meaning per PI at the advanced level compared to 9.6 negotiations of meaning per PI at the basic level and 6.1 negotiations of meaning per PI at the intermediate level). The immediate issue that emerges from these findings is that the advanced learners during speaking practice in both TLIs and PIs had the most limited opportunities to engage in negotiations of meaning across proficiency levels.

The following section summarises the findings into the negotiations of meaning at the three proficiency levels, and provide further evidence which 1) illustrates the nature of the negotiations of meaning across the proficiency levels; 2) explains the incidence of recasts in the PIs and function of comprehension checks as discourse markers; and 3) suggests how teachers may possibly promote greater negotiations of meaning during TLIs.

### *Nature and patterns of negotiations of meaning*

The interactional data indicated that the learners at the three proficiency levels engaged in 0 to 13 negotiations of meaning, ranging from 0 to 2.8 negotiations of meaning per minute. This evidence indicates that the ne-



gotiations of meaning across proficiency levels were varied but generally low. In comparing the kind (PI or TLI) of interactions, the PIs at the basic and advanced level promoted a higher number of negotiations of meaning than the TLIs. In contrast, the learners at the intermediate level engaged in a greater number of negotiations of meaning in the TLIs than in the PIs. Across the interactional data, the most dominant negotiation moves were confirmation checks and clarification requests. Negotiations of meaning involving recasts tended to be initiated during the PIs. In the case of the intermediate and advanced levels, the least frequent negotiations of meaning in both TLIs and PIs were those that involved corrective repetitions. As pointed out in the previous section, comprehension checks were not found to initiate any negotiation of meaning across the data. The following extract illustrates how the teachers typically initiated these moves during speaking practice across the data:

Extract 7.10. Comprehension checks in TLI 2 at the advanced level

28. T: [...] //what's the difference between 'siesta' and 'snooze'?//  
[2]
29. L5: //The first factor ... it's intentionally//
30. T: //It is intentional// and //it is usually a habit [1]// okay? [1] // so we can say// <> //that you usually have a siesta every day after lunch// ... //well you have a siesta after lunch L4?//
31. L4: //Yes//
32. LL: Heheheheheh.
33. T: //And 'snooze' is probably one day// <> //that you feel tired// ... //you snooze ... okay? Well 'snore'?// [2] //it's to make these sounds// heheh okay? //And I remember another word 'to sleep walk'// [T writes the expression on the board]
34. L5: Ah!

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; // =AS-unit boundary; <> =clause boundary

In Extract 7.10, the advanced teacher and learners define and explain some verbs related to sleeping habits. As shown in turns 30 and 33, the teacher explains the meaning of *siesta* and *snooze*. In these turns, the teacher contributes with several ‘okay?’ expressions which appear to check the learners’ comprehension of meanings. However, none of these checks triggered negotiations of meaning. Instead, it seems that they served the purpose of organising and managing what the teachers were saying. That is, comprehension checks like the above functioned as discourse markers rather than moves that triggered negotiations of meaning.

In exploring the nature of the negotiations of meaning across the proficiency levels, the interactional data showed that this interactional work was typically performed at word level. That is, the teachers and learners negotiated the meaning or pronunciation of individual words or phrases rather than content or grammar structures. The following two extracts illustrate how the teachers and learners during the TLIs and learners during the PIs typically engaged in negotiations of meaning at word level:

Extract 7.11. A negotiation of meaning in TLI 2 at the basic level

13. T: And- and probably ... a taxi ... //and probably a taxi// ... good ...  
//so let's move on to exercise 2// ... //what are the instructions L6?//
14. L6: ((4))
15. T: //Speak up L6// ... //again but speak up//
16. L6: //Listen egain// →
17. T: //LisTEN!//
18. L6: //Listen egain//→
19. T: //Again!//
20. L6: //Again// ... //complete the sentence with words ... from the box//
21. T: //Ok// ... //let's look at the words ... from the box// ... //you have ... 'a man'by bus// ... what else?//

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 7.11, a negotiation of meaning is triggered in turns 16 and 18 by L6's mispronunciation of the words *listen again*. In turns 17 and 19, the teacher corrects the learner's mispronunciation by repeating her words. In turn 21, the negotiation of meaning finishes with the teacher's signal of acceptance. In Extract 7.11 (below), L4 triggers a negotiation of meaning in turn 227 as a result of her lack of knowledge of the word *saco* in English. In turns 228 and 229, L13 provides L4 with the unknown word. The negotiation of meaning finishes with L4 repeating and taking up the word.

Extract 7.12. A negotiation of meaning during an intermediate PI

227. L4: Wear- //wear u:h ... *saco*?//

228. L13: //Blazer?//

229. L4: //Blazer?//

230. L13: //Yeah//

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction//=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

As shown in the above extracts, the teacher and learners during speaking practice engaged in negotiations of meaning that involved adjustments of mispronunciations or a lack of knowledge regarding individual words or expressions. This limited nature of negotiations of meaning in the classroom discourse has been also reported in other empirical studies (Foster, 1998; Foster & Ohta, 2005; Naughton, 2006). These previous studies suggest that this nature, as well as scarcity, of negotiations of meaning may be a consequence of teachers' and learners' perceptions of them as face-threatening or a sign of incompetence. This suggestion may in turn explain the scarcity of corrective repetitions during negotiations of meaning across the datasets, and the greater number of recasts during the PIs than the TLIs, during which the teachers and learners may have perceived them as face-threat-

ening. The following extract illustrates how the learners in PIs for speaking practice typically engaged in negotiating meaning through recasts.

Extract 7.13. A recast during intermediate PI 1

15. L2: //Yes// (2) a:h //for the third picture// ... //I think// <> //that it's a: girl <> who in he:r childhood was a: ... little:: ... a little:: (1) older person// <> ... //but her lifestyle changed many many=//
16. L1: //So much?//
17. L2: //Yes// ... a:h ... //for example// ... //as you can see// ... in his- in her childhood ... //she had many: things in her- ... in her ... bedroom?// <> ... //a:nd ... in the other side ... when she become chi- adult <> ... she has to worried about-// ... //I supposed// <> //she's planning// to:- ... to:-

Note: L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 7.13, L2 describes a picture in turn 15, and incorrectly said her *lifestyle changed many many* which L1 re-structures in turn 16. The negotiation of meaning finishes with L2 signalling comprehension in turn 17. As illustrated in Extract 7.13, the learners during the PIs were able to correct each other implicitly, as also reported in Foster and Ohta (2005). It is possible that the intimacy and less face-threatening environment of the PIs may have encouraged the learners to correct each other's utterances involving recasts. What this suggests is that the PIs provided learners with an interactional environment which enabled them to engage in negotiations of meaning which pushed their utterances towards greater accuracy. This evidence, alongside the evidence that the PIs at the basic and advanced levels promoted a greater number of negotiations of meaning than the TLIs, suggests that the PIs need to be promoted during speaking practice. However, the evidence in turn reveals limitations of the TLIs concerning opportunities for the learners to negotiate meaning and push their utterances

towards greater comprehensibility and accuracy. In the next chapter, we shall discuss how the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs about negative feedback compelled the teachers to avoid providing this information during the TLIs, suggesting that the negotiations of meaning involving explicit negative feedback may have been hindered by their belief systems.

The scarcity and limited nature of the negotiations of meaning raise the need to assist the teachers and learners in promoting negotiations of meaning during teacher- and peer-led speaking practice. Regarding the former kind of speaking practice, it seems possible that negotiations of meaning are promoted when teachers enhance the interactional space, as illustrated in the following extract:

Extract 7.14. Negotiations of meaning in TLI 2 at the intermediate level

54. T: L7 is there something you would like to share? You have- what do you have? Dogs? Cats?
55. L7: Turtle.
56. T: A turtle? ... So what's the relationship like with a turtle?
57. LL: [Laugh]
58. T: I mean!- ... It has always intrigued me gi:rls!
59. L7: I:t's nice ... because em ... for example when I fee:d it ... he starts to- [1] I don't know how do you say /hit the water/?
60. T: Yes
61. L1: *Patalear*.
62. T: To KICK.
63. L7: To kick the water and sounds a::h ... a:nd you walk around the [1] pecera? How do you say *pecera*?
64. T: The: water tank?
65. L7: The water tank and he- he swims with you ... and it's- I like it and=
66. T: Really. =Can you pet that thing? You know like a dog?
67. L7: E::m=
68. T: =It's different right? ... Like people who have fish ... I'm like 'what do you do with fish? [LL laugh] You just=

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; /=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

In Extract 7.14, the teacher initiates a TLI during which the teacher and L7 discuss relationships with pets. It is apparent from this extract that the teachers' main intention was to encourage the learner's oral contributions, as shown in the number of turns initiated by L7 (turns 55, 59, 63 and 65), the long and complex utterances (turns 59, 63 and 65), and a range of discourse functions to respond (turns 55, 59, 63 and 65), explain (turns 59, 63 and 65), exemplify (line 59), and ask questions (turns 59 and 63). What is interesting from this extract is that L7 in turns 59 and 63 signals his lack of knowledge of the words *patalear* and *pecera* in English. The teacher in turns 62 and 64 provides the words required so that the communication is re-established, as shown in turns 63 and 65. Again, by developing an understanding of their interactional strategies and thus enhancing the interactional space during TLIs, it is possible that the teachers not only promote the learners' language performance and discourse competence, but also the initiation of negotiations of meaning. Negotiations of meaning may also be promoted if the teachers and learners become aware of the importance of negotiating meaning for developing learners' speaking skills (Naughton, 2006). This suggestion will be discussed later in this study.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter Seven presented the analysis of the interactional data which was facilitated by the interactional strategies covered in the FISFLI. The general aim of the chapter was to explore the nature of the interactions at the three proficiency levels, and examine how their nature had an impact on learner talk. In the first part of the chapter, the interactional data indicated that the FLIs and TLIs, during which speaking was practised, were considerably dominated by the teachers at the three proficiency levels. Namely, the three teachers dominated the classroom discourse in terms of interactional strategies (i.e., initiation and feedback moves, exchanges

to elicit learners' information, and display questions) and amount of talk (i.e., turn length and number of words). The learners were mostly given the opportunity to construct short oral contributions, and respond to the teachers' display questions which did not benefit fluency and complexity.

The second part of the chapter explored how the nature of the interactions (i.e., a focus on meaning or form, in TLI or PI, and other task characteristics) had an impact on the learners' interactional behaviour during speaking practice, as summarised in Table 7.42. Table 7.42 firstly shows that the meaning-focused interactions promoted higher fluency and complexity levels, but lower accuracy levels than the form-focused interactions, suggesting trade-off effects between fluency and accuracy, and complexity and accuracy. At the intermediate and advanced levels, the (meaning-focused) PIs promoted the highest fluency and complexity levels across the datasets, but in terms of accuracy, the TLIs at the three proficiency levels tended to raise the levels of learners' accuracy. At the basic and advanced levels, this can be explained by the focus on form of some TLIs at these proficiency levels which tended to promote accuracy. In the case of the intermediate level, the accuracy levels were similarly high in both TLIs and PIs. It is possible that the opportunities that the learners had to perform post-tasks (TLIs after PIs), and to manipulate information of tasks before and during some PIs had an impact not only on fluency and complexity, but also on accuracy in both TLIs and PIs focused on meaning. Secondly, the table shows that the teachers at the three proficiency levels dominated the discourse functions during the FLIs and TLIs. In contrast, the PIs appeared to have provided the learners with an interactional space which enabled them to initiate a greater quantity and quality of discourse functions than the TLIs. Thirdly, the number of negotiations of meaning was considerably varied, generally low and centred on individual forms during speaking practice in both TLIs and PIs across proficiency levels, mostly involving confirmation checks and clarification requests. The negotiations of meaning involving negative feedback were scarcer in the TLIs than in the PIs. What this suggests is that the teach-

ers and learners during the TLIs may have avoided these negotiations as a possible loss of face or sign of incompetence. Moreover, the PIs, creating a more intimate environment than TLIs, may have encouraged the learners to initiate negotiations of meaning to provide negative feedback without involving a loss of face.

Overall, the results discussed in this chapter raise the need to explore the cognitive factors that motivated the above classroom interactional behaviours. They also highlight the need to raise awareness amongst teachers and learners of the effects of the classroom interactional behaviour on the effectiveness of speaking practice. In order to ensure the effectiveness of the interactions and thus speaking practice, the teachers and learners need to be assisted in developing an understanding of the nature of the FLIs, and how they can direct the use of their interactional strategies towards collaboratively meeting immediate (e.g., completing the task) and long-term (i.e., developing learners' speaking skills) goals.



Table 7.42. Summary of findings into learner talk during speaking practice

FEATURE	FOCUS OF INTERACTION (MEANING OR FORM)	KIND OF INTERACTION (TLI OR PI)	OTHER TASK CHARACTERISTICS (POST-TASKS OR MANIPULATION OF INFORMATION)
Fluency	Meaning-focused inter- actions promoted fluency and complexity.	At the basic level, fluency and complexity levels were higher in the TLIs than in the PIs.	Post-tasks promoted fluency, complexity and accuracy in some TLIs at the basic and intermedi- ate levels.
Complex- ity	Form-focused interactions did not promote fluency and complexity.	At the intermediate and advanced level, fluency and complexity levels were higher in the PIs than in the TLIs.	
Accuracy	Form-focused interactions promoted accuracy. Meaning-focused inter- actions did not promote accuracy.	At the basic and ad- vanced levels, accuracy levels were higher in the TLIs than in the PIs. At the intermediate level, accuracy levels were equally high.	Manipulation of in- formation promoted fluency, complexity and accuracy in some PIs at the intermediate level.
Discourse functions	Meaning-focused interac- tions promoted discourse functions to provide infor- mation or explanations. Form-focused interactions promoted discourse func- tions to provide examples.	At the three proficiency levels, the number and range of discourse func- tions were greater in the PIs than in the TLIs.	
Negoti- ations of meaning	The number of negotiations of meaning were varied, but generally low.		
Nature of negotia- tions of meaning	Negotiations of meaning were briefly performed, and at word level		
Note: TLI=teacher-led interaction; PI=peer interaction.			



## Chapter Eight

### THE ANALYSIS: ELICITED DATA



## INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the findings of the interactional data indicated that the FLIs at the three proficiency levels were considerably dominated by teacher talk. In particular, learner talk (in terms of language performance, discourse functions, and opportunities to negotiate meaning) was found to be influenced and, in some cases, limited by the nature of the interactions. As raised in Chapter Seven, these findings highlight the need to explore in greater depth the elicited factors that influenced the nature of the interactions and classroom interactional behaviour. This chapter therefore explores the three teachers' (María, basic level; Tanya, intermediate level; and Aranza, advanced level) and learners' (from focus groups and questionnaires at the three proficiency levels) beliefs around FLIs and, particularly, speaking practice (RQ3), paying closer attention to the extent to which these elicited factors appear to influence teaching and learning practices and interactional patterns during speaking practice (RQ4). In exploring these elicited data, Chapter Eight adopts three perspectives adapted from Lillis (2008):

1. *transparent/referential* (i.e., data as indicating the teachers' and learners' sense-making and perceptions of classroom teaching and learning practices),
2. *discourse/indexical* (i.e., data as pointing to beliefs and attitudes, and how these influenced their classroom interactional behaviour),
3. *performative/relational* (i.e., data as dependent on the researcher's and informants' immediate situation, identity, status, and specific practices at a specific moment and place in time).

That is, the elicited data are explored as indicating the teachers' and learners' 1) perceptions and reported teaching and learning practices for speaking (following a transparent/referential perspective); 2) underlying

beliefs and values around speaking practice and their effects on classroom interactional behaviour (following a discourse/indexical perspective); and the researcher's and participants' immediate situation, identities, status and specific practices (following a performative/relational perspective). For the purpose of this chapter, the analysis of the data suggested to us the particular importance of the second of Lillis' perspectives, given the extent to which we perceived the teachers' and learners' beliefs to shape their interactional behaviour and decision-making during speaking practice. However, we also take into account the teachers' and learners' responses as transparent/referential (e.g., responses indicating concerns about speaking practice) and performative/relational (e.g., responses shared because the teachers and learners want to come across in a certain way) (see also Lankshear & Knobel, 2014).

The chapter is organised around macro themes which emerged from the data analysis: 1) objectives and procedures for implementing speaking practice; 2) beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice (i.e., TLIs) and learners' L2 oral competence; 3) perceived limitations to speaking practice; 4) beliefs about peer-led speaking practice (i.e., PIs); and 5) beliefs about corrective feedback during speaking practice. The contribution made by Chapter Eight is threefold. First, it suggests that the effectiveness of the classroom interactions and speaking practice may be influenced by beliefs about locally-situated needs and demands (contextual factors). Second, it shows that teachers' and learners' beliefs may be complex and conflicting, influencing them to adopt classroom interactional behaviours that contradict the pedagogical beliefs that they embrace. Third, it adds weight to the argument that classroom interactions should be studied by taking into consideration cognitive as well as interactional factors in order to understand a given situation and thus develop a more contextual pedagogy (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Pajares, 1992).

## OBJECTIVES AND IMPLEMENTATION OF SPEAKING PRACTICE

In general, it was evident that the teachers had taken on board a number of objectives stipulated by the curriculum, and that these shaped their understanding of their pedagogic role - at least as reported in the interviews. The curriculum stipulates that the learners at the end of the teacher/translator training programme (i.e., the BA in languages) will be competent in the four language skills (speaking, writing, reading and listening), grammar and vocabulary. From a transparent/referential perspective, it was apparent the teachers' embrace of this curriculum objective, for example:

Extract 8.1. Quote by María (basic level)

"I think that all the skills are important. Yes, because they should... since they will be language teachers or translators, all the skills are important. Therefore, they should have all the competencies."

In María's response, we see a somewhat uncritical acceptance of the idea that the four language skills are fundamental to developing language competence that learners will need for their future careers as language teachers and translators. The three teachers' responses also suggested an embrace of a communicative approach to teaching, which was also stipulated in the curriculum. Some of their responses indicated knowledge of speaking practice consistent with a communicative approach. For example, Aranza said the following:

Extract 8.2. Quote by Aranza (Advanced level)

“It is communicative when there is an information gap. Then, you have information that I need or I don’t know. Then, the only way to obtain it is communicating [...] the more personalised and adapted to your reality, the more communicative it is because sometimes in the textbooks there are topics that do not happen in real life.”

As reflected in other statements about the communicative approach, we see in Aranza’s explanation of communicative activities her belief in the positive aspects of the approach: it is “personalised and adapted to your own reality.” Her comments also point to her understanding that communication requires an information gap, and that textbooks do not always reflect ‘real life’. In general, then, we can see, from a transparent/referential perspective, that the objectives specified in the curriculum have been taken on board by the teachers, and are likely to influence their decisions and teaching practices.

In regards to the teacher’s beliefs about their ability to implement their pedagogic objectives, the teachers’ responses reflected satisfaction about the speaking practice that they carried out, for example:

Extract 8.3. Quote by María (basic level)

“Yes, I feel that the environment that has been created in the classroom does allow them [learners] to enquire about different things, and practise speaking.”

María’s response indicates her feeling that the FLIs provided the learners with opportunities to interact and practise speaking. This feeling was shared by the three teachers, as shown in Table 8.1 which summarises the perceived benefits of speaking practice.



Table 8.1. Perceived benefits of speaking practice

María	<p>Fluency</p> <p>Accuracy</p> <p>Ability to communicate efficiently</p> <p>Development of interactional strategies</p> <p>Ability to communicate in real life</p>
Tanya	<p>Fluency</p> <p>Accuracy</p> <p>Ability to communicate efficiently</p> <p>Confidence to speak</p> <p>Everyday expressions</p>
Aranza	<p>Fluency</p> <p>Accuracy</p> <p>Skill practice</p> <p>Oral competence for becoming language teachers</p>

By adopting a transparent/referential perspective, it can be seen from Table 8.1 that the three teachers perceived that speaking practice was effective in providing opportunities for the learners to develop a linguistic (e.g., fluency, accuracy, language performance) as well as interactional (e.g., ability to communicate efficiently, development of interactional strategies, ability to communicate in real life, everyday expressions) competence. However, these perceptions contrast with the findings of the interactional data which indicated limitations of the teacher-led speaking practice. As we shall see, the teachers' beliefs in the official stipulations and perceived benefits for speaking practice sat alongside other, potentially conflicting, ideas and beliefs about the contexts in which they worked. From a performative/relational perspective, this in turn suggests that these initial beliefs and perceptions may have been motivated by the teachers' feelings to come across as teachers who understand and endorsed communicative approaches (a stipulation of the curriculum) and promote the development of speaking skills in the foreign language classroom.

## BELIEFS AROUND TEACHER-LED SPEAKING PRACTICE AND ORAL COMPETENCE

This section explores the beliefs around learner involvement during teacher-led interactions and general achievement, with particular attention paid to a perceived ability to handle real-life tasks. We discuss how teachers' and learners' beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice can be conflicting, and influential on their interactional behaviour and thus learner achievement.

In response to the question: 'what are the language skills that you prefer practising?', all the learners' responses in the focus groups and to questionnaires suggested positive attitudes towards speaking practice. For example, by adopting a discourse/indexical perspective, Learner 1's statement "practising speaking in class helps me become more fluent, it helps me speak. That is why I practise it" points to a positive attitude towards speaking practice, and suggests perceived benefits of it. María and Aranza agreed that speaking (and reading) practice was part of the class for which learners showed the greatest preference. However, this shared belief was felt to conflict with other beliefs, for example:

Extract 8.4. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

"It is funny because they enjoy the communicative part, of course when it is between them, right? Because if I asked them to speak in front of others, they would not enjoy it anymore. It is the skill that they most struggle with. It is the skill that they most enjoy and struggle with, the speaking."

Aranza's response generally points to a belief that links back to the importance about a communicative approach for speaking practice. What is interesting from her response is that "it [speaking] is the skill that they most enjoy and struggle with," in that it suggests learners' beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice were conflicting, involving positive

attitudes towards speaking practice and perceptions of it as ‘difficult’. In particular, part of her response “if I asked them to speak in front of others, they would not enjoy it anymore” points to a belief that teacher-led speaking practice was not entirely welcomed by the learners. This belief was shared by the other two teachers (Maria and Tanya), whose responses suggested that the teacher-led speaking practice was negatively perceived by learners. In exploring the learners’ feelings about teacher-led speaking practice, the following adjectives emerged during the focus groups:

- “Horrificed” (Learner 3, intermediate level)
- “Nervous” (Learner 3, intermediate level; Learners 2 and 5, advanced level)
- “Pressed” (Tanya; Learner 4, basic level)
- “Stupid” (Learner 3, intermediate level)
- “Traumatic” (Learner 2, intermediate level)
- “Worried” (Learner 5, advanced level)

By adopting a discourse/indexical perspective, these adjectives index some learners’ negative attitudes towards teacher-led speaking practice. This attitudinal evidence not only confirms that the learners’ beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice were conflicting, but also suggests that these beliefs may likely influence their behaviour during this kind of speaking practice sessions, for example:

Extract 8.5. Quote by Learner 2 (intermediate level)

I don’t think it [low learner involvement] is because of laziness, I think that they [classmates] believe that their pronunciation is not good, therefore, they get embarrassed to practise it.”

The first part of Learner 2’s statement, “I don’t think it [low learner involvement] is because of laziness,” points to a perceived low learner involvement

during teacher-led speaking practice. “They [classmates] believe that their pronunciation is not good, therefore, they get embarrassed to practise it” suggests that the low learner involvement was motivated by learners’ beliefs about poor linguistic competence if we follow a discourse/indexical perspective. From social lenses, this low learner involvement may have been a strategy to save face as a consequence of the learners’ conflicting beliefs, which in turn appear to have influenced the teachers’ teaching and interactional behaviour, for example:

Extract 8.6. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

“[...] I try to be sort of comprehensive, that is, I don’t expose the learners because they won’t answer, it is obvious, they blush.”

From a discourse/indexical perspective, we see in Aranza’s statement a belief that the teacher-led speaking practice had negative effects on learners’ interactional behaviour, as suggested in “they won’t answer, it is obvious, they blush.” In “I don’t expose learners,” we see how this belief had an impact on the teacher’s interactional behaviour, that is, directing questions to particular learners, and a reliance on peer interactions (PIs) for speaking practice, as we shall see later in this chapter. This evidence thus implies that the teachers’ beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice were also conflicting. That is, the teachers’ beliefs about the importance of a communicative approach to speaking practice appear to have been in conflict with their beliefs about learners’ negative attitudes towards the teacher-led speaking practice, influencing their teaching behaviour. In the case of the advanced level, these conflicting beliefs may explain the low learner participation and the absence of meaning-focused TLIs which require greater learner involvement, as discussed in Chapter Seven.

Turning now to learners’ progress in speaking skills, the teachers’ and learners’ responses suggested various perceptions. When asked about their own progress, the 15 learners in the focus groups responded that

they perceived an improvement in speaking skills. These perceptions were also reflected in the questionnaire data:

Table 8.2. Perceived improvement of speaking skills

	BASIC	INTERMEDIATE	ADVANCED
Yes	12 (100%)	21 (100%)	15 (100%)
No	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

By adopting a performative/relational approach, it is possible that the learners in the focus groups and questionnaires felt the need to present themselves as learners who were progressing and meeting the stipulations of the curriculum, embracing their beliefs about the importance of speaking and developing speaking skills. Since two intermediate learners and five advanced learners in the focus groups expressed reservations about the progress made by their classmates when referring to other classmates. The three teachers also felt that the learners' oral competence was limited in several aspects, for example:

Extract 8.7. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

"They could communicate to a level, let's say, of survival. They would face problems, I don't know, in a university lecture." "The limitation is that they do not show the level of an advanced learner, that is, they are indeed fluent and accurate but they do not use advanced structures."

Aranza's response points to a perception of learners' limited speaking skills and, in particular, a limited ability to communicate in 'real-life' situations, as evident in "they could communicate to a level, let's say, of survival. They would face problems [...] in a university lecture." The teachers' beliefs about learners' limited speaking skills contrast to some extent with the optimism of their initial statements about speaking practice as opportunities to develop learners' speaking skills. Following a performative/

relational perspective, the beliefs about learners' reluctance to participate and limited speaking skills suggest that the teachers were aware of limitations of the teacher-led speaking practice. These perceived limitations link back to the findings into the speaking practice in TLIs which, as discussed in the previous chapter, was found to be less effective than the speaking practice in PIs (in terms of learners' opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse; practise their language performance; utilise discourse functions; and negotiate meaning). Moreover, the teachers' and learners' responses suggested other perceived limitations to speaking practice and, in particular, how their beliefs about locally-situated needs influenced the teachers' decision-making for speaking practice and in turn classroom interactional behaviour. This appears to be in contradiction with their reported strong commitments to practising speaking and developing learners' speaking skills.

## PERCEIVED LIMITATIONS TO SPEAKING PRACTICE

In general, during the interviews and focus groups, the teachers' and learners' responses pointed to positive attitudes towards speaking practice, and values about it as opportunities to develop linguistic as well as interactional competence. Moreover, the teachers and learners shared a belief that the classroom constituted the only opportunity for learners to practise speaking English, as discussed previously in Chapter Two and Three, for example:

Extract 8.8. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

"It [classroom] is mostly the only opportunity that they [learners] have to speak the L2, unfortunately."

From a transparent/referential perspective, Aranza's response points to a perception that the FLIs were the only opportunity for the learners to practise speaking English. This perception links back to her belief about the importance of speaking, but also suggests, by using the adverb 'unfortunately', a belief that the language was not practised on an autonomous basis by the learners as promoted by the university at which these learners were studying. Aranza's perception was also mirrored in the learners' responses, indicating that English was solely practised in the classroom, for example:

Extract 8.9. Quote by Learner 3 (advanced level)

"We [learners] only speak English inside the classroom because outside we go only talking in Spanish, nobody talks in English."

Again, from a transparent/referential perspective, Learner 3's statement similarly points to a perception that speaking was only practised inside the classroom, and to a perceived learner reluctance to practise speaking in environments outside the classroom. The immediate issue that emerges from these perceptions is that the development of learners' linguistic and interactional competence may be influenced not only by conflicting belief systems about teacher-led speaking practice, but also by a lack of learner autonomy inside and outside the classroom despite their reported commitments to the importance of speaking practice. In general, all the teachers (in the interviews) and learners (in the focus groups and questionnaires) felt that the opportunities to practise speaking were limited. This can be seen from the following table, which summarises the five most dominant limitations to speaking practice according to some learners' responses to the questionnaires:

Table 8.3. Learners' perceived limitations for speaking practice (questionnaires)

PERCEIVED LIMITATIONS	OCCURRENCE
Limited opportunities to practise speaking	8 (27.6%)
Learners speaking Spanish during speaking practice	6 (20.7%)
Learners' reluctance to speak English and participate	5 (17.2%)
A prioritising of certain language skills	4 (13.8%)
Class time constraints	4 (13.8%)

Table 8.3 shows that the most significant limitation indicated by the learners was the opportunities to practise speaking (27.6%). When Tanya said “the productive skills, they are also neglected [...]”, she also suggests a perception of limited opportunities to practise speaking at the intermediate level. Similarly, limited opportunities to practise speaking were perceived by Aranza, as indicated in “yes, there is little opportunity to participate.” Again, from a transparent/referential perspective, these perceptions contrast with their previous beliefs about speaking practice as opportunities for developing learners' speaking skills. Interestingly, the learners' responses during the focus groups suggested that the limited opportunities to practise speaking were motivated by *beliefs about class size* and *time constraints*, two key contextual factors for the purpose of exploring the FLIs in this book, for example:

Extract 8.10. Quote by Learner 4 (advanced level)

“The groups are not small, they are not 5 people, neither are they 10. There are not many opportunities for contributing, speaking. Three [learners] may be speaking but not the rest. There is no time...”

Learner 4's explanation is revealing in two ways if we follow a transparent/referential perspective. It firstly points to an interplay of two factors: large class size (as indicated in “the groups are not small”) and class time



constraints (as suggested in “there is no time”). Secondly, in “there are not many opportunities for contributing, speaking,” he felt that speaking practice was limited by these two factors. By following a discourse/indexical perspective, this thus suggests that the teaching and interactional behaviour during speaking practice was influenced not only by the teachers’ and learners’ conflicting beliefs about the teacher-led speaking practice, as discussed in the previous section, but also by beliefs about class size and time constraints (i.e., beliefs about locally-situated needs). The following extracts again point to perceptions that speaking practice was shaped by the teachers’ decisions influenced by beliefs about locally-situated needs.

Extract 8.11. Quote by Learner 4 (intermediate level)

“We [class] go following the program, we follow the book and the certification sheets, but if there is nothing for speaking, no.”

Extract 8.12. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

“Sometimes the activities are, as I told you before, too grammatical. They are topics very dense, not leaving much opportunity for... for speaking practice.”

The beliefs about class size and time constraints were felt by the teachers and learners to have motivated a reliance on textbooks (as in “we follow the book”), teaching to the exam (as in “we follow [...] the certification sheets”), grammar practice (as in “the activities are [...] too grammatical”), and peer interactions, influencing in turn learners’ opportunities to interact and practise speaking (as evident in “they are topics very dense, not leaving much opportunity for... for speaking practice”). This claim is explored in greater depth in the following sections.

## Beliefs about large class size and question-answer routines

As stipulated in the curriculum, language classes in this teaching and learning context should consist of no more than 20 learners per class. However, Tanya claimed that her English class consisted of 23 learners, a higher number than that allowed by the curriculum, as suggested in the statement below.

Extract 8.13. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

“The reality at the Faculty of Languages is that we should supposedly be given groups of no more than 20 learners. That is in theory, but, in practice, [...] I had 23 learners. Therefore, it is not the same practice for the speaking skills [...] the production is obviously greater than when you have 23 learners.”

Tanya’s statement suggests that the number of learners was in contradiction with the stipulation of the curriculum. By adopting a discourse/indexical approach, in “the production is obviously greater than when you have 23 learners,” Tanya’s statement suggests a belief that speaking practice was limited by the large size of her class. This belief was shared by the other two teachers, who perceived that the high number of learners was a factor that limited learners’ opportunities to participate and practise speaking. In response to these perceived limitations, the teachers pointed to interactional behaviours which relied on the use of questions as a way to promote speaking practice, for example:

Extract 8.14. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

“Due to the number of learners, speaking is neglected, but I try that the first part of my class is speaking with open-ended questions or [...] I try to ask each learner one question.”

Tanya's statement, namely, "due to the number of learners, speaking is neglected," suggests how the belief about the large class size influenced her interactional behaviour by encouraging a reliance on questions, as evident in "but I try that the first part of my class is speaking with open-ended questions." This influence was also felt by Learner 5 (intermediate level) as suggested in "we only answer the teachers' questions, the conversation cannot be possible because [...] the teacher stops us and continues with the others." During the interviews, the teachers' responses did not point to negative attitudes towards this reliance. In fact, when Tanya says "through speaking, that is, they communicate their answers [of an exercise] [...] and yes, everything follows a communicative approach," she is suggesting that these routines complied with her belief about a communicative approach. As previously discussed, this evidence seems to suggest that, in response to beliefs about locally-situated needs, teachers may adapt teaching and interactional strategies which are perceived to be more effective for a given situation (i.e., speaking practice) because of their stated beliefs about the importance of adopting a communicative approach.

However, at the same time, the attempt to adopt a communicative approach whilst addressing locally-situated needs such as those relating to class size may explain the high incidence of elicitations in the form of questions, which were not found to benefit learners' fluency and complexity as discussed in the previous chapter, suggesting that the teachers' decisions in response to their intricate set of beliefs may not be beneficial for developing learners' speaking skills. This was felt by the intermediate and advanced learners during the focus groups who, when discussing the teachers' reliance on questions, described them as 'structured' and 'mechanic', suggesting negative attitudes towards this reliance and a desire for a more conversation-based speaking practice. Moreover, despite the teachers' intentions to motivate speaking practice by a reliance on question and answer routines, eight learners in the focus groups felt that the opportunities to answer the teachers' questions were limited, for example:

Extract 8.15. Quote by Learner 3 (intermediate level)

“We are many, she pays attention to some and the rest is doing other stuff.”

Extract 8.16. Quote by Learner 2 (intermediate level)

“I feel the same, she asks everybody and she seldom asks me questions [...] to Student? to Student 2? She always asks questions [...] there are others who she does not ask questions.”

The two learners' statements reveal perceptions that the opportunities to answer the teacher's questions were limited. Both learners perceived that the teacher directed questions to some learners, suggesting limited opportunities to interact with the teacher during TLIs. These perceived limited opportunities during TLIs were confirmed by María, who felt that she directed questions to some learners:

Extract 8.17. Quote by María (basic level)

“The moment that I ask them questions, there are some learners who want to participate and, due to the fact that the class is large, sometimes not everybody participates. Then, they feel frustrated, or sometimes there are learners who say that there are other learners who are asked more.”

From a transparent/referential perspective, María's response reveals a reliance on questions which were felt to be directed to some learners. What is interesting from the above statements is that, despite the teachers' decisions to rely on question-answer routines for speaking practice in response to beliefs about class size constraints, the learners and María perceived that there were not equal opportunities to answer the questions. Following a

discourse/indexical perspective, this thus suggests that the beliefs about class size constraints were in interaction with other beliefs which compelled the teachers to direct questions only to some learners. The following extracts point to this interaction:

Extract 8.18. Quote by Learner 3 (advanced level)

“She works against time because she needs to finish at a certain time. Then, if we start talking about the people’s everyday lives, we could spend three classes, how many are we? Like 25.”

Learner 3’s statement reveals that the opportunities to practise speaking were limited by beliefs about class size constraints, as suggested in “how many are we? Like 25,” and beliefs about class time constraints, as indicated in “she works against time because she needs to finish at a certain time.” This thus implies that the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice was influenced not only by beliefs about class size constraints, but also beliefs about class time constraints. Moreover, this set of beliefs about locally-situated needs was felt to have an impact on the teachers’ decision making, for example:

Extract 8.19. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

“The problem here is the number of learners and class time constraints; 5 hours for advanced classes. What you do not want sometimes is to waste time in speaking activities.”

Aranza’s statement again points to an interplay of beliefs about class size and time constraints, as evident in “the problem here is the number of learners and class time constraints”. As suggested in “what you do not want sometimes is to waste time in speaking activities,” we see how the beliefs about locally-situated needs (i.e., class size and time constraints)

were felt to influence the teachers' decision-making by avoiding speaking practice.

This evidence is of particular importance for the purpose of the explorations of the FLIs because it suggests that the classroom interactional behaviour and teachers' decision-making for speaking practice were influenced by beliefs about locally-situated needs. Moreover, the interaction of these belief systems and their effects on teaching and interactional behaviour are significant for determining how the teachers and learners can be assisted in engaging in more effective FLIs.

## Beliefs about class time constraints

As shown in Extract 8.20, the belief about class time constraints had an impact on Tanya's teaching decisions.

Extract 8.20. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"I don't do it [speaking practice] because of time constraints. Honestly, I have to practise all the language skills, the format for the FCE [language certification] and cover the textbook up to unit 8."

Again, Tanya's statement points to a belief about class time constraints from a discourse/indexical perspective. We see in "honestly, I have to practise all the language skills, the format for the FCE [language certification] and cover the textbook up to unit 8" how her belief about class time constraints influenced her teaching decisions. Aranza's (in Extract 8.19) and Tanya's (in Extract 8.20) statements here appear to confirm the general feeling that speaking practice takes too much time, and sit uneasily with the teachers' other curriculum-related beliefs regarding the importance of practising speaking as one of the four skills needed to communicate and teach, and a communicative approach to teaching and

learning English. As suggested in the following extracts, the beliefs about class time constraints were felt to influence the classroom interactional behaviour, for example:

Extract 8.21. Quote by Learner 5 (basic level)

“True, it is not always possible to initiate conversations because we take too much time of the class, the following topics.”

Following a discourse/indexical perspective, Learner 5’s statement reveals her belief about the importance of practising speaking following a conversation-based approach. This belief appears to conflict with her belief about class time constraints, as suggested in “it is not always possible to initiate conversations,” since she felt that the opportunities to practise speaking were limited. Learner 3 also felt the classroom interactional behaviour was influenced by beliefs about class time constraints:

Extract 8.22. Quote by Learner 3 (advanced level)

“I would say that the time because the teacher arrives and the first thing she does is to check homework and she does not ask us questions [...] she arrives, [and says] this is the homework, you are right, you are wrong” and then we continue with the book.”

Again, by explaining the teacher’s heavy agenda, Learner 3’s response points to a perception that the opportunities to practise speaking were influenced by beliefs about class time constraints. What is interesting from Extract 8.22 and of particular relevance for the explorations of the FLIs is that, in “she arrives, [and says] this is the homework, you are right, you are wrong” and then we continue with the book,” Learner 3 points to the teacher’s dominance over classroom talk. This was also felt by Aranza who admitted that she tended to dominate the classroom talk

in “I think that I largely dominate speaking.” This elicited evidence thus suggests that the beliefs about class time constraints may have compelled the teachers to dominate the classroom discourse during speaking practice. The following elicited evidence adds further support to the suggestion that the beliefs about class time constraints motivated the teachers’ dominance over the talk at the three proficiency levels:

Extract 8.23. Quote by Learner 1 (basic level)

“I think that the teacher speaks too much, does she not? Like she asks us [questions], we answer two, three things and then she asks other things.”

Extract 8.24. Quote by Learner 3 (intermediate level)

“It is the teacher who most of the time explains the activities, gives examples and we [learners] don’t speak much.”

From a discourse/indexical perspective, the two learners’ statements again reveal beliefs about class time constraints which were felt to influence the teachers’ dominance over the classroom discourse, as suggested in “we answer two, three things and then she asks other things.” The teachers’ dominance over talk, influenced by beliefs about class time constraints, were felt to have limited the learners’ opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse, as suggested in “we don’t speak much.” Interestingly, the interactional data discussed in Chapter Seven confirmed that the three teachers dominated the talk, leaving the learners’ limited opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse and thus practise speaking English.

So far, we have seen that the beliefs about class size and time constraints were felt by the teachers and learners to influence the teachers’ decision-making and, in particular, the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice. Moreover, the teachers’ and learners’ beliefs



around speaking practice appeared to be conflicting since their embrace of commitments to practising speaking following a communicative approach and developing speaking skills was felt to be hindered by beliefs about locally-situated needs (i.e., beliefs about class size and time constraints). This in turn suggests that beliefs about locally-situated needs may exert a stronger influence on speaking practice despite strong beliefs about the importance of practising speaking and developing learners' speaking skills. In Sections Perceived reliance on textbooks and activities for language certifications and Perceived prioritising of certain language skills and grammar practice, we discuss further elicited evidence which adds weight to the argument that the beliefs about locally-situated needs and institutional demands may be influential on the teachers' decision-making and classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice.

## Perceived reliance on textbooks and activities for language certifications

Tanya's belief about class time constraints compelled her to teach to the textbook, as evident in Extract 8.20. In the interviews and focus groups, the other two teachers' and learners' responses also pointed to a perceived reliance on activities in textbooks for speaking practice. The teachers' reliance on textbooks appears to be motivated by beliefs about class time constraints, as suggested in Extract 8.20, and reinforced by administration- and learner-related immediate demands, for example:

Extract 8.25. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"If the administration asks me to cover the textbook until unit 8 and I actually covered unit 6 or 7, the learners then feel satisfied, in the evaluation they express that."

Tanya's explanation reveals a perceived administration-related demand to cover a certain number of units (although this number is flexible). However, since the textbooks are normally bought by learners in this context, Tanya also perceived that covering the units of textbooks had a positive impact on learners' teacher evaluation, implying an immediate demand to cover the textbooks. Moreover, the reliance on textbooks appeared to be reinforced by administration demands to teach to the exam at the intermediate and advanced levels, as suggested below.

Extract 8.26. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

"I follow the activities in the textbook, they are always focused on the Cambridge examinations [...] we [the class] obviously focus on exercises to master the speaking section of the certification."

We see in Aranza's statement a somewhat uncritical reliance on textbooks in order to teach to the exam. Overall, the above two extracts suggest that the teachers perceived the use of textbooks as inevitable, given what they perceived to be the immediate demands and expectations. Beliefs about class time constraints alongside these perceived immediate demands were felt by the teachers and learners to shape the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels, for example:

Extract 8.27. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"It [speaking practice] goes in relation of what the textbook suggests [...] if it is the first part, the introduction, the icebreaker."

Extract 8.28. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

"Yes, almost always [...] we obviously focus on activities to reinforce the oral part of the [language] certifications."

In the teachers' statements, we see a perception that speaking was practised following activities in textbooks to teach to the exam, as indicated in "we obviously focus on activities to reinforce the oral part of the [language] certifications." In the interview data, there was no indication of the teachers' negative attitudes towards their reliance on textbooks. Instead, in the case of the intermediate level, Tanya's responses pointed to a positive attitude towards teaching to the textbooks regarding speaking practice:

Extract 8.29. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"The activities that the textbook proposes are realistic, and they give the learner the tools [...] they involve the four language skills and vocabulary sections. They include the speaking part... I like them because speaking is always proposed in context [...] in each class we should have one conversation... one practice for speaking."

In general, we see in Tanya's explanation a positive attitude towards the activities in the textbooks which links back to her beliefs about the importance of speaking practice (as in "in each class we should have one conversation"), a communicative approach (as in "the activities that the textbook proposes are realistic"), development of learners' speaking skills (as in "they give the learner the tools"), and the integration of the language skills (as in "they involve the four language skills and vocabulary sections"). The learners' responses in the focus groups also pointed to a reliance on activities in textbooks for speaking practice, but in their case suggesting negative attitudes towards this reliance, for example:

Extract 8.30. Quote by Learner 3 (advanced level)

"It [speaking practice] is always focused on the [language] certification, well, I never... it is always related to something for the language certification."

Extract 8.31. Quote by Learner 1 (advanced level)

“She does it [teaching to the exam] so as for us to find jobs, you have to pass the examination. Here, they [teachers] thus train us to pass the examination so we can be hired, not because they want us to be competent, but for you to have the certificate.”

Following a transparent/referential perspective, it can be seen from these two extracts that the statements point to perceptions that speaking practice relied on activities in textbooks. By saying “they [teachers] thus train us to pass the examination so we can be hired, not because they want us to be competent,” Learner 1’s statement reveals a negative attitude towards this reliance. Other learners’ responses at the three proficiency levels also suggested negative attitudes towards speaking practice sessions based on activities in textbooks and, in particular, activities to teach to the exam, for example:

Extract 8.32. Quote by Learner 4 (basic level)

“I would recommend changing the topic from time to time, not always following the textbook, and start a discussion of those topics, a debate [...] with all of that, we could improve our speaking.”

From a discourse/indexical perspective, Learner 4’s recommendation again suggests a negative attitude towards practising speaking following activities in textbooks. In “not always following the textbook, and start a discussion of those topics, a debate [...] with all of that we could improve our speaking,” the learner’s response suggests a feeling that the reliance on textbooks limited opportunities to develop speaking skills. This feeling was shared by the learners at the advanced level, for example:

Extract 8.33. Quote by Learner 3 (advanced level)

“[...] my boss is native (speaker) and then he starts talking to me. I put a ‘question mark’ face because I only know how to compare images [...] the communicative and functional aspects of language are neglected.”

Learner 3’s explanation about a real-life situation in which his speaking skills fell short again points to a negative attitude towards the reliance on textbooks if we follow a discourse/indexical perspective. In “the communicative and functional aspects of language are neglected,” Learner 3 felt that the development of speaking skills was limited by this reliance. At the intermediate level, the learners felt that the reliance on the textbook limited the opportunities to practise speaking, for example:

Extract 8.34. Quote by Learner 4 (intermediate level)

“We [class] go following the program, we follow the textbook and the [language] certification but, if there is nothing for speaking, then no.”

Again, Learner 4’s statement points to a reliance on textbooks and activities for the language certification. What is of particular importance for the explorations of the FLIs is her feeling that the opportunities to practise speaking were limited by the overuse of textbooks, suggesting a prioritising of certain language teaching choices, as implied in “we follow the textbook and the [language] certification but, if there is nothing for speaking, then no.” As we shall discuss in the following section, the beliefs about locally-situated needs reinforced by other perceived immediate demands (i.e., the need for learners mastering forms) appear to have compelled the teachers to prioritise certain language skills and grammar practice.

## Perceived prioritising of certain language skills and grammar practice

Despite the teachers' commitment to an integrated practice of language skills, grammar and vocabulary, the teachers' and learners' responses suggested feelings that the language skills were not practised equally, for example:

Extract 8.35. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"In a language class, it [the integration of the four language skills] is obviously difficult, you neglect one for the other [...] You choose one of each skill group."

Following a transparent/referential perspective, Tanya's statement reveals her perceived inability to integrate equally the language skills despite her beliefs about the importance of this integration. The teachers' inability to integrate the language skills was also felt by the learners, as suggested in their responses to the questionnaire:

Table 8.4. Most practised language skills (questionnaires)

PRACTICE	BASIC LEVEL	INTERMEDIATE LEVEL	ADVANCED LEVEL
Speaking	2 (15.3%)	5 (27.7%)	2 (12.5%)
Writing	3 (23%)	0 (0%)	2 (12.5%)
Reading	4 (30.7%)	1 (5.5%)	2 (12.5%)
Listening	4 (30.7%)	4 (22.2%)	1 6.2%)
Grammar	0 (0%)	8 (44.4%)	9 (56.2%)

Table 8.4 shows that there was a feeling that some skills were practised more than others. At the basic level, the most practised language skills were felt to be listening (30.7%) and reading (30.7%). At the intermediate and advanced levels, the learners perceived that grammar was mostly

practised (44.4% and 6.2%, respectively). This table is interesting in two ways. First, its results match the responses provided by the three teachers and 15 learners during the interviews and focus groups. Second, it shows a prioritising of grammar practice at the intermediate and advanced levels which, as we shall see below, was motivated by the teachers' beliefs about class time constraints and other perceived immediate demands. This may in turn explain the speaking practice sessions focused on form in the interactional data. The 15 learners in the focus groups suggested that speaking should be practised more, as also reflected in the learners' responses to the questionnaires:

Table 8.5. Skills that should be practised more

PRACTICE	BASIC LEVEL	INTERMEDIATE LEVEL	ADVANCED LEVEL
Speaking	10 (83.3%)	10 (40%)	8 (50%)
Writing	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	1 (6.2%)
Reading	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)
Listening	2 (16.6%)	6 (24%)	7 (43.7%)
Grammar	0 (0%)	6 (24%)	0 (0%)

The table shows that speaking was, above any other skill, perceived to need more practice, implying a feeling of limited practice if we adopt a discourse/indexical approach. As suggested below, it appears that beliefs about class time constraints compelled the teachers to prioritise the practice of certain language skills and grammar.

Extract 8.36. Quote by María (basic level)

“The productive skills, I think that they need more practice, and we have not had enough time to develop them.”

Following a discourse/indexical perspective, María's statement points to a belief that the productive (i.e., speaking and writing) skills were less practised than other skills as a consequence of her beliefs about class time constraints, as indicated in "we have not had enough time to develop them." As also shown in Table 8.4, eight intermediate and advanced learners in the three focus groups perceived that there was a prioritising of grammar practice, for example:

Extract 8.37. Quote by Learner 4 (advanced level)

"Yes, we practise speaking, but there are lessons only focused on grammar and, for example, today we had some speaking practice, not the whole class."

Learner 4's statement reveals a perception that grammar practice tended to dominate the class time from a transparent/referential perspective. In "today we had some speaking practice, not the whole class," Learner 4 felt that this prioritising limited speaking practice, which in turn suggests an implied assumption about the importance of speaking practice. This feeling was shared by the advanced teacher:

Extract 8.38. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

"Sometimes the activities [...] are too grammatical, they involve structures that are dense, they do not leave much opportunity for... for speaking practice."

We see in Aranza's statement a perceived prioritising of grammar practice which was again thought to limit speaking practice, as indicated in "they [grammar activities] do not leave much opportunity [...] for speaking practice." The intermediate and advanced teachers' responses reveal two main reasons for prioritising grammar practice:



Extract 8.39. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

“I don’t stop practising grammar because I noticed that in both groups there are serious problems [...] I have noticed that they have been dragging problems of grammar from previous semesters.”

Extract 8.40. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

“I admit that my class is grammatical [...] our learners need to know the language, they will be teaching it.”

In the first instance, following a transparent/referential perspective, Tanya’s statement points to a perception of learners’ limited knowledge of grammar structures which compelled her to prioritise grammar practice, as indicated in “I don’t stop practising grammar.” In the second instance, following a discourse/indexical perspective, Aranza’s statement “learners need to know the language, they will be teaching it” implies a perceived demand for learners mastering the language form for their future teaching careers. Interestingly, the advanced learners in the focus groups felt that speaking practice was not only limited by a prioritising on grammar, but also influenced itself by a focus on form. For example, in Learner 3’s (advanced level) statement “but speaking in relation to grammar,” we see a feeling that speaking practice was focused on form. The feeling that speaking practice followed a focus on form was confirmed by the advanced teacher’s response:

Extract 8.41. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

“That is the intention of speaking activities [...] that they [learners] use the structure during speaking practice, in their conversation or whatever they are doing.”

Again, from a discourse/indexical perspective, Aranza's explanation suggests a belief in the importance of learners mastering grammar structures for their future careers. What is particularly interesting in this excerpt is that the teacher's belief about the relevance of grammar alongside her belief about the importance of speaking practice may have motivated her to carry out speaking practice in TLIs and PIs focused on form. This suggestion is borne out by the interactional data, discussed in Section Learner talk, which indicated that the TLIs at the advanced level (and some TLIs and PIs at the other proficiency levels) were focused on form, towards which the learners showed negative attitudes:

Extract 8.42. Quote by Learner 1 (advanced level)

"We should talk about whatever comes to our minds and what we want to talk about... I think it is more natural like that [...], not being concerned about using a specific grammar structure"

Learner 1's suggestion again points to a belief that the prioritising of grammar practice limited the opportunities to interact, suggesting a negative attitude. It appears that the speaking practice focused on form were in conflict with her belief about a conversation-based approach, as suggested in "we should talk about whatever comes to our minds and what we want to talk about." This evidence confirms the mismatch between the teachers' and learners' beliefs about grammar instruction which has been reported in research literature (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Overall, the above elicited data thus suggest that beliefs about class time constraints in interaction with other perceived immediate demands (i.e., the need for learners mastering knowledge of grammar in response to perceived linguistic problems or for their future teaching careers) may compel teachers to prioritise certain language skills and/or grammar practice, despite their beliefs about the importance of integrating the language skills.

So far, we have seen that beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands were felt by the teachers and learners to have shaped the teachers' decision-making and classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice by, for example, encouraging:

- the teachers and learners to adopt question and answer routines;
- the teachers to dominate the classroom discourse
- the teachers and learners to follow textbook activities;
- the teachers to teach to the exam; and
- the teachers to prioritise certain language skills and grammar practice.

This may be reinforced by the teachers' apparent belief that these practices are to some extent beneficial to learners' oral performance, a belief that is contested by the learners who claimed to prefer a more conversational approach to speaking practice. What this suggests, then, is twofold. Firstly, teacher practices and interactional strategies may be influenced by beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands. Secondly, these beliefs may in some cases contradict perceived wisdom about the need for a communicative approach—something which teachers also believe in but which may be overridden by their other, perhaps more pressing, concerns—and so may be detrimental to learners' acquisition of speaking skills. In the next section, we explore the contention that the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs, influencing teaching decisions and interactional behaviour, appear to have motivated a reliance on peer-led interactions for speaking practice following their beliefs about the importance of a communicative approach to speaking practice.

## BELIEFS AROUND PEER INTERACTIONS FOR SPEAKING PRACTICE

When asked about the frequency of PIs, the 15 learners' responses in the focus groups reported a high frequency. This was also reflected in the learners' responses to the questionnaires:

Table 8.6. Most common kind of interaction for speaking practice

SPEAKING PRACTICE	BASIC LEVEL	INTERMEDIATE LEVEL	ADVANCED LEVEL
a) Individually	3 (25%)	5 (20%)	1 (5.8%)
b) In pairs	6 (60%)	12 (48%)	13 (81.2%)
c) Small groups	1 (8.3%)	1 (4%)	2 (12.5%)
d) Big groups	0 (0%)	3 (11.5%)	0 (0%)
e) With the teacher	2 (16.8%)	4 (16%)	1 (5.8%)

The table shows that learners at the three proficiency levels perceived a high frequency of speaking practice in pairs (a percentage range of 48% to 81.2%). This was also perceived by the three teachers, as said by Aranza: “most of the [speaking] activities are not led by me, they are [carried out between] learner-learner.” These data thus suggest that speaking practice was frequently carried out by learner peers. This contrasts with the interactional data which indicated that speaking was practised in both TLIs and PIs, suggesting that the teachers did not in actual fact carry out what they believed they were doing, or what they said that they were doing if we follow a performative/relational perspective. Rather, the elicited data suggest a reliance on PIs in response to the perceived limitations to the TLIs (i.e., the influence of beliefs about locally-situated needs on learners' opportunities to practise speaking, contribute to the classroom discourse, and thus develop speaking skills), and reinforced by perceived interactional benefits, for example:

Extract 8.43. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

“Well, I like that they [learners] work in pairs so that they don’t feel embarrassed.” “Generally, it is welcomed and it is always in pairs. I notice that they like working in pairs. I plan many activities for them to work among friends.”

Aranza’s statement, from a discourse/indexical perspective, suggests a positive attitude towards PIs which is fed by her belief about learners’ enjoyment for them, and a perceived face-threatening effect of the teacher-led speaking practice on learners. These beliefs appear to have motivated her to rely on PIs, as implied in “I plan many activities for them to work among friends.” Following a discourse/indexical perspective, María’s responses also pointed to a positive attitude towards PIs, for example:

Extract 8.44. Quote by María (basic level)

“It [speaking practice] is in pairs as well as groups because in pairs they feel more comfortable talking in pairs, and groups are also important because I think that they provide each other with feedback, and they listen to each other.”

Again, María’s statement suggests a positive attitude towards PIs for speaking practice, and a belief that it made the learners “feel more comfortable,” implying a perceived negative impact of TLIs on learner interactional behaviour. This belief alongside perceived benefits of peer learning (as in “they provide each other with feedback”) and greater interactional opportunities (as in “they listen to each other”) appear to have reinforced her positive attitude towards speaking practice led by learner peers. Interestingly, the learners’ responses in the focus groups also suggested positive attitudes towards this kind of speaking practice, as suggested below.

- Freedom to talk about learner-related topics (Learners 1 and 3, advanced level).
- Greater intimacy (Learners 2 and 3, basic level; Learner 1, intermediate level; Learner 1, advanced level);
- Greater oral production (Learners 1, 2, 3, basic level; the five learners, advanced level);
- Peer learning (Learners 1, 2, 3, 4, intermediate level);

As can be seen from this list, the perceived benefits clearly indicate learners' positive attitudes towards PIs by following a discourse/indexical perspective. By mentioning that PIs provided them with greater intimacy and oral production, the learners' responses point to perceived limitations of TLLs which may in turn have reinforced their positive attitudes towards the PIs.

From a transparent/referential perspective, it appears that teachers were aware that they did not maintain tight control of speaking practice in PIs, as suggested in Aranza's statement: "in fact, I contribute very little [to peer discussions] [...] I provide instructions and see how the [speaking] activity is started." This behaviour was also revealed in Tanya's response:

Extract 8.45. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"In reality like a control, a record is subjective, since you are not there... the control is not in your hands [...] but it does not get out of your hands." "I like to start with activities like lead-in or icebreakers to promote the communicative part in a way, let's say, very relaxed that they can work in pairs."

Tanya's statements generally point to a deliberate lack of control of PIs in order to promote the interactions, linking back to her beliefs about the importance of speaking practice following a communicative approach. What is interesting is the suggestion that PIs for speaking practice were

promoted “in a way, let’s say, very relaxed.” This evidence raises the possibility that the absence of teachers’ control and perceptions of PIs as relaxed environments may have an impact on learners’ interactional behaviour during these interactions, as suggested by Aranza:

Extract 8.46. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

“There is always someone who finishes first or starts doing other stuff or starts talking in Spanish. I don’t doubt that they are doing other things and when I approach them they pretend that they are working on the activity.”

Aranza’s statement reveals a perception that learners’ interactional behaviour during PIs may differ from the aims of tasks. This thus suggests that because of the absence of teachers’ control of the interactions, learners in PIs may engage in discussions that do not follow pedagogic goals set by the teachers or tasks. The learners’ responses below confirm the possibility of learners adopting interactional behaviours not consistent with pedagogic goals during PIs.

Extract 8.47. Quote by Learner 3 (advanced level)

---

“With classmates, you are in a real context for talking about everyday life things. With the teacher, you only talk about things in the textbook. With a classmate, you see there your personal and interactional needs.” “It also depends on... for example, with Student 1? [...] we always gossip in English, but with Student 2, we sometimes speak in Spanish, but it depends on the classmate.”

---

Following a discourse/indexical perspective, Learner 3’s statements are revealing in several ways. First, they suggest a positive attitude towards PIs which links back his belief about the importance of a communicative approach (i.e., “with a classmate, you see there your personal and

interactional needs”). Second, this positive attitude towards PIs appears to be reinforced by his perception, in “with the teacher you only talk about things in the textbook,” that the opportunities to interact are limited during TLIs. We see in “we always gossip in English [...] but with Student 2, we sometimes speak in Spanish” a perception that the PIs provided them with opportunities to go off topic, engage in personal discussions, and speak in Spanish. This is also suggested by Learner 1:

Extract 8.48. Quote by Learner 1 (advanced level)

“In my case, when I work with this classmate, we talk more frequently about what we think and, in fact, we never finish the tasks because we talk about other things [...] I don’t think it’s bad because we are practising speaking.”

Again, from a discourse/indexical perspective, we see in Learner 1’s statement a belief that the PIs provided them with opportunities to discuss learner-related topics following their beliefs about the importance of a communicative approach, as implied in “I don’t think it’s bad because we are practising speaking.” This evidence suggests that learners following their pedagogical beliefs may encourage them to engage in personal discussions which influence their interactional behaviour, possibly avoiding aims of tasks and thus probably not yielding expected learning outcomes. The interactional data was unable to corroborate that this was the case during the recorded PIs. It is possible that the observer and audio recorders may possibly have influenced learners’ interactional behaviour to be aligned with the pedagogic and interactional goals of the tasks.

In sum, it is evident that the teachers and learners maintained positive attitudes towards PIs as opportunities to practise speaking and develop learners’ speaking skills consistent with the pedagogical beliefs that they endorsed (i.e., beliefs about the importance of practising speaking, adopting communicative approaches to speaking practice, and developing learners’ speaking skills). These positive attitudes seemed to be fed by



the teachers' and learners' perceived limitations of TLIs and benefits of PIs, which were corroborated by the interactional data (e.g., greater fluency, complexity, use of discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning in the PIs than TLIs). Therefore, PIs should be promoted as speaking practice. In order to ensure the effectiveness of PIs, there is a need to assist learners in raising an awareness of carrying out PIs during which their interactional behaviour is aligned with the pedagogic aims and interactional aims set by tasks or teachers.

## BELIEFS AROUND NEGATIVE FEEDBACK DURING SPEAKING PRACTICE

In response to questions concerning negative feedback (i.e., explicit or implicit information concerning errors in learners' oral production) provided during speaking practice, various points were put forward by the teachers and learners. In general, the three teachers valued the provision of negative feedback as a teaching strategy, for example:

Extract 8.49. Quote by María (basic level)

"It [negative feedback] may be significant for them, like having an alarm to correct. Then, they can produce the same sentence and if they make the same mistake, they will be able to correct it."

Extract 8.50. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"It is a matter of giving you my [corrective] feedback so that you in the future see which one is the standard. Then, making for the whole class, you realise that the learners are aware and say: 'I can use this in this situation, and the other in another situation' and all the class benefits from this (feedback)."

From a discourse/indexical perspective, both statements reveal the two teachers' positive attitudes towards correcting learners' oral mistakes during speaking practice. In particular, they indicate perceived benefits for learners self-correcting subsequent mistakes, as indicated in "if they make the same mistake, they will be able to correct it." What is interesting is that negative feedback during TLIs was perceived to be beneficial not only to the learners to whom corrections are directed, but also to the whole class (as evident in "making for the whole class, you realise that the learners are aware and say: 'I can use this in this situation' and the other in another situation") (see also Havranek, 2002; Muranoi, 2000). Positive attitudes towards negative feedback were also suggested in the responses by the 15 learners in the focus groups. For example, Learner 5 (basic level) said: "I think it is good that she corrects us."

However, the three teachers, one learner at the basic level and the five learners at the advanced level felt that negative feedback was scarce or absent during speaking practice. For example, Learner 1's (basic level) suggestion, in "we need that the teacher starts to correct us," points to a perceived scarcity of negative feedback during speaking practice if we follow a discourse/indexical perspective. This is confirmed by Aranza's statement: "For example, I seldom correct while they are speaking, [...] I rarely correct them during the speaking." The teachers' responses point to one main reason that motivated this avoidance:

Extract 8.51. Quote by Aranza (advanced level)

"Maybe they are fluent but with many mistakes. Thus, I have decided not to correct them so as not to affect [speaking]"

Extract 8.52. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"It is give them something positive, something not very positive and not tell them that their speaking was wrong, you may inhibit them and you could spoil the speaking practice."

Aranza's and Tanya's statements suggest the feeling that correcting learners' oral mistakes inhibited them from speaking, as indicated in "not tell them that their speaking was wrong, you may inhibit them, and you could spoil the speaking practice". The feeling that negative feedback inhibited learners from speaking was shared by the learners in the focus groups, for example:

Extract 8.53. Quote by Learner 4 (advanced level)

"Some people may feel pressed while talking to the teacher for fear of being corrected or something like that."

Again, Learner 4's statement suggests a feeling that negative feedback had a negative impact on learners. From a discourse/indexical perspective, it thus appears that the teachers' and learners' beliefs about negative feedback were conflicting. That is, the teachers' and learners' beliefs about the importance of negative feedback appear to have conflicted with their beliefs about negative effects of it on learners' oral production, as suggested in Aranza's statement: "it is funny because everybody agrees to be corrected, but when you do correct them, they [learners] don't like it that much." As indicated in "I have decided not to correct them so as not to affect [speaking]" (Aranza, Extract 8.51), it seems that these conflicting beliefs influenced Aranza's teaching decisions not to correct learners' oral mistakes during speaking practice. The other two teachers' responses also suggest teaching decisions influenced by these conflicting beliefs:

Extract 8.54. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"They perceive it negatively and take it personal, like exposing them. There are people who take it (corrections) personal [...] you need to find like tactics, it is a delicate topic."

Tanya's explanation again points to a perception that negative feedback during speaking practice had negative effects on learners, even at a personal level. As suggested in "you need to find like tactics, it is a delicate topic," we see a perception that the conflicting beliefs about negative feedback influenced her teaching decisions. The following two extracts suggest how the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs about negative feedback influenced the basic and intermediate teachers' teaching and interactional behaviour:

Extract 8.55. Quote by María (basic level)

"Depending on the intimacy for them to express, interact and tell them at the end [of speaking practice] where they were wrong."

Extract 8.56. Quote by Tanya (intermediate level)

"The provision of feedback is personalised and without other learners [...] Then, you have the freedom to tell them their mistakes and advise them." "[...] I now do it in a personalised way so as to avoid peer criticisms."

From a discourse/indexical perspective, María's and Tanya's statements again suggest beliefs that negative feedback was perceived as face-threatening, as implied in "depending on the intimacy for them to express", and had a negative impact on learners, as indicated in "I now do it in a personalised way so as to avoid peer criticisms." These beliefs appear to have influenced the teachers' teaching decisions to provide negative feedback in private manner, as indicated in "I now do it in a personalised way," or at the end of speaking practice, as evident in "tell them at the end [of speaking practice] where they were wrong."

In sum, the teachers' and learners' beliefs about negative feedback during speaking practice were conflicting, and influential on the teachers'

teaching behaviour by encouraging them to provide negative feedback in a more private way or after speaking practice. For the purpose of exploring the FLIs, the implication of this evidence is that the negotiations of meaning in the TLIs and PIs may have been hindered by the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs concerning negative feedback. That is, due to the fact that negotiations of meaning involve the provision of negative feedback, teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs around negative feedback may have motivated them to avoid engaging in negotiated interactions in order to save the learners' face.

## EFFECTS OF TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' BELIEFS ON INTERACTIONS FOR SPEAKING PRACTICE

Overall, as indicated by the interactional and elicited data, there was an interplay of instructional and interactional factors during speaking practice which appeared to be influenced by cognitive and perceptual factors. That is, the nature of the FLIs (i.e., instructional factors), involving a focus on form or meaning, in TLIs or PIs and other task characteristics, influenced the teachers' and learners' interactional behaviour (i.e., interactional factors). In particular, learner talk during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels:

- tended to be more fluent and complex in the meaning-focused than in form-focused interactions, and more fluent and complex in the PIs than in the TLIs;
- tended to be less accurate in the meaning-focused than in form-focused interactions, and less accurate in the PIs than in the TLIs;
- initiated a greater quantity and range of discourse functions in the PIs than in the TLIs.

- engaged in varied and generally low negotiations of meaning in the TLIs and PIs.
- negotiated meanings at word level in the TLIs and PIs.
- had greater opportunities for negative feedback, modified output, utterances pushed towards greater accuracy in the PIs than in the TLIs.

These findings can partly be attributed to the influence of the nature of the FLIs, but also to the effects of the teachers' and learners' beliefs around speaking practice (i.e., cognitive factors) which appeared to be complex, conflicting, and influential on the nature of the FLIs and in turn teachers' and learners' interactional behaviour during speaking practice. Firstly, the beliefs about class size and time constraints were claimed by the teachers and learners to compel them to dominate the classroom discourse, and rely on question and answer routines during speaking practice. The teachers' claims to dominate classroom talk and rely on questions were borne out by the interactional data. In the first instance, the findings into the IRF pattern and turn length showed that the talk during the FLIs (whole recorded sessions) was dominated by the three teachers. In particular, the findings into the amount of talk indicated that the TLIs, during which teacher-led speaking practice was carried out, were also dominated by teacher talk at the three proficiency levels. In the second instance, the findings into the teachers' questions indicated that display questions dominated the classroom discourse during speaking practice. In exploring the effects of these questions on the learners' oral production, it was found that they motivated lower fluency and complexity levels than referential questions, suggesting that the teachers' questions were answered briefly and did not tend to push learners' utterances to be more fluent and complex.

Secondly, the elicited data suggested that the beliefs about class time constraints and other perceived immediate demands (i.e., the need to develop learners' knowledge of grammar structures in response to perceived

linguistic problems or profession expectations) compelled the teachers to prioritise grammar practice. At the intermediate and advanced levels, the learners felt that speaking practice was not only limited by a prioritising on grammar, but also influenced itself by a focus on form, as suggested when advanced Learner 3 claimed that speaking was always “in relation to grammar”. The interactional data corroborated that some interactions at the three proficiency levels followed a focus on form (3 TLIs and 3 PIs at the basic level; 1 TLI at the intermediate level; 2 TLIs at the advanced level). Form-focused interactions at the three proficiency levels were found to promote fewer opportunities to develop the learners’ fluency and complexity than meaning-focused interactions. Moreover, since learners were required to display knowledge of specific (expressions or grammar) structures, form-focused interactions promoted limited opportunities for the learners to initiate a range of discourse functions and contribute to the classroom discourse. As suggested by the cognitive and interactional data, it is thus possible that beliefs about class time constraints alongside other perceived immediate demands may have compelled the teachers to practise speaking following a focus on form, suggesting that teachers in response to locally-situated needs may adapt teaching practices which may be perceived by teachers to be beneficial for learners’ performance, but may be in detriment of learners’ speaking skills.

Thirdly, the interactional data indicated that negotiations of meaning were low, and mostly triggered by clarification requests and confirmation checks which did not involve negative feedback. In exploring the elicited data, the teachers’ and learners’ responses suggested conflicting beliefs around negative feedback during speaking practice. These conflicting beliefs were claimed by the teachers to motivate them to provide negative feedback after speaking practice or in a more private way. This avoidance strategy to save learners’ face during speaking practice may explain the scarcity of negotiations of meaning and their limited nature, since negotiations of meaning are interactional processes during which negative feedback is provided to push learners’ utter-

ances towards greater comprehensibility and accuracy (see, for example, Long, 1996; Pica, 1996).

Interestingly, the elicited data suggested that the teachers and learners were aware of limitations of the TLIs. These perceived limitations appeared to motivate a reliance on PIs towards which they showed positive attitudes. Namely, PIs were claimed by the teachers and learners in interviews or questionnaires to promote greater intimacy, a less face-threatening environment than TLIs, peer learning, negative feedback, and opportunities for negotiated interactions. The interactional data were unable to demonstrate that the teachers relied on PIs for speaking practice since speaking practice was carried out in both TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels. However, the interactional data corroborated the teachers' and learners' suggestion that the PIs provided learners with greater opportunities to 1) push their utterances towards greater fluency and complexity levels, 2) initiate a greater number and wider range of discourse functions, 3) and engage in a higher number of negotiations of meaning than the TLIs. Based on these findings from the interactional data, and some teachers' and learners' beliefs that learners may go off topic during PIs as suggested in the elicited data, our conclusion would be that it is important that speaking is practised in peer-led discussions during which learners' interactional behaviour is aligned with pedagogical goals set by tasks or teachers.

In brief, the above interactional and elicited data highlight the need for the teachers and learners to break away from teaching and learning practices influenced by their beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands. There is thus a need to raise awareness amongst teachers and learners of their intricate set of beliefs, and assist them in developing an understanding of more effective interactions for practising speaking. We shall return to this suggestion in Chapter Nine and, particularly, in Chapter Ten.



## CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter Eight explored the teachers' and learners' beliefs around classroom interactions and speaking practice at the three proficiency levels, and how these beliefs shaped the classroom teaching and interactional behaviour. The elicited evidence indicated that the teachers' and learners' beliefs around speaking practice endorsed the curriculum stipulations. However, it suggested that teacher decision-making and classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice was largely influenced by the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice and locally-situated needs (i.e., beliefs about class size and time constraints). In particular, the beliefs about locally-situated needs alongside other perceived immediate demands (i.e. the need to cover textbooks, teach to the exam, master learners' knowledge of grammar structures) were felt by the informants to have compelled the teachers to shape the speaking practice by:

- relying on question-answer routines,
- dominating the classroom discourse,
- teaching to the textbooks and exam, and
- prioritising skills other than speaking and grammar practice.

The beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands, encouraging the teachers to adopt the above teaching and interactional behaviour, appeared to be in conflict with their pedagogical beliefs (i.e., beliefs about the importance of speaking practice, adoption of communicative approaches, development of their speaking skills) since they were felt to have limited the learners' opportunities to practise speaking, contribute to the classroom discourse, and develop speaking skills. In response to these conflicting beliefs and perceived limitations, the elicited data revealed a reliance on PIs towards which the teachers and learners showed positive attitudes since they were felt to enhance

learners' interactional space and opportunities to develop speaking skills consistent with their pedagogical beliefs. The interactional data were able to corroborate the interactional benefits of PIs for speaking practice. Based on these findings and the teachers' and learners' assumptions that learners during PIs may go off topic and engage in personal discussions, learners need to become aware of the importance of exploiting PIs during which their interactional roles are aligned with the pedagogic goals set by the teachers and/or tasks, and thus maximise learning opportunities.

Regarding negative feedback during speaking practice, the teachers and learners suggested responses which pointed to conflicting beliefs. That is, the teachers' and learners' beliefs about the importance of negative feedback appeared to be in conflict with the learners' perceptions of them as face-threatening strategies. These conflicting beliefs were felt to influence the teachers' teaching decisions by avoiding correcting learners, or by providing negative feedback after speaking practice. The implication of this is that the nature of negotiations of meaning, explored in the previous chapter, may have been hindered by the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs since learners during negotiations of meaning are usually provided with implicit or explicit negative feedback.

The above evidence adds weight to the argument that teachers and learners need to be assisted in engaging in more effective speaking practice in both TLIs and PIs. This assistance needs to be focused on the interplay between their beliefs and classroom behaviour. That is, teachers and learners need to be assisted in raising an awareness of their beliefs and how their beliefs shape speaking practice, classroom interactional behaviour and learner achievement. Through raising their awareness as to how their own beliefs may be shaping their classroom practices in ways that are not always conducive to learning, it is possible that teachers and learners will be open to dialogue and thus develop an understanding of more effective teacher-led and peer-led speaking practice during which the interactional space is maximised and pedagogic goals are collaboratively met.

## Chapter Nine

### DISCUSSIONS



## INTRODUCTION

The explorations of the FLIs were aimed at examining the foreign language interactions (FLIs) in which teachers and learners engaged to practise speaking and learn English as a foreign language. In particular, the research objective was to investigate the factors that may hinder teachers and learners from engaging in more effective interactions and thus developing learners' speaking skills. In order to attain this, five research questions (RQs) guided the explorations of the FLIs.

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the findings of the interactional data (from the recorded classroom observations) and elicited data (from the teacher interviews and learner focus groups and questionnaires), drawing also on empirical findings documented in research literature. The discussions in this chapter revolve around RQ1 which aims to determine the instructional, interactional and cognitive factors that influence the development of learners' speaking skills during speaking practice.

With a view to answering RQ1, the chapter begins by discussing RQ2, which seeks to explore the likely impact of teaching and interactional behaviour during speaking practice on learner talk in terms of language performance (i.e., fluency, complexity and accuracy), discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning. We start by providing a summary in order to illuminate what conclusions can be drawn about the way in which different classroom interaction patterns, activity types and proficiency level shape learner performance. The second part of the chapter then discusses the teachers' and learners' beliefs about classroom interactions and, particularly, speaking practice (RQ3), paying closer attention to how and to what extent their beliefs shape classroom interaction patterns, learning activities, and teaching practice during speaking practice (RQ4). The chapter concludes by drawing the findings together in order to answer RQ1, and discussing implications for designing more effective classroom interactions, learning activities and teaching practices for speaking practice (RQ5).

## LEARNER TALK DURING SPEAKING PRACTICE

This section discusses the impact of teaching decision-making and classroom interactional patterns on the learners' speaking performance (RQ2). In order to develop this understanding, the section discusses the findings into the levels of learners' fluency, complexity and accuracy, use of discourse functions, and opportunities to engage in negotiations of meaning in the teacher-led interactions (TLIs) and peer interactions (PIs) at the three proficiency levels. At the end of the chapter, we summarize the findings and discuss conclusions about the way in which different classroom interaction patterns, activity types and proficiency level shaped learner performance.

Overall, the learners' language performance was found to be influenced by the nature of the FLIs. That is, the focus (meaning or form) and kind (TLI or PI) of the interactions and other task characteristics were found to impact on the classroom interactional behaviour and, in particular, on learners' fluency, complexity and accuracy levels, use of discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning. As we shall see, these findings suggest that the effectiveness of the classroom interactions and speaking practice was shaped by the nature of the interactions.

### Fluency and complexity

In order to understand how accurate, fluent and complex learners' contributions are in teacher-led and peer-led classroom interactions across proficiency levels, this section begins by discussing the findings into fluency and complexity. The learners' fluency and complexity levels were found to be considerably varied during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels, not showing a correlation with the learners' proficiency levels. Instead, the learners' fluency and complexity levels appeared to be dependent on the 1) focus (meaning or form) and 2) kind (TLI or PI) of the interactions and other task characteristics, as discussed below.

Firstly, depending on whether tasks focused on form or meaning, the teachers and learners adopted different interactional behaviours which in turn influenced fluency and complexity levels. As previously discussed, the teachers maintained dominant and controlling roles during the TLIs. In the form-focused TLIs, the teachers were observed to exert a particularly close control of the classroom discourse by dominating the amount of talk, and initiating a high number of display questions and feedback moves. These two dominant interactional strategies during the form-focused TLIs served the purpose of evaluating and checking the learners' knowledge of forms, that is, individual vocabulary expressions, verb definitions or grammar structures which did not promote learners' fluency and complexity. Despite the absence of teachers' dominance and control, neither did the form-focused PIs (at the basic level) motivate high fluency and complexity levels since the aims of the interactions were to drill pre-formulated expressions that did not favour fluency and complexity. In contrast, the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs benefitted fluency and complexity levels at the three proficiency levels. In particular, the teachers in the meaning-focused TLIs at the three proficiency levels maintained a less central interactional role that encouraged the learners' utterances to be more fluent and complex. For example, teachers' interactional strategies such as referential questions, frequently occurred in the meaning-focused TLIs. Moreover, follow-up moves were found to dominate the meaning-focused TLIs, and to motivate the learners' oral production, having an impact on fluency and complexity levels.

Secondly, the kind of FLIs (TLI or PI) was also found to shape learners' fluency and complexity during the speaking practice, but again with varied results across proficiency levels. At the basic level, the learners' fluency and complexity levels were varied, showing a trend towards higher fluency and complexity levels in the TLIs than in the PIs. These varied fluency and complexity levels need to be interpreted with caution because the aims of some TLIs and PIs at the basic level required learners to drill pre-elaborated suggestions, having an impact on the word

count, AS-units and subordinated clauses (speech units used to measure fluency and complexity). At the intermediate and advanced levels, the (meaning-focused) PIs motivated higher levels of learners' fluency and complexity than the TLIs. Interestingly, some meaning-focused PIs were found to raise even higher levels of fluency and complexity than some meaning-focused TLIs, suggesting that PIs provided learners with a greater interactional space and responsibility over the discourse which in turn had a beneficial impact on the fluency and complexity of their oral constructions. Other empirical studies have also suggested that the intimacy and enhanced interactional space in PIs, created by the absence of teachers' dominance and control of the talk, have beneficial effects on learners' fluency and complexity (Tarone & Liu, 1995), by handing them responsibility over the discourse (for example, management of the topic, use of questions, turn-allocations, follow-ups, and more elaborated responses, etc.) (Walsh, 2006). In particular, the task characteristics of some PIs (namely, the six PIs at the intermediate level and PIs 1-3 at the advanced level) that required the learners to discuss, negotiate choices and reach agreements motivated the highest complexity and fluency levels as consistent with Foster and Skehan (1996), who argue that speaking tasks to consider new information, evaluate it, and then defend an opinion result in high fluency and complexity levels. Since these tasks require learners to interpret the pictures/situations, retrieve experiential or perceptual information in order to build arguments, and formulate (mostly hypotactic) language which allow them to defend an opinion and thus attain their goal.

So far, we have seen that the nature of the FLIs (focus, kind and other characteristics of the interactions) shaped the teachers' and learners' interactional behaviour during the TLIs and PIs which in turn had an impact on the learners' fluency and complexity levels. The form-focused interactions appeared to limit the learners' fluency and complexity levels, which tended to be higher in meaning-focused interactions. In particular, the meaning-focused PIs motivated the highest levels of learners' fluency



cy and complexity, suggesting benefits of PIs for speaking practice and limitations of TLIs as to learners' opportunities to push their utterances towards greater fluency and complexity levels.

## Accuracy

As in the case of learners' fluency and complexity, the accuracy levels were influenced by the nature of the FLIs. That is, the 1) kind and 2) focus of the interactions and 3) other task characteristics shaped learners' accuracy during speaking practice across proficiency levels. However, the data indicated trade-off effects between the three dimensions, as discussed below.

Firstly, despite Porter's (1983) assertion that learner talk in peer-led discussions tends to be more accurate than in teacher-led discussions, the findings indicated that learner talk tended to be more accurate in the TLIs than in the PIs at the basic and advanced levels. At the intermediate level, learner talk was almost equally accurate in both the TLIs and PIs. In the case of the basic and advanced levels, the higher accuracy levels in the TLIs than in the PIs can be explained by the focus on form of some TLIs (three at the basic level; two at the advanced level) during which learners' utterances mostly involved error-free constructions (see discussion below about form-focused interactions), but fluency and complexity were not benefitted. As we shall discuss below, it appears that the similar accuracy levels in both TLIs and PIs at the intermediate level were a result of some TLIs functioning as post-tasks and PIs providing learners with opportunities to manipulate task information before and during the interactions.

Secondly, the focus on form or meaning of the interactions also influenced the learners' accuracy during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels. On the one hand, the form-focused TLIs and PIs, which did not promote fluency and complexity, were found to motivate the highest levels of learners' accuracy across the datasets. As observed in

the interactional data, the form-focused TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels required the learners to practise vocabulary, drill expressions or define verbs which mostly involved error-free clauses, indicating high accuracy levels. However, due to the fact that learners' utterances were limited to displaying understanding of individual forms, it is possible that the high accuracy levels in form-focused TLIs and PIs were not favouring the learners' language performance and thus development since their turns were constructed to provide answers expected by the teachers, involving no more than one clause or AS-unit. On the other hand, despite Skehan's (2009) assertion that the interactional processes during the task performance involve the construction of more fluent, complex and accurate utterances, the findings indicated a tension between complexity and accuracy during the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs, compromising one of these two dimensions. That is, the meaning-focused interactions appeared to promote high fluency and complexity levels, but low accuracy levels. For example, the TLI 5 at the basic level and PIs 1-3 at the advanced level whose aims were to provide personal information motivated high fluency and accuracy levels, but lower complexity levels. According to Foster and Skehan (1996), Skehan (2003; 2009) and Tavakoli and Foster (2011), tasks based on personal information tend to raise accuracy and fluency levels but not complexity levels since these tasks involve familiar information possibly already rehearsed in English, which may require the least cognitive effort (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Tavakoli & Foster, 2011). As discussed in the previous section, PIs 4-6 at the intermediate level and PIs 1-3 at the advanced level whose aims were to discuss and negotiate choices promoted the highest fluency and complexity levels across the data, but low accuracy levels. In line with these findings, Foster and Skehan (1996) claim that the interactional processes during tasks to negotiate choices lead to greater fluency and complexity, but lower accuracy because of the greater cognitive load placed on learners' attention processing. The above findings support previous research into the learners' language performance, in that they indicate that fluency

can be accompanied by either accuracy or complexity, but not all three (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan, 1998; 2003; 2009; Skehan & Foster, 1997a, 1997b, 2001; Tavakoli & Foster, 2011). The learners' utterances involving two of the three dimensions are consistent with the Trade-off Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998, 2003, 2009), which argues that learners' attentional resources during task performance are limited. In other words, there is a tension between form (complexity and accuracy) and meaning (related to fluency), which "committing to one area, other things being equal, might cause lower performance in others" (Skehan, 2003, 2009).

Nevertheless, some tasks during the TLIs and PIs at the basic and intermediate levels tended to benefit the three dimensions. That is, the meaning-focused TLIs and PIs that were performed as post-tasks, or provided learners with opportunities to manipulate information of tasks appeared to raise the learners' fluency, complexity and accuracy levels. In the first instance, TLIs 1 and 5 at the basic level and TLIs 2 and 3 at the intermediate level were carried out by the teachers to check learners' answers or views that were shared during previous PIs. Performed after the PIs, these TLIs functioned as post-tasks in which learners needed to repeat what was discussed in the PIs. These follow-up TLIs appeared to favour fluency, complexity and accuracy since the previous PIs provided learners with the interactional opportunity to discuss and 'rehearse' utterances which were later shared in the TLIs. In the second instance, learners in PIs 4-6 at the intermediate level were provided with written texts whose information needed to be discussed by the learners. It was observed in the interactional data that the learners took some time to read the texts before engaging in the discussions. Moreover, during the discussions, the learners sometimes referred to the texts to check the information that they needed to discuss. It is possible that these written aids assisted the learners in planning their utterances and performing the discussions, advantaging not only fluency and complexity, but also accuracy. These findings are supported by empirical findings elsewhere which suggest that the three dimensions can be encouraged when learners are

given opportunities to perform post-tasks related to previous discussions (Foster & Skehan, 2013; Skehan, 2009; Skehan & Foster, 1997b) and plan their discussions (Foster & Skehan, 1996, 1999; Skehan, 2009; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005). The above evidence thus suggests that speaking practice can promote language performance (i.e., fluency, complexity and accuracy) that is beneficial for developing the learners' "oral competence" (Skehan, 2003) when teachers and learners develop an understanding of the tasks and their design characteristics, and manipulate them towards promoting the learners' fluency, complexity and accuracy.

Overall, the findings into fluency, complexity and accuracy levels indicate that the learners' language performance across proficiency levels was shaped by the nature of the FLIs (i.e., a focus on form or meaning, in TLIs or PIs, and other task design characteristics). That is, the meaning-focused (rather than form-focused) interactions and PIs (rather than TLIs) tended to benefit learners' fluency and complexity. However, the learners' accuracy levels appeared to be low in these interactions. This interactional evidence suggests that speaking practice, focused on form or meaning and as TLI or PI, may not entirely promote learners' language performance (i.e., fluency, complexity and accuracy). There is thus room for improving the FLIs in which the teachers and learners engage to practise speaking. In order to perform 'successful' interactions that promote more advanced language and complexity, higher accuracy, and the capacity to produce language at a normal rate and without interruption (Skehan, 2009), the teachers and learners should engage in meaning-focused interactions during which their interactional behaviour (advantaging fluency and complexity) and manipulation of tasks (e.g., teachers and learners performing post-tasks; or learners manipulating information of tasks) (advantaging accuracy) are aimed at promoting learners' language performance and thus language development (Skehan, 2003). In order to attain this, teachers and learners need to be assisted in developing a context-sensitive understanding of task design, implementation conditions and their use of interactional strategies.

## Discourse functions

Motivated by the idea that learners' use of varied discourse functions during classroom interactions fosters a discourse competence that is transferable to natural situations (Long & Porter, 1985), this section aims at developing an understanding of the range of discourse functions that learners utilised in TLIs and PIs across the different activity types and proficiency levels. In order to attain this, 17 discourse functions were investigated, and discussed below.

When Tanya was asked about what she considered for planning speaking practice, she asserted that she provided learners with the vocabulary to facilitate the use of discourse functions during the interactions:

Extract 9.1. Quote from Tanya (intermediate level)

“The language functions that they are going to use. What I try to do is that the learners relate something of the real life with a function that they are going to use. For example, to express their abilities... then, I try to look for key words which they can use to express what they normally do.”

Despite the above assertion that learners were provided with discourse functions for speaking practice, the three teachers dominated the number of discourse functions in the FLIs and TLIs. This evidence thus reveals the learners' limited opportunities to utilise and practise a range of discourse functions, and thus develop a discourse competence during TLIs for speaking practice. According to Long and Porter (1985), the discourse functions during classroom interactions are normally the teachers' exclusive preserve. Consequently, the discourse roles that learners can take up during teacher-led discussions are claimed to be considerably limited (Long et al. 1976). Reasons of teachers' dominance over discourse functions can be explained by: 1) teachers' dominance over discourse (Tsui, 1995), which was borne out by the interactional data; 2) teachers'

pressure to advance the discourse and instruction (Long et al. 1976); 3) teachers' reliance on textbooks, particular tasks, and form practice (Long et al. 1976); 4) learners' inhibition to speak in front of others (Long et al. 1976); and 5) interactions following IRF patterns (Ellis, 2012). Interestingly, as we saw in Chapter Eight and we shall discuss later in this chapter, the aforementioned factors were felt by the teachers and learners to be limitations to the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels.

Nevertheless, the learners initiated a greater number of discourse functions during the PIs than the TLIs. This finding supports previous research into learners' discourse functions which suggests that learners utilise a greater number, as well as range, of discourse functions in peer interactions than in teacher-led interactions (DiCamilla & Anton, 1997; Ellis, 2012; Ohta & Nakane, 2004). Ellis (2012) asserts that the intimacy and the inhibition-free environment of PIs enable learners to utilise discourse functions that are not accessible to them during teacher-led discussions. Learner talk across proficiency levels also initiated a greater range of discourse functions in the PIs than in the TLIs. At the basic level, the learners in the TLIs mostly initiated the following discourse functions: *provides an example, explains/gives information, jokes and confirms*. In the PIs, the basic learners' discourse functions were not only to provide *examples, explanations, information, and confirmations* but also to *extend previous contributions, confirm and negate*. At the intermediate level, the learners in the TLIs mostly used discourse functions to provide *explanations, information, examples and confirmations*. In the PIs, the most recurrent discourse functions found in learner talk were to *explain, inform, confirm, negate, make observations and hypothesises*. At the advanced level, learners in the TLIs were found to be mostly *defining vocabulary, providing examples and negating*, according to the requirements of the tasks set. In contrast, learners in the PIs were found to initiate discourse functions to *explain, inform, make observations, confirm, and exemplify*. The above findings show that the learners during the TLIs were limited to using discourse functions to *explain, inform or exemplify*, which can be explained

by interactional behaviour adopted following (display) question-answer routines. The findings of the explorations of the FLIs confirm that the learners at the three proficiency levels not only talked more, but also initiated a wider range of discourse functions in the PIs than in the TLIs.

In sum, the quantity and range of learners' discourse functions were limited in the FLIs and TLIs at the three proficiency levels. Nevertheless, the PIs, providing greater interactional space and intimacy, promoted a greater number and range of discourse functions than the TLIs. The PIs also appeared to enable the learners to initiate discourse functions that were frequent in teachers' discourse (e.g., *agree, disagree, confirm, negate, extend contributions, make observations*, etc.), suggesting that the quality of learners' discourse was enhanced in the PIs during which learners exerted a control of the discourse (Ellis, 2012). This evidence thus suggests that the PIs for speaking practice should be promoted, but in turn highlights the need to promote learner autonomy which allows learners to utilise a range of discourse functions in both TLIs and PIs with a view to fostering a discourse competence.

## Negotiations of meaning

The learners at the three proficiency levels engaged in negotiations of meaning which ranged from 0 to 2.8 per minute, indicating that the negotiations of meaning across proficiency levels were varied and generally low. Namely, the TLIs at the basic level, the PIs at the intermediate level and the TLIs and PIs at the advanced level showed a low number of negotiations of meaning. The findings into the low incidence of negotiations of meaning in the PIs are somewhat surprising since learners are claimed to engage in a higher number of negotiations of meaning in peer than in teacher-led discussions (Ellis, 2012; Pica, 1996). Moreover, despite claims that negotiations of meaning tend to occur in tasks requiring a two-way exchange of information (Foster, 1998), the PIs at

the intermediate and advanced level, which met this requirement, did not appear to increase the number of negotiations of meaning. This limited number of negotiations of meaning is consistent with a large amount of previous research (García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Walsh, 2002; to name a few).

A possible explanation for the limited number of negotiations of meaning may have been the teachers' and learners' ability to convey meaning without the need to adjust the interactions. For example, 26 learners' responses to the questionnaires suggested that the level of speaking practice was generally easy to follow. These perceptions were echoed in the focus groups. For example, as shown in Extract 9.2, Learner 3 (advanced level) suggested that the level of English used in the interactions was easy to understand.

Extract 9.2. Quote from Learner 3 (advanced level)

"I have said that the input has to be +1 and, for example, I have seen that the instructions... for example, in the class, the teachers speaks to us in a standard English that we already know. Thus, if she changed the type of instructions, used complex vocabulary, we would push ourselves to understand her."

These views thus suggest that the target language used during the interactions may have been easy to understand, enabling the teachers and learners to get across their intent without the need for engaging in negotiations of meaning. This suggestion is supported by García Mayo and Pica (2000) and Naughton (2006), who argue that participants may perform interactions that are comprehensible to all, making any negotiated interaction dispensable.

Another possible explanation for the limited number of negotiations of meaning relates to the teachers' and learners' beliefs. Firstly, as previously discussed, the teachers and learners suggested responses which indicate shared beliefs about class time constraints. It is possible



that negotiations of meaning were perceived by the teachers, and possibly learners, to slow or interrupt the interactions, resulting in the avoidance of negotiated interactions. This suggestion is supported by Foster (1998), who believes that holding up the interaction to negotiate meaning may be perceived by language classroom interactants as a way of making the task frustratingly slow. Consequently, the teachers and learners may have followed a *pretend and hope strategy* (see Foster, 1998), that is, an interactional role in which they strategically pretended to understand what was said with no attempts to check and clarify, and may have hoped that the subsequent utterances or talk would help them understand the general idea or message.

Secondly, it is possible that the opportunities to negotiate meaning were limited by conflicting beliefs about negative feedback. As discussed before, the teachers and learners valued the role of negative feedback, but it was perceived by both teachers and learners to inhibit learners and thus limit their oral production. For example, Learner 4 (basic level) said: “let’s say that there are some learners who may feel stressed while speaking with the teacher for fear of being corrected.” This is in accord with Allwright and Bailey (1991), who also found classroom perceptions of oral corrections as face-threatening despite the fact that learners claimed to value them. In this study, the teachers’ and learners’ conflicting beliefs about negative feedback appeared to influence the teachers’ interactional behaviour by encouraging them to avoid the provision of corrective feedback during speaking practice. This thus implies that the negotiations of meaning, where negative feedback is interactionally provided, may have been limited by perceived negative effects of negative feedback on learners’ oral production. In other words, negotiations of meaning aiming at correcting and thus pushing the learners’ utterances towards greater comprehensibility and accuracy may have been perceived as face-threatening (see also Foster & Ohta, 2005, Naughton, 2006; Yoshida, 2013a) or as a sign of incompetence to speak the target language (Foster, 1998), resulting in an avoidance strategy to save face (Yoshida, 2013a). As we

will discuss in the following section, the teachers and learners appeared to engage in less face-threatening negotiations of meaning, adding further support to the argument that the conflicting beliefs about negative feedback may have impeded the teachers and learners from engaging in negotiations of meaning during which language data concerning the correctness of learners' utterances were provided, and learners' utterances were pushed towards greater accuracy levels.

Thirdly, it is also possible that the learners' beliefs about peer-led discussions played a role in limiting the number of negotiations of meaning in the PIs at the intermediate and advanced levels. As discussed before, some teachers' and learners' responses pointed to perceptions of PIs as relaxed and friendly environments. Since the learners in the PIs were allocated freedom and responsibility for the discourse, some learners' responses implied a likely adoption of interactional behaviours following their own pedagogical beliefs (e.g., beliefs about the importance of a conversation-based approach), but not always fully consistent with pedagogic goals set by tasks or the teachers. For example, Learner 1 (advanced level), when asked about the kind of interactions that promoted greater oral production, said: "I also think in peer interactions, but it [the discussion] is about things different from the class [...]." Thus, it is possible that the learners during the PIs at the intermediate and advanced levels felt too relaxed to engage in negotiations of meaning, possibly taking the easiest route (Naughton, 2006). As argued by Foster (1998), Foster and Ohta (2005) and Naughton (2006), learners' beliefs about PIs as 'light-hearted' or informal interactions rather than learning opportunities may result in learners avoiding communication breakdowns and holding up the interaction to adjust them.

## *Nature of negotiations of meaning*

Now turning to the nature of the negotiations of meaning that occurred at the three proficiency levels, explorations of the interactional data showed that the negotiations of meaning were typically performed around the pronunciation or meaning of individual words rather than interlocutors' wider meaning or intention. This was reflected in Learner 1's statement, when asked about the possibilities for negotiating meaning with the teacher:

### Extract 9.3. Quote from Learner 1 (basic level)

"Well, when they [learners] are participating, they don't frequently ask questions, but they sometimes ask the teacher [questions] about the meaning of a word."

This statement firstly suggests that the learners may not have frequently initiated negotiations of meaning during TLIs; and, secondly, that negotiations of meaning, when they occurred, were performed to negotiate meaning of individual words. This was corroborated by the interactional data which showed that the purpose of the negotiations of meaning was mainly to adjust and negotiate the meaning of isolated forms. In other words, the teachers and learners across proficiency levels engaged in interactional adjustments to negotiate the meaning of single words or expressions in response to misunderstandings or mispronunciations. The following extract is typical of the kind of negotiations of meaning which took place at the three proficiency levels:

Extract 9.4. A negotiation of meaning in PI 1 (basic level)

16. L4: //How can I say /*planchar*?//

17. T: How do you say-? Iron!=

18. L4: //Iron?=/

19. T: =Iron.

20. L4: //It is an i:ron//

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

The nature of negotiations of meaning at word level support previous empirical studies (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Pica, 1996a; Sheen, 2004; Shi, 2004; & Williams, 1999), which also found that negotiations of meaning were short and answered briefly (see Foster, 1998), and normally performed for adjusting lexical items rather than larger stretches of discourse or grammatical morphology (see Kanagy & Falodun, 1993).

The interactional data also showed that the negotiations of meanings in the TLIs and PIs across proficiency levels were mostly triggered by confirmation checks and clarification requests. Comprehension checks were only performed by the teachers in the TLIs, as consistent with Boulima (1999). However, they did not initiate any negotiation of meaning since they appeared to be used by the teachers as discourse markers rather than negotiation moves that triggered negotiations of meaning. Negotiations of meaning triggered by recasts were more frequent in the PIs than in the TLIs. The most infrequent negotiation moves in the TLIs and PIs were corrective repetitions, as also reported by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Again, it seems possible that the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs about negative feedback played a role in how they performed negotiations of meaning.

On the one hand, the recurrence of negotiations of meaning triggered by confirmation checks and clarification requests may be explained by the teachers' and learners' possible perceptions of them as less face-threatening. As observed in the interactional data, the confirmation

checks and clarification requests during TLIs and PIs did not involve explicit negative feedback, as illustrated in the extract below.

Extract 9.5. A negotiation of meaning in TLI 1 (basic level)

- |  |
|--|
| 38. T: [...] okay what other things you take with you? |
| 39. L13: //Take a ... bottle of water//                |
| 40. T: Okay.   |
| 41. L16: //Take a brik// [ <i>sic</i> ]                |
| 42. T: Take a?   |
| 43. L16: //Brik// [ <i>sic</i> ]                       |
| 44. T: Brik? [ <i>sic</i> ]                            |
| 45. L16: //Break//                                     |

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; //=AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

As shown in Extract 9.5, the teacher and L16 engage in a negotiation of meaning initiated by the mispronunciation of the word 'break.' In order to correct L16, the teacher initiates two confirmation checks that assist L16 in becoming aware of her mispronunciation which is corrected in line 45. It is apparent from this extract that the confirmation checks, as well as clarification requests, did not involve explicit negative feedback, suggesting that negotiations of meaning triggered by confirmation checks and clarification requests may have been considered by the teachers and learners as more effective strategies to provide or elicit correct target language information without involving a loss of learners' face.

Negotiations of meaning triggered by corrective repetitions or recasts, on the other hand, may have been perceived by the teachers and learners during the TLIs as face-threatening, motivating the teachers and learners to avoid them. This is in line with the argument that the learners' conflicting beliefs about negative feedback may have encouraged the teachers and learners to avoid engaging in negotiations of meaning that were possibly perceived to involve a loss of face. This is supported by

Foster and Ohta (2005) and Naughton (2006), who suggest that negotiations of meaning involving a potential loss of face and/or discouraging detours may be avoided by teachers and learners. The argument that corrective negotiations of meaning were perceived as face-threatening during the TLIs is also supported by the interactional data of the PIs. The PIs, creating a less face-threatening and more affective environment than the TLIs (see Brown, 2001; McDonough, 2004; Long & Porter, 1985), appeared to encourage the learners to engage in negotiations of meaning to provide each other with negative feedback, at least implicitly. The teachers in the interviews and learners in the focus groups both indicated an awareness of this practice. María, for example, said:

Extract 9.6. Quote from teacher María (basic level).

“In pairs because learners feel confident while speaking in pairs and it is also important in groups, because I think they give feedback to each other, and they listen to everybody too [...] there are some learners who can help them and correct them, and they are more conscious of what they are learning.”

This finding is consistent with those of other studies (Figueiredo, 2006; Mayo & Pica, 2000), in which negotiations of meaning to perform recasts or provide negative feedback were found to be recurrent in peer-led discussions, enabling learners to push their utterances towards target-like structures with no risk of transferring other learners' errors (Gass & Varonis, 1985, 1989). According to empirical research (Ellis & He, 1999; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Sheen, 2008; Swain, 1985, 2000, 2005), L2 learning can be fostered by providing learners with opportunities for modified output. Sheen (2008) argues that opportunities for learners modifying their output are facilitated by negotiations of meaning triggered by clarification requests and recasts. Therefore, the findings into the negotiations of meaning triggered by recasts and clarification requests during the PIs suggest that the learners benefitted from opportunities

to modify their oral production and thus push their utterances towards greater accuracy levels, and potential L2 learning. However, they in turn indicate that the learners' opportunities for negative feedback and modified output during the TLIs were limited.

In sum, the number of negotiations of meaning was varied across proficiency levels, low in some TLIs and PIs, and focused on adjusting individual words. The scarcity and limited nature of negotiations of meaning are consistent with a considerable amount of research which has set out to explore these interactional processes without controlling classroom variables (see, for example, Foster, 1998; Foster & Ohta, 2005; García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Sheen 2004). The findings of this study were unable to demonstrate that the FLIs promoted negotiations of meaning, in accordance with the principles of the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983, 1996). As discussed previously, interactional competence was described as a set of interactional abilities, including, for example, abilities to anticipate, negotiate and adjust breakdowns in maintaining shared understanding, and to arrive at intended meaning and joint understandings (Hall & Doehler, 2011; Krasmich, 1986; McCarthy, 2005; Young, 2003), among others. These interactional abilities are integrated in the concept of negotiation of meaning. Therefore, based on the scarcity and limited nature of negotiations of meaning in this study, it is apparent that the TLIs and PIs were not linguistic environments which provided the learners with opportunities to develop an interactional competence in terms of abilities to negotiate and adjust breakdowns in communication, and to arrive at joint understandings.

The scarcity and limited nature of negotiations of meaning raise intriguing questions as to the factors that hinder teachers and learners from engaging in negotiations of meaning. This research work puts forward the possibility that negotiations of meaning may be limited by conflicting beliefs concerning negative feedback. This suggestion is supported by the interactional evidence that negotiations of meaning involving short and implicit negative feedback were more frequent than those involving

more elaborate and explicit negotiations. For the purpose of exploring the FLIs, these findings are relevant for understanding how teachers and learners may be assisted in promoting negotiations of meaning during speaking practice. According to empirical studies (Aragão, 2011; Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Borg, 2011; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Mercer, 2011; Peng, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a), it seems possible that opportunities to negotiate meaning are enhanced if teachers and learners are assisted in mediating their cognition through awareness-raising processes (e.g., advice from tutors on more effective interactional behaviour, or reflection-based procedures). According to research literature, these processes can assist teachers and learners in raising an awareness of the interplay between beliefs and actions, resulting in the appropriation of ‘socially co-constructed’ beliefs which have a beneficial impact on more effective classroom interactional behaviour (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a), in this case, opportunities to negotiate meaning during both TLIs and PIs.

## Summary

So far, we have discussed that the nature of the FLIs (involving a focus on form or meaning, in TLIs or PIs, and other task characteristics) influenced learner talk in terms of language performance, discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning (see Table 7.42 in Chapter Seven). Namely, learner talk during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels:

- tended to be more fluent and complex in the meaning-focused than in form-focused interactions, and more fluent and complex in the PIs than in the TLIs;
- tended to be less accurate in the meaning-focused than in form-focused interactions, and less accurate in the PIs than in the TLIs;



- initiated a greater quantity and range of discourse functions in the PIs than in the TLIs.
- engaged in varied and generally low negotiations of meaning in the TLIs and PIs.
- negotiated meanings at word level in the TLIs and PIs.
- had greater opportunities for negative feedback, modified output, utterances pushed towards greater accuracy in the PIs than in the TLIs.

These findings can be explained in part by the influence of the nature of the FLIs on the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice which in turn had an impact on the three aspects of learner talk. As discussed in Sections Negotiations of meaning and Nature of negotiations of meaning, the above findings can also be attributed to the teachers' and learners' beliefs around speaking practice which appeared to shape the nature of the FLIs and in turn the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice.

## THE ROLE OF TEACHER AND LEARNER BELIEFS

This section discusses the beliefs that the teachers and learners appeared to have about how teaching and learning should take place during speaking practice (RQ3). It then discusses how and to what extent these beliefs shaped classroom interaction patterns, learning activities, and teaching practices during speaking practice (RQ4). This section concludes by summarising the influential role of the teachers' and learners' beliefs, and raising the need for teachers and learners to become aware of their beliefs around their teaching and learning context in order to promote more effective speaking practice sessions.

As discussed in Chapter Eight, the teachers and learners had an intricate set of beliefs around teaching- and learning-related practices

for speaking. That is, the teachers' and learners' responses pointed to an embrace of pedagogical beliefs (i.e., beliefs about the importance of practising speaking, a communicative approach to speaking and the development of learners' speaking skills) which appeared to be in conflict with beliefs about locally-situated needs (i.e., beliefs about class size and time constraints) and other perceived immediate demands (i.e., the need to cover textbooks, teach to the exam, and prioritise grammar practice). As suggested by the elicited data and corroborated by the interactional data, the interplay of beliefs concerning locally-situated needs reinforced by other perceived immediate demands were felt by the teachers (in the interviews) and learners (in the focus groups and questionnaires) to shape the teaching decision-making and classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels.

Overall, this section puts forward the argument that the effectiveness of speaking practice may be shaped by instructional and interactional factors which in turn are influenced by cognitive factors (i.e., beliefs), highlighting the need to explore and address belief systems around classroom interactions in order to ensure the effectiveness of speaking practice in developing learners' speaking skills.

## Teacher and learner beliefs

Overall, the teachers' and learners' responses pointed to beliefs about locally-situated needs, as suggested in the extract below.

Extract 9.7. Quote from Aranza (advanced level)

“Here the problem is the large class size and class time constraints; it is 5 hours for advanced classes. Sometimes what you do not want is to waste time in speaking activities”

Aranza's statement reveals her beliefs about class size and time constraints which were felt to influence her decision to practise speaking, as indicated in "sometimes what you do not want is to waste time in speaking activities." The three teachers, ten out of 15 learners in the focus groups (five at the basic; three at the intermediate; and two at the advanced levels) and a further eight learners in the questionnaires suggested responses which indicated beliefs about class size constraints. Moreover, the three teachers and Learner 4 at the advanced level suggested beliefs about class time constraints. These two beliefs about locally-situated needs alongside other perceived immediate demands (i.e., the need to cover textbooks, teach to the exam, and teach particular skills) and conflicting beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice and negative feedback were perceived by the teachers and learners to shape the teaching and interactional behaviour during speaking practice. In particular, the beliefs about locally-situated needs reinforced by other perceived immediate demands appeared to compel the teachers during speaking practice to 1) dominate the classroom discourse, 2) rely on question and answer routines, 3) prioritise grammar, and 4) rely on peer interactions. These teaching and interactional behaviours, influenced by beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands, were in turn felt to restrict learners' opportunities to interact; practise speaking; and develop speaking skills. Based on the above evidence corroborated by the interactional data, what this thus suggests is twofold. Firstly, teacher and learner beliefs around speaking practice can be conflicting, in that beliefs concerning locally-situated needs and/or immediate demands may influence classroom interactional behaviour in a way that is not consistent with the pedagogical beliefs that they also endorsed. Secondly, despite strong commitments to their pedagogical beliefs, teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs around their teaching and learning context may compel them to adopt interactional behaviours which are in detriment of developing learners' speaking skills.

With the aim of understanding how the teachers and learners in this context may be assisted in breaking away from interactions negatively influenced by their beliefs and thus engaging in more effective speaking practice sessions, the following section discusses the effects of their beliefs on teaching decisions and classroom interactional behaviour, drawing on findings from the elicited and interactional data.

## Influence of teacher and learner beliefs on speaking practice

Overall, the aforementioned beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands were felt by the teachers and learners to influence the classroom practices. As previously discussed, the beliefs about class time constraints appeared to compel the teachers to dominate the classroom discourse during speaking practice. For example, the learners in the focus groups felt that this dominance restricted their ability to speak:

Extract 9.8. Quote by Learner 3 (intermediate level)
“It is the teacher who most of the time explains the activities, gives examples and we don’t speak much.”

Learner 3’s explanation points to a belief that the intermediate teacher dominated the discourse classroom. “We don’t speak much” conveys the learner’s feeling that the teacher’s dominance over talk restricted his opportunity to speak. This feeling was shared by the advanced teacher in “I think that I largely dominate speaking.” The feeling that teachers dominated the classroom discourse during the speaking practice was borne out by the interactional data. Namely, the findings into the IRF patterns and turn length showed that the talk during the FLIs (whole recorded sessions) was dominated by the three teachers. In particular, the findings into the amount of talk indicated that the TLIs, during which

teacher-led speaking practice was carried out, were again dominated by teacher talk across proficiency levels. Despite the fact that the research literature has widely documented the teachers' dominance over classroom discourse (see, for example, Chaudron, 1988; Thornbury, 1996; Gharbavi & Iravani, 2014; Gutierrez, 1994; Walsh, 2006), the importance of these findings is threefold. Firstly, they indicate that the teachers' dominance over the classroom discourse may be due to their need to respond to what they perceive as being the locally-situated needs and immediate demands of their teaching context. Secondly, while the teachers and learners were to some extent aware of the teachers' control of the discourse, the practice conflicted with their beliefs about what was necessary for improving speaking skills. Thirdly, in order to tackle teacher dominance, there is first need to address their beliefs about locally-situated needs.

The beliefs about locally-situated needs were also felt by the teachers and learners to motivate a reliance on question-and-answer routines for speaking practice, as suggested below.

Extract 9.9. Quote from Learner 5 (advanced level)

"We cannot extend the interaction because of the time. Then, it is always the question and answer, and..."

Extract 9.10. Quote from María (basic level)

"I think that because of the number of learners the speaking is neglected, but I try to ask open-ended questions in the first part of the class [...] I try to ask, at least, each learner one question."

Both statements point to beliefs that class size and time constraints motivated a reliance on question-and-answer routines during speaking practice. As discussed previously, the learners felt that there were not

enough opportunities to answer questions despite the teachers' intentions to motivate speaking practice following question and answer routines. The perceptions of a reliance on question and answer routines for speaking practice were corroborated by the interactional data. The findings into the teacher-initiated exchanges showed that the most dominant exchanges during the FLIs at the three proficiency levels were to elicit information from learners. It was then found that these elicitations were in the form of questions. In exploring the effects of questions on the learners' oral production, display questions motivated lower fluency and complexity levels than referential questions, suggesting that the teachers' questions during the FLIs did not tend to push learners' utterances to be more fluent and complex. As in the case of the teachers' dominance over the classroom discourse, these findings have been previously reported in research literature, suggesting that, despite recent teaching approaches centred on learners' communicative competence (e.g., Communicative Language Teaching), question and answer routines prevail in language teaching and learning practices (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Walsh, 2006), and that display questions tend to dominate over referential questions during classroom interactions (see, for example, Farahian & Rezaee, 2012; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Petek, 2013; Walsh, 2006, 2011; Yang, 2010). Unsurprisingly, the findings of this study indicate that display questions prevailed during speaking practice despite the teachers taking on board beliefs about speaking practice following a communicative approach. Moreover, by highlighting discrepancies between what the teachers believed they should have done and what they actually did, these findings may be useful in heightening the teachers' awareness and aligning practices and goals.

The elicited data also suggested that the beliefs about locally-situated needs compelled the teachers to prioritise certain language skills and grammar practice, as suggested in the following extract:

Extract 9.11. *Quote from Tanya (intermediate level)*

“In a language class, it [the integration of the language skills] is obviously difficult, you neglect one for the other [...] You choose one of each skill group.”

We see in the intermediate teacher’s statement a belief that class time constraints influenced her to prioritise certain language skills, as suggested in “you choose one of each skill group.” The prioritising of receptive over productive skills and grammar practice were felt by the learners to have limited their opportunities to interact and practise speaking. Furthermore, in the case of the intermediate and advanced levels, the learners felt that there was a reliance on grammar practice which influenced a focus on form during speaking practice, as suggested in “but speaking in relation to grammar” said by the advanced Learner 3. The interactional data confirmed that the speaking practice in some TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels followed a focus on form:

Table 9.1. Focus of the TLIs and PIs at the three proficiency levels

	BASIC LEVEL	INTERMEDIATE LEVEL	ADVANCED
Form	6 (3 TLIs, 3 PIs)	1 (1 TLI)	2 (2 TLIs)
Meaning	5 (2 TLIs, 3 PIs)	9 (3 TLIs, 6 PIs)	6 (6 PIs)

In the form-focused interactions, the teachers and learners engaged in interactional exchanges which aimed at learners displaying an understanding of formulaic expressions or definitions of verbs. The focus on form of speaking practice can be explained by the teachers’ beliefs: firstly, that learners struggled with grammar (intermediate teacher); and sec-

only that they needed to master grammatical structures for their future profession as language teachers (advanced teacher). Therefore, the beliefs about class time constraints alongside these immediate demands may have compelled the teachers to practise speaking following a focus on form. The immediate issue that emerges from form-focused speaking practice is that learners may have fewer opportunities to develop their oral competence (i.e., high accuracy levels, but low fluency and complexity levels). Moreover, since learners are mostly required to display knowledge of specific (expressions or grammar) structures, learners may have limited opportunities to initiate a range of discourse functions and contribute to the classroom discourse. The above evidence adds further weight to the argument that the teachers should develop an awareness of their beliefs, and how these influence speaking practice and pedagogic goals.

Because of beliefs about class size and time constraints and perceived limitations of teacher-led speaking practice, the teachers and learners felt that the speaking practice relied on PIs. Overall, PIs were perceived by the teachers and learners to provide learners with a more intimate and less face-threatening environment and greater responsibility over the discourse than the TLIs. Specifically, they perceived that learners during PIs were able to benefit from peer learning, negative feedback, and opportunities for negotiated interactions. These perceived benefits are consistent with other studies whose findings indicate that PIs are beneficial for language learning (see, for example, Consolo, 2006; García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Philp & Tognini, 2009). The interactional data were unable to demonstrate that speaking practice relied on PIs since we observed that the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels was carried out in both TLIs and PIs. However, the explorations of the FLIs confirmed that the (meaning-focused) PIs provided learners with opportunities to push their utterances towards higher fluency and complexity levels, utilise a greater number and range of discourse functions, and engage in a greater



number of negotiations of meaning (during which their utterances were modified and pushed towards greater comprehensibility and accuracy) than the TLIs. In Section Beliefs around peer interactions for speaking practice, we raised the possibility that learners, free from the normal control exercised by the teachers, may engage in PIs following their own pedagogical beliefs (Gore, 1995), not in accordance with pedagogic goals established by the teacher or tasks (Larsen-Freeman, 2009), and thus not yielding expected learning outcomes (Williams, 1999). Despite some assertions in the elicited data that learners during PIs may go off topic and engage in personal discussions, the interactional data indicated that the learners during the PIs were performing the tasks as required by the teachers. It is possible that the presence of the observer and audio recorders close to them may have influenced them to complete the tasks, or that the teachers and learners were overly cautious and exaggerating the risk of learners going off topic. Thus, the interactional evidence (indicating an enhanced interactional space in PIs which is beneficial for developing learners' speaking skills) and elicited evidence (suggesting a reliance on PIs for speaking practice and a possibility of learners engaging in interactions not consistent with pedagogic goals) are valid reasons to promote teachers' and learners' autonomy during both TLIs and PIs; strengthening their beliefs about the benefits of PIs; and raising learners' awareness of the importance of engaging in interactions following pedagogic goals.

## Summary

The beliefs about locally-situated needs (i.e., beliefs about class size and time constraints) were perceived by the teachers and learners to influence the teachers' decision-making and classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice. In particular, these beliefs alongside perceived immediate demands (i.e., the need to cover textbooks, teach to the exam,

and teach particular skills or grammar practice) were felt to compel the teachers to 1) dominate the classroom discourse during speaking practice; 2) rely on question and answer routines for speaking practice; 3) prioritise receptive over productive skills and grammar practice; and 4) rely on PIs for speaking practice. The interactional evidence confirmed that the speaking practice was influenced by these teaching decisions and classroom interactional behaviour. Namely, it indicated that the teachers' dominance over talk, reliance on questions, and prioritising of form influenced and, in some cases, limited the learners' opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse during speaking practice. These findings thus suggest that beliefs about locally-situated needs and perceived immediate demands may exert a strong influence on classroom interactional behaviour despite strong commitments to pedagogical beliefs about the importance of practising speaking, adopting communicative approaches, and developing learners' speaking skills. The above interactional and elicited evidence adds weight to the argument that teachers and learners need to develop an understanding of more effective FLIs in which they engage to practise speaking. It is possible that the effectiveness of the FLIs and speaking practice can be ensured by raising the teachers' and learners' awareness of the effects of their beliefs, and by developing an understanding of scaffolding (interactional) strategies, as we shall discuss in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter Nine provided a detailed discussion of the findings of the interactional and elicited data. The first part of the chapter discussed how the nature of the FLIs (involving a focus on meaning or form, in TLI or PI, and other tasks characteristics) influenced and, in some cases, limited the learners' opportunities to push their utterances towards greater fluency, complexity, and accuracy; initiate discourse functions; and negotiate

meaning in the TLIs and PIs during speaking practice. In the case of negotiations of meaning, this first part discussed how the teachers' and learners' conflicting beliefs about negative feedback may have influenced the scarcity of negotiations of meaning. The second part of the chapter discussed how teacher and learner beliefs about locally-situated needs (i.e., beliefs about class size and time constraints) and other perceived immediate demands (i.e., a perceived need to teach to the exam; cover textbooks; and prioritise grammar practice sessions) shaped the speaking practice, classroom interactional behaviour, and learners' opportunities to interact. In particular, these beliefs were found to compel the teachers' dominance over the classroom discourse, reliance on question and answer routines, prioritising of receptive rather than productive skills and grammar practice. The influence of the teachers' and learners' beliefs on the above teaching and interactional behaviour appeared to be in conflict with their pedagogically-informed beliefs around speaking practice and a communicative approach to it, and to reinforce a reliance on speaking practice led by learner peers.

The above interactional and elicited evidence is valid enough to assist teachers and learners in breaking away from teaching- and learning-related practices and interactional behaviour influenced by their complex belief systems, and in developing an understanding of more effective interactions in which they engage to practise speaking. In order to attain this, teachers and learners under these circumstances need to go through awareness-raising processes involving personal reflection (see Aragão, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011, Yoshida, 2013a, 2013b) and interaction with advisors (see Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a, 2013b). Of particular relevance for the above suggestion, awareness-raising processes are claimed to be beneficial not only for mediating teacher and learner cognition (e.g., beliefs), but also for enhancing classroom interactional behaviour (Walsh, 2013). As we shall discuss in the next chapter, the awareness-raising processes that this book suggests for teachers and learners are much in line with thinking outlined by Walsh (2003),

who argues that the promotion of more efficient and effective teaching practices and interactional strategies resides in the teacher. However, the above interactional and elicited evidence also raises the need to encourage learners to promote a more agentive role in creating interactional and learning opportunities during TLIs as well as PIs. These processes will involve continually meaningful cycles of observation, reflection and action in order to promote a context-sensitive pedagogy for speaking practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Walsh, 2013).

Overall, this chapter made three broad contributions. Firstly, while theoretical as well as empirical research has widely argued that classroom interactions are beneficial for developing learners' speaking skills, the above interactional and elicited evidence suggests that the effectiveness of classroom interactions may be influenced by instructional and interactional factors which are in turn shaped by cognitive factors (i.e., perceptions, beliefs, attitudes). Secondly, it showed that classroom interactions may be influenced by conflicting beliefs and beliefs about locally-situated needs despite strong commitments to pedagogical principles that the participants endorse. This highlights the strong influence of conflicting beliefs and beliefs about locally-situated needs over pedagogical beliefs during classroom interactions. Thirdly, it proved that external (i.e., classroom interactional behaviour) and internal (the teachers' and learners' beliefs) factors need to be explored *in situ* in order to gain accurate insights into classroom interactions with a view to promoting context-sensitive teaching and learning practices.

## Chapter Ten

# CONCLUSIONS



## REVIEW AND AIMS OF THE EXPLORATIONS OF THE FLIS

The present book explored the foreign language interactions (FLIs) in which teachers and learners at three proficiency levels engaged to practise speaking English. This book was initially motivated by empirical evidence that learners are sometimes unable to develop their speaking skills during classroom interactions (Altamiro, 2000; Consolo, 2006; Walsh, 2002), and the scarcity of theoretical as well as empirical studies which explore the interactions in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms (Medgyes, 2000), as discussed in Chapter One.

In order to explore the FLIs, the book adopted an approach which aimed at gaining an understanding of external (i.e., interactions and use of interactional strategies) and internal (i.e., teacher and learner perceptions and beliefs) factors that shape the effectiveness of classroom interactions for speaking practice, as claimed by research literature outlined in Chapters Two to Four. Following this approach, the explorations were conducted in three on-going classes in which adult learners interacted and practised English as part of a five-year teacher/translator training programme. A range of research tools (recorded interactions, the FISF-LI, teacher interviews, and learner focus groups and questionnaires) were used to gather the interactional and elicited data which were then analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The explorations were exploratory and naturalistic but also explanatory, drawing on relevant theoretical and empirical research to interpret instructional, interactional and cognitive factors found in the data.

The primary aim of the explorations was to examine the extent to which the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels was conducive to promoting learners' opportunities for developing speaking skills, entailing not only descriptions of interactional patterns, but also explorations of teacher and learner perceptions and beliefs around speaking practice. The primary aim of the explorations of the FLIs was thus fulfilled by having gained an understanding of the speaking practice at the

three proficiency levels by means of the explorations of instructional, interactional and cognitive factors.

## NATURE OF SPEAKING PRACTICE IN THE THREE EFL CLASSROOMS

As stated in Chapter One, five research questions (RQs) guided the explorations of the FLIs. This section addresses the RQs in order to draw the findings together, and understand the nature of the speaking practice in the three EFL classrooms.

RQ1 What are the factors that influence the development of learners' speaking skills during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels? Overall, the explorations found that there was a set of instructional, interactional and cognitive factors that were intertwined, and influential on learner performance during speaking practice. That is, teacher decision-making (i.e., instructional factors) and classroom interactional behaviour (i.e., interactional factors) during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels were influenced by the teachers' and learners' beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands (i.e., cognitive factors), suggesting that the effectiveness of the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels and learner achievement were shaped by beliefs around their teaching and learning context and, particularly, speaking practice.

RQ2 What is the likely impact of teaching and interactional patterns on learner talk, namely, learners' language performance, discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning, during speaking practice across proficiency levels? At the three proficiency levels, the nature of the FLIs, involving a focus on form or meaning, in teacher-led interactions (TLIs) or peer interactions (PIs), and other task characteristics, influenced learner talk in terms of language performance, discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning. Namely, learner talk during speaking practice at the three proficiency levels:



- tended to be more fluent and complex in the meaning-focused than in form-focused interactions, and more fluent and complex in the PIs than in the TLIs;
- tended to be less accurate in the meaning-focused than in form-focused interactions, and less accurate in the PIs than in the TLIs;
- initiated a greater quantity and range of discourse functions in the PIs than in the TLIs.
- engaged in varied and generally low negotiations of meaning in the TLIs and PIs.
- negotiated meanings at word level in the TLIs and PIs.
- had greater opportunities for negative feedback, modified output, utterances pushed towards greater accuracy in the PIs than in the TLIs.

The above findings can partly be explained by the influence of the nature of the FLIs on the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice which in turn had an impact on the learners' language performance, use of discourse functions, and opportunities to negotiate meaning. The above learner performance can also be attributed to the teachers' and learners' beliefs around speaking practice which appeared to be complex, conflicting, and influential on the nature of the FLIs and in turn the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice (see below).

RQ3 What beliefs do teachers and learners at the three proficiency levels seem to have about classroom interactions and, particularly, speaking practice? And RQ4 How and to what extent do these beliefs appear to influence teaching and learning practices and interactional patterns during speaking practice? In order to answer RQ3 and RQ4, Figure 10.1 illustrates the teachers' and learners' beliefs, their nature, and influential role in teaching and learning decision-making, interactional patterns and learner performance during speaking practice:

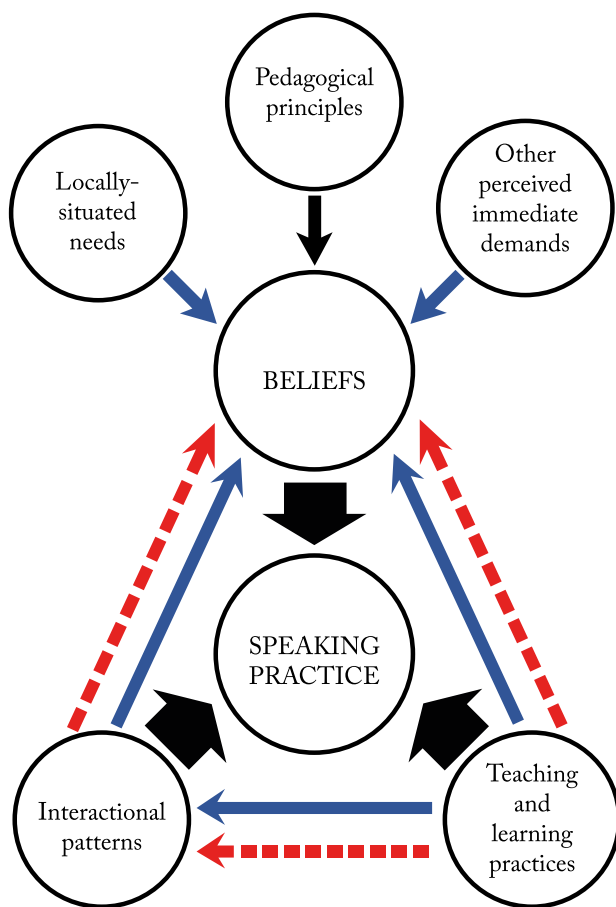


Figure 10.1 Speaking practice at the three proficiency levels

As illustrated in Figure 10.1, there was an interplay of contextual factors, such as pedagogical principles (i.e., importance of practising speaking, opportunities to interact, a communicative approach to speaking practice, and development of learners' speaking skills), locally-situated needs (i.e., class size and time constraints) and other perceived immediate demands (i.e., the need to cover textbooks, teach to the exam, teach the language

form), which fed into the teachers' and learners' beliefs. Fed by the aforementioned factors, the teachers' and learners' beliefs were complex, and influential on the classroom behaviour during speaking practice. That is, as indicated by the blue arrows, the teachers' and learners' pedagogical beliefs in interaction with beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived immediate demands shaped the teaching and learning practices which in turn had an impact on the classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice. Namely, the beliefs about class size and time constraints reinforced by other perceived immediate demands compelled the teachers to 1) dominate the discourse; 2) rely on question and answer routines; 3) teach to the exam; 4) prioritise grammar practice; and 5) rely on PIs for speaking practice. Due to the fact that the teachers' and learners' beliefs about locally-situated needs and other perceived demands influenced the classroom teaching and learning behaviour in ways that were not entirely consistent with the teachers' and learners' pedagogical beliefs, the teachers' and learners' beliefs were also conflicting.

The interactional data firstly corroborated that the teachers dominated the classroom discourse during speaking practice in terms of discourse moves (i.e., IRF pattern), turn length, amount of talk, and use of (display) questions, limiting learners' opportunities to contribute to the teacher-led classroom discourse. Secondly, the interactional data confirmed that the teachers' instructional decisions (i.e., a focus on form or meaning, teacher-led or peer interactions, speaking tasks, and avoidance of negative feedback during speaking practice) influenced and, in some cases, limited the learners' opportunities to develop speaking skills, as indicated by the findings into learners' length of responses, language performance, discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning. The teachers' and learners' perceptions of limitations of the teacher-led speaking practice, corroborated by the interactional data, also appeared to reinforce a reliance on PIs for speaking practice. The interactional data were able to confirm that the PIs provided learners with greater opportunities to 1) push their utterances towards greater fluency and complexity, 2)

initiate a wider range of discourse functions, 3) and engage in a higher number of negotiations of meaning than the TLIs. Based on these findings and some assumptions that learners may go off topic during PIs, we highlighted the importance of carrying out learner-led speaking practice during which learners' interactional behaviour is aligned with the pedagogical goals set by tasks or teachers.

**RQ5** What are the implications of the above for designing more effective classroom interactions, learning activities and teaching practices for speaking practice? Overall, the elicited and interactional evidence suggests that the effectiveness of the speaking practice at the three proficiency levels was shaped by an interplay of instructional (i.e., teaching and learning practices), interactional (i.e., classroom interactional patterns) and cognitive (i.e. teacher and learner perceptions and beliefs) factors that need consideration in order to promote the effectiveness of FLIs and thus learner achievement. This evidence is valid enough to assist teachers and learners in raising an awareness of their beliefs, and how their beliefs influence the effectiveness of speaking practice, classroom behaviour, and learner achievement.

In order for teachers and learners to break away from teaching and learning practices influenced by their intricate beliefs and thus engage in more effective interactions for practising speaking, the explorations of the FLIs suggest that by going through awareness-raising and dialogue-based interventions, the teachers and learners may develop an understanding of more effective interactions in which they practise speaking. As illustrated by the red square-dotted arrows in Figure 10.1, these interventions need to be centred on the interplay between beliefs and classroom behaviour, and cyclical in the sense that when the teachers and learners start perceiving an enhancement in their classroom behaviour, new beliefs and reflective practices may progressively be promoted (Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a;), having a beneficial impact on subsequent interactions for speaking practice. The following section outlines these interventions and their pedagogical implications for speaking practice.

## PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As discussed in the previous section, the limitations of the speaking practice found in the FLIs at the three proficiency levels raise the need to assist teachers and learners in breaking away from teaching and learning practices and interactional patterns influenced by their beliefs around their teaching and learning context. In order to attain this, teachers and learners should go through interventions (henceforth awareness-raising processes) during which the teachers and learners are assisted in raising an awareness of:

1. the effects of their (conflicting) beliefs on speaking practice,
2. the importance of learners adopting interactional behaviours during PIs which are consistent with pedagogical goals set by tasks or teachers,
3. the importance of negative feedback during speaking practice, and
4. the use of interactional strategies towards enhancing the interactional space during both TLIs and PIs.

In attaining the above, we believe that they may gradually engage in a *scaffolded speaking practice*, defined as speaking practice sessions during which teachers and learners actively interact to maximise the interactional space and thus collaboratively create learning opportunities in both teacher- and peer-led interactions. The notion of scaffolded speaking practice is very much in line with Walsh's (2013) argument that language pedagogy must be sensitive to a group of teachers and learners who pursue a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context. Moreover, the scaffolded speaking practice is founded on the notion of *scaffolding* that is commonly related to Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory which, as discussed in Chapter One, argues that social interaction is the basis of learning and development (Walqui, 2006). As previously

mentioned, scaffolding in language education refers to temporary *context-sensitive assistance* that teachers provide to learners through collaborative teaching and learning (Walsh, 2013), for example, speech modifications, teacher modelling, visual material, and hands-on learning, etc. (Ovando, Collier & Combs, 2003). In order to promote *learner autonomy* during classroom interactions, the scaffolds need to be gradually transformed, re-structured or dismantled (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, Walqui, 2006). According to Walqui (2006), scaffolding in language education consists of three pedagogical levels:

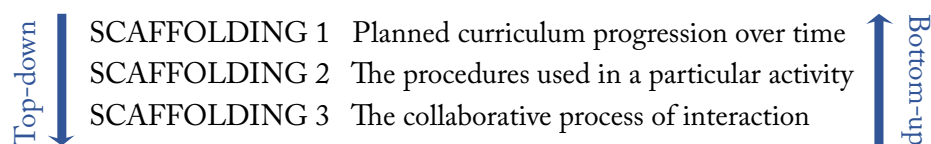


Figure 10.2 A top-down and bottom-up perspective of scaffolding (Walqui, 2006)

As shown in Figure 10.2, the scaffolding levels go from macro to micro, from planned to improvised, and from structure to process (Gibbons, 2003, in Walqui, 2006). Although the three levels suggest a top-down structure, a bottom-up change can transform the scaffolding at the top (Walqui, 2006). As we shall see in Sections Teacher workshop, Learner reflective tools and Suggestions for pre-service teaching training, the awareness-raising processes, in essence, aim to promote a bottom-up perspective of scaffolded speaking practice, which can gradually promote a top-down perspective of scaffolded speaking practice. Consistent with Kumaravadivelu's (2001) and Walsh's (2013) argument that learners also need to experience a sense of responsibility for assisting their own learning and that of their peers, the awareness-raising processes should involve not only instructors (i.e., language teachers and teacher educators) but also learners. This decision is based on the research evidence that learners, as individuals with equal

knowledge, have been found to yield positive learning outcomes that are not possible without each other's collaborative assistance (Gibbons, 2002, 2015; see also Walqui, 2006). Therefore, teachers as well as learners should be assisted in raising an awareness of scaffolding strategies for foreign language interactions during which “discovery and joint construction occur” (Walqui, 2006). The following figure illustrates the process through which we suggest that scaffolded speaking practice may be promoted:

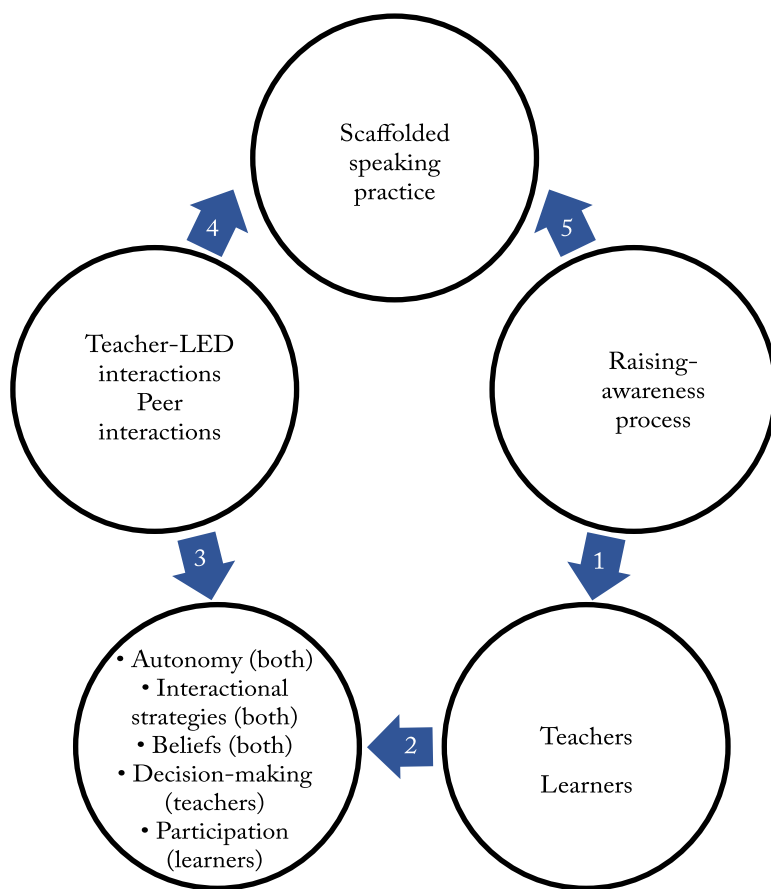


Figure 10.3 Process for scaffolded speaking practice

As stated previously, the aims of the awareness-raising processes are to assist teachers and learners in becoming aware of the effects of their beliefs around their teaching and learning context, and in promoting interactions which are aimed at collaboratively maximising interactional and thus learning opportunities. As Figure 10.3 shows, the scaffolded speaking practice feeds and is fed by continuously cyclical awareness-raising processes. Awareness-raising processes are relevant for promoting scaffolded speaking practice because they are claimed to promote teachers' and learners' understanding of their context, exploit learning opportunities, and address problems that are context-specific (Walsh, 2013). As indicated by their beliefs around concerns about immediate circumstances, and the fact that these shaped how they interacted, it is apparent that the teachers and learners in this study continuously carried out self-, teaching- and learning-related reflection. It should be important to direct this reflection towards a better understanding of FLIs, teachers' and learners' interactional strategies, and ways through which teachers and learners can co-construct language learning collaboratively. This *consciousness* is believed to be central not only to creating learning opportunities, but also to subsequent interactional reflection (Walsh, 2003; see also Farr & Riordan, 2015). Thus, by assisting teachers and learners in directing their reflective practices towards their beliefs and use of interactional strategies, and aligning them with joint pedagogical goals (Walsh, 2013), we suggest that they may gradually engage in TLIs and PIs during which speaking practice is scaffolded, and the interactional space thus maximised. Note in Figure 10.3 that the awareness-raising processes are cyclical, involving inter-related reflective practices consistent with Burns' (2005, as cited in Walsh, 2013) suggestion.

According to Kumaravadivelu (2001), these cyclical processes should involve both instructors and learners, and aim at developing knowledge, skills, attitude and autonomy necessary for carrying out meaningfully context-sensitive pedagogy. In line with Kumaravadivelu's (2001) suggestion, Sections Teacher workshop, Learner reflective tools and Suggestions



for pre-service teaching training, outline the awareness-raising processes which can be carried out in order to provide instructors and learners with the tools to direct their reflective practices towards maximising the interactional space, thus collaboratively creating learning opportunities in TLIs and PIs. The procedures are generally based on collaborative dialoguing which, in the case of teachers, is believed to redirect their attention away from materials-based decisions (e.g., use of textbooks or practice or activities to teach to the exam) or methodology-based decisions (e.g., reliance on IRF patterns, unaligned use of questions and discourse moves) towards decisions based on choices of interactional strategies (Walsh, 2003; 2013). In Section Teacher workshop, we describe the workshops that should be carried out with instructors. These workshops consist of a series of data-led reflection procedures. These workshops are not centred on imposing change or giving too much guidance which, according to Walsh (2003), may be self-defeating. Rather, the workshops are aimed at encouraging teachers to raise their awareness of the factors around speaking practice through a process of reflection and action founded on dialoguing. In Section Learner reflective tools, we outline the reflective tools, guided by dialoguing, which may assist learners in becoming aware of the effects of their beliefs (e.g., conflicting beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice and negative feedback) and the importance of their participation during speaking practice in both TLIs and PIs. In Section Suggestions for pre-service teaching training, we provide some further suggestions for teacher educators in microteaching workshops.

## Teacher workshop

### OBJECTIVE:

- To promote teacher autonomy
- To encourage reflection on the use of interactional strategies towards promoting interactional and learning opportunities

### TOOLS:

- Collaborative dialogue
- Interactional data samples
- Reflection-action process

Through a reflection-action process grounded in dialoguing, the objectives of this workshop are to raise teachers' awareness of the effects of their beliefs, and promote the use of context-sensitive and consciously goal-oriented interactional strategies with a view to scaffolding speaking practice sessions. In general, the argument that lies behind this workshop is that a reflection-action process, through dialoguing (Walsh, 2013), may contribute to *teacher autonomy* (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Based on the interactional and elicited evidence that the teachers' instructional and interactional behaviour was responsive to perceived locally-situated needs and other immediate demands, this workshop builds on this ability, in that it suggests that instructors may also respond to particularities concerning their teaching and interactional behaviour.

This workshop is aimed at assisting teachers in developing an understanding of how they can direct their use of interactional strategies towards maximising the interactional space and thus learning opportunities. This may also be relevant for encouraging the teachers' awareness of the

importance of their data-based reflection, due to evidence that suggests that teachers do not know or are not taught how to reflect (Walsh, 2013). In order to conduct this workshop, teachers should bring their own interactional data which are used as aids to promote their reflection. Therefore, teachers should audio record from five to seven minutes of teacher-led speaking practice and, if they agree, transcribe them, as in Extract 10.2.

Extract 10.2. Example of data for Workshop 1

54. T: L7 is there something you would like to share? You have- what do you have? Dogs? Cats?
55. L7: Turtle.
56. T: A turtle? ... So what's the relationship like with a turtle?
57. LL: [Laugh]
58. T: I mean!- ... It has always intrigued me gi:rls!
59. L7: It's nice ... because em ... for example when I fee:d it ... he starts to- [1] I don't know how do you say /hit the water/?
60. T: Yes
61. L1: *Patalear*.
62. T: To KICK.
63. L7: To kick the water and sounds a::h ... a:nd you walk around the [1] pecera? How do you say *pecera*?
64. T: The: water tank?
65. L7: The water tank and he- he swims with you ... and it's- I like it and=
66. T: Really. =Can you pet that thing? You know like a dog?
67. L7: E::m=
68. T: =It's different right? ... Like people who have fish ... I'm like 'what do you do with fish? [LL laugh] You just=

*Note:* T=Teacher; L#=Learner and its number in the interaction; LL=Several learners; // =AS-unit boundary; <>=clause boundary

Teachers recording their own data follows Walsh's (2013) argument that reflective practices based on teachers' own data are likely to result in *teaching consciousness* and thus a greater change in teaching and interactional behaviour. This *consciousness* is of particular relevance for this workshop because it suggests that teachers, by being in contact with their own data (Walsh, 2003), may be open to reflecting on and thus developing an awareness of their interactional strategies and teaching choices. As argued by Kumaravadivelu (2001), teachers' self-explorations can involve developing interpretative strategies of observation, analysis, and evaluation of their own teaching and interactional acts in order to re-create personal meaning. This argument is in line with our suggestion (see Chapter Seven) that teachers can maintain control over the interaction whilst also creating greater opportunities for learners to interact and contribute to the classroom discourse if they develop an understanding of their interactional strategies. In order to attain this, teachers' reflective practice needs to be directed towards their use of interactional strategies in relation to the pedagogical goal of the (minute-to-minute) interaction. According to Walsh (2003), this data-led reflective process is facilitated by teachers' metalanguage knowledge. In order to guide the teachers' reflections, open-ended questions should be initiated, for example:

- What is the goal of the interaction in the extract?
- What interactional strategies are being used?
- What would be the effects of the interactional strategies on learner talk?
- How are interactional and learning opportunities created in this extract?
- Are the effects of her interactional strategies aligned with the goal of the interaction?

This workshop intends that teachers, exploring their own and others' data, reflect on, describe and explore their interactional strategies and

teaching choices through dialoguing. Through dialoguing, Walsh (2013) contends that professional development occurs. Since teachers through exploring, discovering and dialoguing are claimed to direct their attention towards decisions based on interactional choice, without overloading them with extra work (Walsh, 2003). If possible, this dialoguing should be conducted in groups. The rationale of dialoguing groups is that they are claimed to be more effective for improving the interface between beliefs and classroom behaviour than reflection performed individually (Farrell, 1999; Walsh, 2013). As reported by Farrell (1999), group dialoguing encourages teachers to reflect on their profession, resulting in more effective teaching practices. This interface is explained by Senge (1990, in Farrell, 1999), who argues that dialoguing groups complement individual members' strengths, and compensate for each member's limitations, leading to the achievement of common goals rather than individual goals. This reflective process thus becomes not only dialogic, but also dialectic since it is believed to lead to individual ownership of newly co-constructed beliefs and thus actions (Walsh, 2013). In particular, the aim of teachers reflecting and describing their interactional behaviour is to enable them to *notice*, because noticing is the first step in being able to describe interactional processes and to make subsequent changes (Walsh, 2003). According to Kumaravadivelu (2001), these reflective interpretations and evaluations can enrich the teachers' subsequent planning and teaching performance.

The concluding part of this workshop needs to be performed as a discussion among all teachers that participated. The argument that lies behind this is that collaborative discussions enable teachers to articulate thoughts and ideas with a view to enhancing teaching and learning understanding (Walsh, 2013). That is, teachers during this discussion are encouraged to articulate discoveries that they found in the interactional data, aspects and effects of their talk that they had not previously known about, and devise plans and actions for classroom interactions based on conscious interactional and teaching choices. In line with Burns' (2005,

as cited in Walsh, 2013) suggestion that reflection should be encouraged in inter-related practices, it is important that subsequent workshops are carried out to continue promoting and strengthening teachers' reflection and consciousness of their interactional behaviour during speaking practice. It is possible that subsequent reflective practices led and informed by teachers' own data are promoted if the teachers perceive a sense of teaching and interactional improvement.

## Learner reflective tools

### OBJECTIVE:

- To promote learner autonomy
- To promote learners' reflection on their participation and affective, professional and pedagogical beliefs

### TOOLS:

- Diaries
- Dialogue
- Advice from academic tutors

Learner participation is fundamental to ensuring the success of classroom interactions. As suggested by the findings of the explorations of the FLIs, the learner participation in the TLIs and PIs was influenced by learners' beliefs (see also Aragão, 2011; Morita, 2004; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a), namely, conflicting beliefs about teacher-led speaking practice and negative feedback. This evidence raises the need to explore learners' beliefs and align them with pedagogical goals since these cognitive factors shape how learners organise their learning, the activities in which they participate and their participa-

tion in the interactions (Yoshida, 2013a). According to Yoshida (2013a), one way to tackle this is through promoting learner reflection on beliefs about 'how things are' and 'how things should be' in the learning process during TLIs and PIs. Learners' reflection on the interplay between beliefs and classroom actions is of particular importance for teacher trainees who will be working and relying on classroom interactions to teach the language. Thus, in order to enhance learner participation, strengthen perceived benefits of both TLIs and PIs and promote learners' reflective practices for future teaching careers, learners need to be assisted in mediating their cognition (i.e., beliefs and perceptions) from the beginning of, and throughout, the teacher training programme.

Since learners are not always aware of their own beliefs (Yoshida, 2013a), or able to change their actions by themselves (Yoshida, 2013a), the use of diaries is claimed to (partly) assist learners in raising an awareness of their participation, their role during the learning process, and the effects of their beliefs (Farr & Riordan, 2015; Gass & Mackey, 2007). The idea of using diaries as reflecting tools follows Kumaravadivelu's (2001) suggestion that learners need to be given a set of cognitive, metacognitive, and affective techniques that they can use for successful learning. Diaries, in which learners write their own histories (Kumaravadivelu, 2001), can be used by them to reflect on and monitor their language learning progress (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Therefore, without assessing the content (see Gass & Mackey, 2007; Hargreaves, 2004), learners should frequently write their cognitive, metacognitive and affective experiences. In accordance with Gass & Mackey's (2007) suggestion, diaries should have a semi-open structure so that learners write their experiences. That is, learners should have the freedom to write whatever they consider is relevant during the learning process; however, their reflection should be guided (possibly by teachers or tutors) towards their beliefs around speaking practice, their participation, and negative feedback; beliefs that shape learner participation during FLIs.

Due to the fact that beliefs are context-specific, dynamic and discursively co-constructed (Alanen, 2003; Barcelos, 2003; Navarro & Thornton, 2011; Yoshida, 2013a; Woods, 2003), the assistance in strengthening and/or aligning learners' beliefs with pedagogic goals regarding speaking practice can be provided by language teachers or academic tutors. Learners and language teachers or academic tutors need to engage in a dialogue during which they verbalise the learning process and experiences, and strengthen or co-construct new beliefs that lead to actions that are more effective for enhancing learner participation during speaking practice in both in TLIs and PIs (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Yoshida, 2013a). As Navarro and Thornton (2011) put it, participation is enhanced when learners, through both written (diaries) and spoken (dialoguing with teachers or academic tutors) interactions as scaffolds (Mynard & Navarro, 2010; Walsh, 2013), are "able to see aspects of their learning from new perspectives, re-interpreting their actions in a way which impacts their learning beliefs and hence their future behaviour" (p. 297). Once learners start perceiving a success in the new or reinforced interplay between learning beliefs and actions (Yoshida, 2013a; Navarro & Thornton, 2011), the process of learner reflection may become cyclical, resulting in greater involvement in (scaffolded) speaking practice sessions and, more importantly, in their future careers as EFL teachers.

## Suggestions for pre-service teaching training

In order to promote scaffolded speaking practice sessions, the whole teaching and learning community, involving learners, language teachers, academic tutors and teacher educators, should follow this aim through promoting cyclically reflective practices (see Figure 10.2) centred on the interplay between beliefs and classroom behaviour. Based on the arguments that pre-service teachers' minds are "anything but atheoretical clean slates" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p.552), and that reflective prac-



tice can be taught explicitly, directly and thoughtfully (Russell, 2005, in Walsh, 2013), we strongly suggest that learners are taught throughout their teacher training how to reflect on their interactional behaviour and theories, that is, assumption and belief systems they will inevitably have. In general, based on the findings of the explorations of the FLIs, we suggest that teacher educators provide opportunities to

- encourage learners to think critically in order for them to relate their personal and professional knowledge to their teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).
- take into account learners' voices and visions (Kumaravadivelu (2001);
- develop reflective practices based on learners' criteria as part of their professional practice (Walsh, 2003), not as an institutional requirement (Walsh, 2013);
- develop learners' interactional skills and competence in order to become effective interactants (e.g., maximize opportunities to engage in negotiations of meaning) (Walsh, 2013);
- adapt predetermined pedagogies to suit particular pedagogical goals so that they derive their own personal theory of practice (Freeman, 1996; see also Kumaravadivelu, 2001); and
- equip learners with basic research skills so that teaching and interactional explorations are conducted by learners throughout and after their teaching training (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Walsh, 2013).

Again, the above suggestions can be promoted through dialogic discourse that learners and teacher educators hold during and throughout pre-service teaching training. As discussed in Section Teacher workshop, the dialogic discourse may enable learners and teacher educators not only to promote reflective practices (Walsh, 2013), but also to provide learners with opportunities to co-construct meaning and beliefs (Ku-

maravadivelu, 2001) which will shape their learning and future teaching practices and careers (Walsh, 2013).

In sum, the awareness-raising processes are aimed at raising teachers' and learners' awareness of the effects of beliefs around the teaching and learning context, and at developing an understanding of more effective FLIs during which interactional and teaching behaviour maximises interactional space and thus learning opportunities in TLIs and PIs. These data-led procedures can promote a bottom-up perspective of scaffolding for speaking practice, the notion of scaffolded speaking practice, so that a top-down perspective is gradually adopted by the community. This book argues that once communities direct reflective practices towards promoting teacher and learner autonomy, and collaboratively works towards goal-oriented teaching and learning practices (Kumara-avadivelu, 2001; Walsh, 2003), they will benefit from not only carrying out scaffolded speaking practice, but also exploiting learning opportunities inside and outside the classroom.

## CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The present book argued that classroom interactions are fundamental in order to develop learners' linguistic and interactional competence. Based on its findings, the contribution of this book has been to enhance our understanding of how the effectiveness of classroom interactions resides not only in learners' opportunities to contribute to the classroom discourse, be exposed to comprehensible input, and modify their output, but also in teachers' and learners' underlying beliefs which play an influential role in shaping teaching decision-making, classroom interactional behaviour and task performance, influencing in turn learners' language performance and acquisition of speaking competence.

On the basis of this book, there are a number of aspects that need further investigation and consolidation. Due to time constraints, the data

were collected at the end of the semester. This therefore raises the need to replicate these explorations in longitudinal studies which are conducted throughout, at least, a semester. By doing this, these studies would firstly trace with greater accuracy the interplay between beliefs, teachers' decision-making and classroom interactional behaviour during speaking practice. Secondly, they would allow us to develop a better understanding of the link between the influence of beliefs on teacher pedagogical choices and learner interactional behaviour and achievement. Thirdly, the design of the research tools (i.e., the FISFLI, interviews, focus groups and questionnaires) could continuously be informed and fine-tuned by the interactional data in order to address particular phenomena in greater depth (e.g., teachers' interactional and teaching decisions, beliefs about locally-situated needs, degree of learners' involvement, etc.).

The explorations of the FLIs adopted an approach that allowed an understanding of interactional and cognitive factors that played a role in shaping the FLIs. This understanding was partly facilitated by the use of the FISFLI which provided insights into the nature of the FLIs at the three proficiency levels, and its effects on learner talk, involving three learner variables: language performance, discourse functions and negotiations of meaning. It would be interesting to be informed whether the FISFLI was helpful for other EFL teachers interested in examining classroom interactional behaviour. In particular, it would be useful to receive feedback about whether the FISFLI needs fine-tuning so that it can be used in other teaching contexts.

The present book concludes that teachers and learners who are experiencing limitations in their FLIs need assistance in breaking away from entrenched interactional and teaching practices, influenced by their beliefs about the teaching and learning context, in order to promote more effective interactions for the speaking practice. Through reflection and dialogue, we argue that this assistance needs to be centred on raising the teachers' and learners' awareness of their beliefs, and on enabling them to make teaching, learning and interactional choices in relation to peda-

gogic goals of speaking practice. We also maintain that scaffolded speaking practice will be promoted when teachers and learners direct their reflective practices towards the effects of their beliefs, and interactions in which pedagogic goals are collaboratively achieved. However, further research needs to be undertaken in order to investigate the impact of the awareness-raising processes on 1) new co-constructed beliefs, 2) the interplay between beliefs and classroom actions, and 3) classroom teaching and interactional behaviour during speaking practice. It would also be interesting to train learners in basic research skills for collecting their own data, promote data-led reflective practices, and explore the impact of these explorations on their interactional behaviour in language classes and/or pre-service teaching workshops.

As stated throughout this book, the primary goal was to explore the FLIs in which the teachers and learners engaged to practise speaking English, with a view to understanding how teachers and learners may perform more effective interactions. It is hoped that this book will contribute to the academic study of FLIs and of the link between beliefs and classroom interactions. Moreover, we hope that these explorations, approach and findings are useful for other EFL teachers who are immersed in similar conditions, and experiencing limitations of classroom interactions for speaking practice.

## REFERENCES



## REFERENCES

- Ahmed, M. K. (1994). Speaking as cognitive regulation: A Vygotskian perspective on dialogic communication. In J.P. Lantolf and G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 157-172). USA: Ablex Publishing Cooperation.
- Alanen, R., (2003). A sociocultural approach to young language learners' beliefs about language learning. In: Kalaja, P., Barcelos, A.M.F. (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches* (pp. 55-85). Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Allen, L. Q. (2002). Teachers' pedagogical beliefs and the standards for foreign language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 35(5), 518-29.
- Allen, L. Q. (2013). Teachers' beliefs about developing language proficiency within the context of study abroad. *System*, 41(1), 134-148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.01.020>
- Allwright, D. & Bailey, K. M. (1991). *Focus on the language learner*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Allwright, D. (1984a). Why don't learners learn what teachers teach? - The Interaction Hypothesis. In Singleton, D. M. and Little, D. G. (Eds.), *Language learning in formal and informal contexts* (pp. 3-18). Dublin, BAAL/IRAAL.
- Allwright, D. (1988). *Observation in the language classroom*. Longman.
- Allwright, D. (1996). Social and pedagogic pressures in the language classroom: The role of socialisation. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the language classroom* (pp. 209-228). Cambridge University Press.
- Allwright, D. (2000). *Interaction and negotiation in the language classroom: their role in learner development*. CRILE Working Paper 50, Lancaster University.

- Allwright, R. L. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 5(2), 156-171.
- Altamiro, D. (2000). Teacher's action and student oral participation in classroom interaction. In J.K. Hall & L. S. Verplaetse (Eds.). *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction*. (pp.91-108). LEA.
- Andon, N. & Eckerth, J. (2009). Chacun à son gout? Task-based L2 pedagogy from the teacher's point of view. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19 (3), 286-310. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00240.x>
- Aragão, R. (2011). Beliefs and emotions in foreign language learning. *System*, 39(3), 302-313. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.003>
- Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) (2005). *ALTE materials for the guidance of test item writers*. (Accessed: 17/01/2013). Retrieved from <http://www.alte.org/downloads/index.php>
- Aston, G. (1986). Trouble shooting in interaction with learners: The more the merrier? *Applied Linguistics*, 7(1), 128-143. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/7.2.128>
- Bahrani, T. & Soltani, R. (2012). Language Input and Second Language Acquisition. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3(3), 39-42.
- Barcelos, A. M. F. & Kalaja, P. (2003). Conclusion: Exploring possibilities for future research on beliefs about SLA. In: Kalaja, P., Barcelos, A.M.F. (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research Approaches* (pp. 231-240). Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Barcelos, A. M. F. & Kalaja, P. (2011). Introduction to Beliefs about SLA revisited. *System*, 39(3), 281-289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.001>
- Barcelos, A. M. F. (2003). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. In Kalaja, P. & Barcelos, A.M.F. (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 7-33). Kluwer Academic.



- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1992). A second look at T-unit analysis: Reconsidering the sentence. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(2), 390-395. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587016>
- Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. *ELT Journal*, 57(3), 278-87. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/57.3.278>
- Berg, B. L. (2009). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (7<sup>th</sup> edition). Pearson Education, Inc.
- Borg, M. (2001). Key Concepts in ELT: teacher's beliefs. *ELT Journal*, 55(2), 186-188. <https://doi.org/10.1093/eltj/55.2.186>
- Borg, S. & Burns, A. (2008). 'Integrating Grammar in Adult TESOL Classrooms', *Applied Linguistics*, 29(3), 456-482. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amn020>
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice*. Continuum.
- Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System* 39(3), 370 - 380. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.009>
- Boulima, J. (1999). *Negotiated interaction in target language classroom discourse*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Boxer, D. & Cortés-Conde, F. (2000). Identity and ideology: Culture and pragmatics in content-based ESL. In J. K. Hall & L. S. Verplaetse (Eds.), *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 203-219). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Boyd, M. & Maloof, V. M. (2000). How teachers can build on student-proposed intertextual links to facilitate student talk in the ESL classroom. In J. K. Hall & L. S. Verplaetse (eds.), *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 163-182). Erlbaum.
- Braid, S. M. (2002). Reexamining the role of recasts in native-speaker/nonnative-speaker interactions. *Language Learning*, 52(1), 1-42. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00176>

- British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) (2006). Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics. Retrieved from: [http://baal.org.uk/dox/goodpractice\\_full.pdf](http://baal.org.uk/dox/goodpractice_full.pdf)
- Brock, C. A. (1986). The effects of referential questions on ESL classroom discourse. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(1), 77-59. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586388>
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by Principle* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Addison Wesley Longman Inc.
- Burke, B. M. (2006). Theory meets practice: A case study of pre-service world language teachers in U.S. secondary schools. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39(1), 148-166. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2006.tb02255.x>
- Burke, B. M. (2011). Rituals and beliefs ingrained in world language pedagogy: Defining deep structure and conventional wisdom. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.2.1.1-12>
- Burns, A. (2005), *Teaching English from a Global Perspective, Case studies in TESOL series*. TESOL.
- Burton, F. R. (1988). Reflections on Strickland's "Toward the Extended Professional." *Language Arts*, 65, 765-768.
- Bygate, M., Skehan, P. & Swain, M. (2001). (Eds.). *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching, and testing*. Longman.
- Byrnes, H. (1984). Grammar, Communicative Competence, Functions/Notions: Implications for and from a Proficiency Orientation. *Die Unterrichtspraxis/Teaching German*, 17(2), 194-206
- Calderhead, J. & Robson, M. (1991). Images of teaching: Student teachers' early conceptions of classroom practice. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 7(1), 1-8. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051x\(91\)90053-r](https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051x(91)90053-r)
- Cathcart, R. (1986). Situational differences and the sampling of young children's school language. In Day, R. (ed.), *Talking to learn: conversation in second language acquisition*. Newbury House.

- Cathcart, R. L. & Olsen J. W. B. (1976). Teachers' and students' preferences for correction of classroom conversation errors. In J. F. Fanselow & R. H. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL '76*, 41-45. TESOL.
- Cazden, C. B. (1988). *Classroom Discourse*. Heinemann.
- Chaudron, C. (1983). Simplification of input: Topic reinstatements and their effects of second language learners' recognition and recall. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 437-458. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586257>
- Chaudron, C. (1985). A method for examining the input/intake distinction. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 285-302). Newbury.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.
- Chun, S. Y. (2014). 'EFL learners' beliefs about native and nonnative English-speaking teachers: perceived strengths, weaknesses, and preferences.' *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(6), 563-579.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research Methods in Education*. Routledge.
- Consolo, D. (2000). Teacher's action and student oral participation in classroom interaction. In J. K. Hall & L. S. Verplaetse (Eds.), *Second and Foreign Language learning through classroom interaction* (pp.91-107). Erlbaum.
- Consolo, D. A. (2006). Classroom oral interaction in foreign language lessons and implications for teacher development. *Revista Linguagem e Ensino*, 9(2). Retrieved from <http://rle.ucpel.tche.br/index>
- Corder, S. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5(1-4), 161-169.
- Corder, S. (1978). Language-learner language. In Richards J. C. (ed.). *Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 71-91), Newbury House.
- Coulthard, M. & Brazil, D. (1992). Exchange structure. In Coulthard, M. (ed.), *Advances in spoken discourse analysis* (pp. 50-78). Routledge.

- Creswell, J. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Pearson Education.
- Crookes, G. & Rulon, K. (1985). Incorporation of negative feedback in native speaker/non-native speaker conversation. *Technical Report No. 3*. Center for Second Language Classroom Research, Social Science Research Institute, University of Hawaii.
- Cullen, R. (2002). Supportive teacher talk: the importance of the f-move. *ELT Journal*, 56(2), pp. 117-127. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/56.2.117>
- De Costa, P. I. (2011). Using language Ideology and positioning to broaden the SLA learner beliefs landscape: the case of an ESL learner from China. *System*, 39(3), pp. 347-358. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.007>
- Diaz-Rico, L. T. & Weed, K. Z. (2002). *The crosscultural, language, and academic development handbook: A complete K-12 reference guide* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Allyn & Bacon.
- DiCamilla, F. & Anton, M. (1997). Repetition in the collaborative discourse of L2 learners: a Vygotskian perspective. *The Canadian modern language review*, 53 (4), 609-633.
- Dinçer, A. & Yeşilyurt, S. (2013). Pre-service English teachers' beliefs on speaking skill based on motivational orientations. *English Language Teaching*, 6(7), 88-95.
- Doehler, P. S. & Pochon-Berger, E. (2011). Developing 'methods' for interaction: a crosssectional study of disagreement sequences in French L2. In J. K. Hall, J. Hellermann & S. Pekarek Doehler (eds) (pp. 206-243), *L2 Interactional Competence and Development*. Multilingual Matters.
- Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In J. P. Lantolf (ed.). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 27-50). Oxford University Press.

- Doughty, C. & Pica, T. (1986). "Information gap" tasks, do they facilitate second language acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(2), 305-25. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586546>
- Dunn, W. E., & Lantolf, J. P. (1998). Vygotsky's zone of proximal development and Krashen's  $i + 1$ : Incommensurable constructs; incommensurable theories. *Language Learning*, 48(3), 411-442. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00048>
- Ekembe, E. E. (2014). Interaction and Uptake in Large Foreign Language Classrooms. *RELC Journal*, 45(3), 237-251. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688214547036>
- Ellis, R. & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analysing learner language*. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(2), 285-301. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263199002077>
- Ellis, R. (1985). Teacher pupil interaction in second language development. In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 69 – 85). Newbury House.
- Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed second language acquisition*. Blackwell.
- Ellis, R. (1995). Modified oral input and the acquisition of word meanings. *Applied Linguistics*, 16(4), 409-433. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/16.4.409>
- Ellis, R. (1998). *Second Language Acquisition*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2009). The differential effects of three types of task planning on the fluency, complexity and accuracy in L2 oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(4), 474-509. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp042>
- Ellis, R. (2012). *Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy*. Wiley-Blackwell.

- Ellis, R., Tanaka, Y. & Yamazaki, A. (1994). Classroom interaction, comprehension, and the acquisition of L2 word meanings. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 449-491.
- Farahian, M. & Rezaee, M. (2012). A case study of an EFL teacher's type of questions: an investigation into classroom interaction. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Science*, 47, 161-167.
- Farr, F. & Riordan, E. (2015). Tracing the reflective practices of student teachers in online modes. *ReCALL*, 27(1), 104-123.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (1999). The reflective assignment: Unlocking pre-service teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. *RELC Journal*, 30, 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003368829903000201>
- Ferguson, C. (1971). Absence of copula and the notion of simplicity: A study of normal speech, baby talk, foreigner talk, and pidgins. In D.Hymes (Ed.), *Pidgination and creolization of languages* (pp. 141-150). Cambridge University Press.
- Figueiredo, F. J. Q. (2006). A aprendizagem colaborativa: foco no processo de correção dialogada. In Vilson Leffa (org.), *A Interação na Aprendizagem de Línguas* (2ª ed.) (pp. 133-164). EDUCAT.
- Florio-Ruane, S. & Lensmire, T. J. (1990). Transforming future teachers' ideas about writing instruction. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 22(3), 277-289. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0022027900220305>
- Foster, P. & Ohta, A. (2005). Negotiation for meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics*, 26(3), 402-430. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami014>
- Foster, P. & Skehan, P. (1996). The influence of planning on performance in task-based learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18(3), 299-324.
- Foster, P. & Skehan, P. (1999). The effect of source of planning and focus on planning on task-based performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 3(3), 185-215.
- Foster, P. & Skehan, P. (2013). Anticipating a post-task activity: the effects on accuracy, complexity and fluency of second language

- performance. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69(3), 249-273. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.69.3.249>
- Foster, P. & Tavakoli, P. (2009). Native speakers and task performance: Comparing effects on complexity, fluency and lexical diversity. *Language Learning*, 59(4), 866-896. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00528.x>
- Foster, P. (1998). A classroom perspective on negotiation of meaning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(1), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/19.1.1>
- Foster, P., Tonkyn, A. & Wigglesworth, G. (2000). Measuring spoken language: A unit for all reasons. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(3), 354-375. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/21.3.354>
- Freeman, D. (1996). Redefining the relationship between research and what teachers know. In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp. 88-115). Cambridge University Press.
- Fujimoto, D., Lubin, J., Sasaki, Y. & Long, M. H. (1986). *The Effect of Linguistic and Conversational Adjustments on the Comprehensibility of Spoken Second Language Discourse*. Ms. Department of ESL, University of Hawaii at Manoa.
- García Mayo, M. P. & Pica, T. (2000). L2 learner interaction in a foreign language setting: Are learning needs addressed? *IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 38(1), 35-58. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2000.38.1.35>
- Garcia-Ponce, E. E. (2017). Learners's use of discourse functions during interactions for speaking practice in English as a foreign language classrooms. *MexTESOL Journal*, 41(1): 1-18. Retrieved from [http://www.mextesol.net/journal/index.php?page=journal&cid\\_article=1828](http://www.mextesol.net/journal/index.php?page=journal&cid_article=1828)
- Garfinkel, H. & Sacks, H. (1970). On Formal Structures of Practical Actions. In J. C McKinney & E. A. Tiryakian (eds) (pp. 337-366), *Theoretical Sociology: Perspectives and Developments*. Appleton-Century-Crofts.

- Gass, S. M. & Mackey, A. (2007). *Data elicitation for second and foreign language research*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gass, S. M. & Selinker, L. (1994). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gass, S. M. & Selinker, L. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gass, S. M. & Varonis, E. M. (1985). Task variation and nonnative/nonnative negotiation of meaning. In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 149-161). Newbury House.
- Gass, S. M. & Varonis, E. M. (1989). Incorporated repairs in nonnative discourse. In M. R. Eisenstein (Ed.), *The dynamic interlanguage: Empirical studies in second language variation* (pp. 71-86). Plenum Press.
- Gass, S. M. (1988). Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9(2), 198-21. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/9.2.198>
- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, Interaction, and the Second Language Learner*. LEA.
- Gass, S. M. (1999). Discussion: Incidental vocabulary learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 319-333.
- Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224-255). Blackwell Publishers.
- Gass, S. M. (2005). Input and interaction. In: Doughty C, Long MH (eds) *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 176-200). Blackwell Publishing.
- Gharbavi, A. & Iravani, H. (2014). Is Teacher Talk Pernicious to Students? A Discourse Analysis of Teacher Talk. *Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 98, 552-561.
- Ghasemboland, F. & Hashim, F. B. (2013). The effect of background characteristics on self-efficacy beliefs of English as foreign



- language teachers in one selected middle-east country. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, 3(9), 1982-1991.
- Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding Language, Scaffolding Learning*. Heinemann.
- Gibbons, P. (2003). Mediating language learning: Teacher interactions with ESL students in a content-based classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(2), 247-273.
- Gibbons, P. (2015). *Scaffolding language Scaffolding Learning*. Heinemann.
- Gibbs, A. (1997). Focus Groups. *Social Research Update*, 19, Winter, Department of Sociology, University of Surrey. Retrieved January 12, 2016, from <http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU19.html>
- Gore, J. (1995). Groups and tasks: Let's take a closer look. *British Council Teaching Centres*, 10, Winter 1995.
- Graham, S., Santos, D. & Francis-Brophy, E. (2014). *Teacher beliefs about listening in a foreign language. Teaching and Teacher Education*, 40, 44-60.
- Gutierrez, K. (1994). How talk, context, and script shape contexts for learning: A cross-case comparison of journal sharing. *Linguistics and Education*, 5(3-4), pp. 335-365.
- Harun, H., Massari, N., & Behak, F. P. (2014). Use of L1 as a Mediation Tool for Understanding Tense/Aspect Marking in English: An Application of Concept-based Instruction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 134, 134-139.
- Hall, J. & Verplaetse, L. (2000). *Second and Foreign Language Learning through Classroom Interaction*. Erlbaum.
- Hall, J. & Walsh, M. (2002). Teacher-student interaction and language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 186-203.
- Hall, J. (1998). Differential teacher attention to student utterances: The construction of different opportunities for learning in the IRF. *Linguistics and Education*, 9(3), 287-311.
- Hall, J. K. & Doehler, S. P. (2011). L2 Interactional Competence and Development. In J. K Hall, J. Hellermann and S. Pekarek Doehler

- (eds.). *L2 Interactional Competence and Development*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 206-243.
- Hammersley, M. (1994). Introducing ethnography. In D. Graddol, J. Maybin & B. Stierer (Eds.), *Researching language and literacy in social context* (pp. 1-17). Multilingual Matters/OUP.
- Hammersley, M. (2006). Ethnography: Problems and prospects. *Ethnography and Education*, 1(1), 3-14.
- Hargreaves, D. (2004), *Personalising Learning 2: Student Voice and Assessment for Learning*. Specialist Schools Trust/Secondary Heads Association.
- Hatch, E. M. (1978). *Second Language Acquisition*. Newbury House.
- Havranek, G. (2002). When is negative feedback likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37(3-4), 255-270.
- Hayes, D. (2009). Becoming a teacher of English in Thailand. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(4), 471- 494.
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: recent theory, research, and practice. *Modern Language Journal*, 62, 387-398.
- Henzl, V. (1979). Foreigner talk in the classroom. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 17, 159-167.
- Hernández Sampieri, R., Fernández-Collado, C. & Baptista, P. (2006). *Metodología de la Investigación*. (4<sup>a</sup> ed.). McGrawHill.
- Holliday, A. R. (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford University Press.
- Honeyfield, J. (1977). Simplification. *TESOL Quarterly*, 11, 431-440.
- House, J. (1986). Learning to talk: Talking to learn. An investigation of learner performance in two types of discourse. In G. Kasper (Ed.), *Learning, teaching and communication in the foreign language classroom*. Aarhus University Press.
- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On Communicative Competence. In Pride, J. B., & Holmes, J. (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Penguin Education, Penguin Books Ltd.

- Inozu, J. (2011). Beliefs about language learning among students training to teach English as a foreign language. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal*, 39(5): 645-653.
- Izumi, S., Bigelow, M., Fujiwara, M. & Fearnow, S. (1999). *Testing the output hypothesis: effects of output on noticing and second language acquisition*. *SSLA*, 21:421-452.
- Johnson, R. B. & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Jordan, B. & Henderson, A. (1995). Interaction analysis: Foundations and practice. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 4(1), 39-103.
- Karaata, C. (2011). Assumptions and pedagogical knowledge: Teaching and learning according to teachers of English. H. U. *Journal of Education*, 41, 244-254.
- Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(4), 502-530.
- Kasper, G. (2004). Participant orientations in German-conversation-for-learning, *Modern Language Journal*, 88(4), 551-67.
- Kelly Hall, J., Hellermann, J., & Pekarek Doehler, S. (Eds.). (2011). *L2 interactional competence and development*. Multilingual Matters.
- Kim, Y. (2003). Effects of input elaboration and enhancement on second language vocabulary acquisition through reading by Korean learners of English (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Hawaii, Manoa.
- Kim, Y. (2006). Effects of input elaboration on vocabulary acquisition through reading by Korean learners of English as a foreign language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(2), 341-373. <https://doi.org/10.2307/40264526>
- Kim, Y. (2010). Scaffolding through questions in upper elementary ESL learning. Literacy Teaching and Learning. *Literacy Teaching and Learning*, 15(1-2), 109-137.
- Koester, A. (2006). *Investigating Workplace Discourse*. Routledge.

- Kramsch, C. (1986). From language proficiency to interactional competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(4), 366-372. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05291.x>
- Krashen, S. (1980). The Input Hypothesis. In J. Alatis (Ed.), *Current issues in bilingual education*. Georgetown University Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1998). Comprehensible output? *System* 26(2), 175-182. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0346-251x\(98\)00002-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0346-251x(98)00002-5)
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a Postmethod Pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(4), 537-560.
- Lankshear, A. J. (1993). The use of focus groups in a study of attitudes to student nurse assessment. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 18(12), 1986-89. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2648.1993.18121986.x>
- Lankshear, C. & Knobel, M. (2004). *A handbook for teacher research: From design to implementation*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (Eds.). (2008). *Sociocultural theory and the teaching of second languages*. Equinox Publishing.
- Lantolf, J. P. (2000). Introducing sociocultural theory. In: J. P. Lantolf (ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 1-26). Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. H. (1991). *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. Pearson.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). The emergence of complexity, fluency, and accuracy in the oral and written production of five Chinese learners of English. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(4), 590-619. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/aml029>
- Lasley, T. J. (1980). Preservice teacher beliefs about teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(4), 38-41. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002248718003100410>

- Lenker, A. and Rhodes, N. (2007). Foreign Language Immersion Programs: Features and Trends Over 35 Years. *CALdigest*. Retrieved from [http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/digest\\_pdfs/flimmersion.pdf](http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/digest_pdfs/flimmersion.pdf)
- Leont'ev, A. N. (1981). *Problems of the Development of the Mind*. Progress.
- Lightbown, P. M. and Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned*. Oxford University Press.
- Lillis, T. M. (2008). Ethnography as Method, Methodology, and “Deep Theorizing”: Closing the Gap between Text and Context in Academic Writing Research. *Written Communication*, 25(3), 353–388. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088308319229>
- Long, M. H. and Porter, P. A. (1985). Group Work, Interlanguage Talk, and Second Language Acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 207–27. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586827>
- Long, M. H. and Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in second language acquisition* (pp. 15–41). Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M. H. and Sato, C. J. (1983). Classroom foreign talk discourse: Forms and Functions of Teachers Questions. In H. W. Selinger and M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom-oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 268–285). Newbury House.
- Long, M. H. (1980). Input, interaction, and second language acquisition. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, UCLA, Department of Applied Linguistics and TESL.
- Long, M. H. (1982). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation in the second language classroom. In M. Long and C. Richards (Eds.), *Methodology in TESOL: A book of readings* (pp. 339–354). Newbury House.
- Long, M. H. (1983). Native Speaker/Non-native Speaker Conversation and the Negotiation of Comprehensible Input. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 126–141. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.2.126>

- Long, M. H. (1985). Input and Second Language Acquisition Theory. In: S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.) *Input and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 377-393). Newbury House.
- Long, M. H. (1996). *The Role of the Linguistic Environment in Second Language Acquisition*. In W. Ritchie and T. Bhatia (eds), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-68). Academic Press.
- Long, M. H., Adams, L., McLean, M. and Castaños, F. (1976). Doing things with words: Verbal interaction in lockstep and small group classroom situations. In Fanselow, J. and Crymes, R. (eds.), *On TESOL '76* (pp. 137-153). TESOL.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. University of Chicago Press.
- Lortie, D. (2002). *Schoolteacher*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Loschky, L. (1994). Comprehensible input and second language acquisition: What is the relationship? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16(3), 303-323. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100013103>
- Lyster, R. and Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66. [10.1017/S0272263197001034](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197001034)
- Mackey, A. and Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Malina, M. A., Nørreklit, H. S., and Selto, F. H. (2011). Lessons learned: advantages and disadvantages of mixed method research. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management*, 8(1), 59-71. <https://doi.org/10.1108/11766091111124702>
- Martínez-Flor, A. (1999). *Does Language Learners Benefit from Classroom Interaction?* Jornades de Foment de la Investigació, Universitat Jaume I. Retrieved from [http://repositori.uji.es/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10234/80046/Forum\\_1999\\_6.pdf?sequence=1](http://repositori.uji.es/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10234/80046/Forum_1999_6.pdf?sequence=1)

- McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M. J. (2005). Fluency and confluence: What fluent speakers do. *The Language Teacher*, 29(6): 26-28. Retrieved from [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283868128\\_Fluency\\_and\\_Confluence\\_What\\_Fluent\\_Speakers\\_Do](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283868128_Fluency_and_Confluence_What_Fluent_Speakers_Do)
- McCormick, D. E. and Donato, R. (2000). Teacher questions as scaffolded assistance in an ESL classroom. In J. K. Hall and L. S. Verplaetse (Eds.), *Second and Foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 183-201). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *System*, 32(2), 207-224. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.01.003>
- McNeil, L. (2012). Extending the compensatory model of second language reading. *System*, 40(1), 64-76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.01.011>
- Medgyes, P. (2000). Non-native speaker teacher. In M. Byram (Ed.), *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 444-446). Routledge.
- Mehnert, U. (1998). The effects of different lengths of time for planning on second language performance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20, 52-83. Retrieved from <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/studies-in-second-language-acquisition/article/the-effects-of-different-lengths-of-time-for-planning-on-second-language-performance/B828DF63B-5C5ADAA2E8CCD1A03870575>
- Mercer, N. and Littleton, K. (2007). *Dialogue and the development of children's thinking*. Routledge.
- Mercer, S. (2011). Language learner self-concept: complexity, continuity and change. *System*, 39(3), 335-346. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.006>
- Morgan, D. L. (1997). *Focus groups as qualitative research*. Sage.

- Mori, J. (2004). Pursuit of understanding: conversation analytic account of a small-group activity in a Japanese language classroom'. In R. Gardner and J. Wagner (eds), *Second Language Conversations* (pp. 157–77). Continuum.
- Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(4), 573–603. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588281>
- Munby, H. (1982). The place of teachers' beliefs in research on teacher thinking and decision making, and an alternative methodology. *Instructional Science*, 11, 201–225. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23368318>
- Muranoi, H. (2000). Focus on form through interaction enhancement: Integrating formal instruction into a communicative task in EFL classrooms. *Language Learning*, 50(4): 617–673. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00142>
- Musumeci, D. (1996). Teacher–learner negotiation in content-based instruction: communication at cross-purposes? *Applied Linguistics*, 17(3), 286–325. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/17.3.286>
- Musumeci, D. (2002). The use technology in high-enrolment courses: Implications for teacher education and communicative language teaching. In S. Savignon, (Ed.), *Interpreting communicative language teaching: Contexts and concerns in teacher education* (pp. 154–164). Yale University Press.
- Mynard, J. and Navarro, D. (2010). Dialogue in self-access learning. In: A.M. Stoke (Ed.), *JALT 2009*, Conference Proceedings, Tokyo.
- Napoles, J. and Vazquez-Ramos, A. M. (2013). Perceptions of time spent in teacher talk: A comparison among self-estimates, peer estimates, and actual time. *The Journal of Research in Music Education*, 60(4), 452–461. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022429412463246>
- Nassaji, H. and Wells, G. (2000). What's the use of 'triadic dialogue'? An investigation of teacher–student interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(3), 376–406. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/21.3.376>



- Naughton, D. (2006). Cooperative strategy training and oral interaction: Enhancing small group communication in the language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(2), 169-184. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00391.x>
- Navarro, D. and Thornton, K. (2011). Investigating the relationship between belief and action in self-directed language learning. *System*, 39(3), 290-301. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.002>
- Negueruela-Azarola, E. (2011). Beliefs as conceptualizing activity: a dialectical approach for the second language classroom. *System*, 39(3), 359-369. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.008>
- Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(4), 317-328. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0022027870190403>
- Nguyen, H. T. (2011). Achieving recipient-design longitudinally: Evidence from a pharmacy intern in patient consultations. In J. K. Hall, J. Hellermann, and S. Pekarek (Eds.) *L2 Interactional competence and development* (pp. 173-205). Multilingual Matters.
- Nobuyoshi, J. and Ellis, R. (1993). Focused communication tasks. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 47(3), 203-210. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/47.3.203>
- Norris, J. M. and Ortega, L. (2009). Towards an organic approach to investigating CAF in instructed SLA: The case of complexity. *Applied Linguistics*, 30, 555-578. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp044>
- Nunan, D. (1987). Communicative language teaching: making it work. *ELT Journal*, 41(2), 136-45. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/41.2.136>
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge University Press.

- Nunan, D. (1996). Hidden voices: insiders' perspectives on classroom interaction. In K. M. Bailey and D. Nunan (eds), *Voices from the Language Classroom* (pp. 41-56). Cambridge University Press.
- Nunn, R. (1999). The purposes of language teachers' questions. *IRAL*, 37(1), 23-4. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1999.37.1.23>
- Nystrand, M. (1997). *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom*. Teachers College Press.
- Oh, S. (2001). Two types of input modification and EFL reading comprehension: Simplification versus elaboration. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(1), 69-96. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587860>
- Ohta, A. S. and Nakane, T. (2004). When students ask questions: Teachers and peer answers in the foreign language classroom. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 42(3), 217-238. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2004.011>
- Ovando, C., Collier, V. and Combs, M. (2003). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching multicultural contexts*. McGraw-Hill.
- Pajares, M. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307-332. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307>
- Park, E. S. (2002). On three potential sources of comprehensible input for second language acquisition. *Working Papers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics*, V2(1), 1-21. Retrieved from <https://journals.cdrs.columbia.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/12/2015/05/3.-Park-2002.pdf>
- Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Sage.
- Pellegrino Aveni, V. A. (2005). *Study abroad and second language use*. Cambridge University Press.
- Peng, J. E. (2011). Changes in language learning beliefs during a transition to tertiary study: The mediation of classroom affordances. *System*, 39(3), 314-324. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.004>

- Perry, F. (2005). *Research in Applied Linguistics: Becoming a discerning consumer*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Petek, T. (2013). Critical Breakdown of Discourse Categories in Relation to (Preschool) Teacher's Language performance. *Revija za Elementarno Izobraževanje*, 6(4), 21- 36. Retrieved from <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/doi/18554431/2013/00000006/00000004/art00001>
- Petek, T. (2014). The teacher as a public speaker in the classroom. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 9(1), 124-133. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/article/4e0f4bb3363140fdb764f4b4f8a62779?>
- Philp, J. and Tognini, R. (2009). Language acquisition in foreign language contexts and the differential benefits of interaction. *IRAL*, 47(3/4): 245-66. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2009.011>
- Philp, J., Walter, S. and Basturkmen, H. (2010). Peer interaction in the foreign language classroom: What factors foster a focus on form? *Language Awareness*, 19(4), 261-279. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2010.516831>
- Pica, T. and Doughty, C. (1985a). Input and interaction in the communicative language classroom: A comparison of teacher-fronted and group activities. In S. M. Gass and e.G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 115-32). Newbury House.
- Pica, T. and Doughty, C. (1985b). The role of group work in classroom second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 7(2), 233-248. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100005398>
- Pica, T. and Long, M. H. (1986). The linguistic and conversational performance of experienced and inexperienced teachers. In R. R. Day (ed.), *"Talking to learn": Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 85-98). Newbury House.
- Pica, T. (1994). Research on negotiation: What does it reveal about second-language learning conditions, processes, and out-

- comes? *Language Learning*, 44(3), 493-527. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01115.x>
- Pica, T. (1996a). Do second language learners need negotiation? *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34(1), 1-21. Retrieved from <http://repository.upenn.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1069&context=wpel>
- Pica, T. (1996b). The essential role of negotiation in the second language classroom. *JALT Journal*, 18(2), 241-68. Retrieved from <https://jalt-publications.org/files/pdf-article/jj-18.2-art5.pdf>
- Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, D. and Linnell, J. (1996a). Raw data.
- Pienemann, M. (1984). Psychological constraints on the teachability of languages. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 6(2), 186-214.
- Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, F. and Linell, J. (1996b). Language learners' interaction: how does it address the input, output and feedback needs of L2 learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(1), 59-84. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587607>
- Pica, T., Young, R. and Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(4), 737-759. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586992>
- Pintrich, P. R. (1990). Implications of psychological research on student learning and college teaching for teacher education. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 826-857). Macmillan.
- Porter, P. A. (1983). *Variations in the conversations of adult learners of English as a function of the proficiency level of the participants*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University.
- Powell, R. A., Single, H. M. and Lloyd, K. R. (1996). Focus groups in mental health research: enhancing the validity of user and provider questionnaires. *International Journal of Social Psychology*, 42(3), 193-206. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002076409604200303>

- Raine, P. (2010). An application of the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) method of discourse analysis. Birmingham: University of Birmingham. Retrieved from [http://www.cels.bham.ac.uk/resources/essays/raine\\_sinc-coul.pdf](http://www.cels.bham.ac.uk/resources/essays/raine_sinc-coul.pdf).
- Rallis, S. F. and Rossman, G. B. (2009). Ethics and Trustworthiness. In J. Heigham and R. A. Croker (eds.), *Qualitative research in Applied Linguistics: A practical introduction* (pp. 263–283). Palgrave MacMillan.
- Rassaei, E. (2014). Scaffolded feedback, recasts, and L2 development: A sociocultural perspective. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(1), 417–431. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2014.12060.x>
- Ravitch S, Carl N (2016) *Qualitative research*. SAGE Publications, Inc, Thousand Oaks, California
- Richards, J. C. (2015). *Key issues in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. and Schmidt R. (2002). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Longman.
- Robinson, P. (2007). Task complexity, theory of mind, and intentional reasoning: effects on L2 speech production, interaction, uptake and perceptions of task difficulty. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 45(3), 193–213. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/IRAL.2007.009>
- Robson, C. (2003). *Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*. Blackwell.
- Rosmawati, R. (2014). Dynamic development of complexity and accuracy. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 37(2), 75–100. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ara1.37.2.01ros>
- Russell, T. (2005). Can reflective practice be taught? *Reflective Practice*, 6(2), 199–204. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14623940500105833>
- Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A. and Jefferson, G. (1974). A Simplest Systematics for the Organization of Turn Taking for Conversation. *Language*, 50(4): 696–735. <https://doi.org/10.2307/412243>

- Schmidt, R. (1990). The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129-158. Retrieved from <http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/PDFs/SCHMIDT%20The%20role%20of%20consciousness%20in%20second%20language%20learning.pdf>
- Seedhouse, P. (1996). Classroom interaction: possibilities and impossibilities. *ELT Journal*, 50(1), 16-23. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/50d0/4b1ff3cb4ef3acfd282cf35e9aaf528191f0.pdf>
- Senge, P. (1990). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. Doubleday.
- SEP (2006a). *Reforma de la Educación Secundaria. Fundamentación Curricular. Lengua Extranjera: Inglés*. Mexico City.
- SEP (2006b). *Study guide. Lengua Extranjera: Inglés*. Mexico City.
- Shamoosi, N. (2004). The effect of teachers' questioning behavior on EFL classroom interaction: A classroom research study. *The Reading Matrix*, 4(2), 93-106. Retrieved from <http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/shomoossi/article.pdf>
- Sheal, P. (1989). Classroom observation: training the observers. *ELT journal*, 43(2), 92-104. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/43.2.92>
- Sheen, Y. (2004). Negative feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(3), 263-300. Retrieved from [http://www.ibrarian.net/navon/paper/Corrective\\_feedback\\_and\\_learner\\_uptake\\_in\\_communi.pdf?paperid=15968012](http://www.ibrarian.net/navon/paper/Corrective_feedback_and_learner_uptake_in_communi.pdf?paperid=15968012).
- Sheen, Y. (2008). Recasts, language anxiety, modified output and L2 learning. *Language Learning*, 58(1), 835-874. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2008.00480.x>
- Shi, G. (2004). Teacher's negative feedback and learner repair in secondary EFL classrooms. *Foreign Language and Literature*, 86(4), 242-248.
- Sinclair, J. and Brazil, D. (1982). *Teacher Talk*. Oxford University Press.

- Sinclair, J. and Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse: The English Used by Teachers and Pupils*. Oxford University Press.
- Skehan, P. and Foster, P. (2001). Cognition and tasks. In P. Robinson (ed.), *Cognition and Second Language Learning* (pp. 183–205). Cambridge University Press.
- Skehan, P. and Foster, P. (1997a). The influence of planning and post-task activities on accuracy and complexity in task based learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 1(3), 185–211.
- Skehan, P. and Foster, P. (1997b). Task-type and task processing conditions as influences on foreign language performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 1(3), 1–27. <https://doi.org/10.1177/136216889700100302>
- Skehan, P. and Foster, P. (1999). The influence of task Structure and processing conditions on narrative retellings. *Language Learning*, 49(1), 93–120. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00071>
- Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (2008). Complexity, accuracy, fluency and lexis in task-based performance: A meta-analysis of the Ealing research. In S. Van Daele, A. Housen, F. Kuiken, M. Pierrard, & I. Vedder (Eds.), *Complexity, accuracy, and fluency in second language use, learning, & teaching* (pp. 207–226). Kluwer.
- Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(1), 38–62. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/17.1.38>
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford University Press.
- Skehan, P. (2003). Task-based instruction. *Language Teaching*, 36(1), 1–14. Retrieved from <https://www.cambridge.org/core/services/aop-cambridge-core/content/view/S026144480200188X>
- Skehan, P. (2009). Modelling second language performance: Integrating complexity, accuracy, fluency, and lexis. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(4), 510–532. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp047>

- Snape, D. and Spencer, L. (2003). The foundations of qualitative research. In J. Ritchie and J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice. A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 1-23). Sage Publications Ltd.
- Storch, N. (1998). A classroom-based study: insights from a collaborative text reconstruction task. *ELT Journal*, 52(4), 291-299. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/52.4.291>
- Storch, N. (1999). Are two heads better than one? Pair work and grammatical accuracy. *System*, 27, 363-374. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X\(99\)00031-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00031-7)
- Storch, N. (2001). *An investigation into the nature of pair work in an ESL classroom and its effect on grammatical development*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Melbourne, Australia.
- Swain, M., Kinnear, P., and Steinman, L. (2015). *Sociocultural theory in second language education: An introduction through narratives* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Multilingual matters.
- Swain, M., and Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: Two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37(3), 285-304. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355\(03\)00006-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(03)00006-5)
- Swain, M. and Suzuki, W. (2008). Interaction, output, and communicative language learning. In B. Spolsky and F. M. Hult (Eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 557-568). Blackwell.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235-256). Newbury House.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In Cook, G. and Seidelhofer, B. (Eds.), *Principle and practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in honor of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 125-144). Oxford University Press.



- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (ed.), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: theory and research. In E. Heinkel (ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Tarone, E. and Liu, G-Q. (1995). Situational context, variation, and second language acquisition theory. In G. Cook and B. Seidelhofer (Eds.) *Principle and practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honor of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 107-124). Oxford University Press.
- Tarone, E. (2005). Speaking in a second language. In E. Heinkel (ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 485-502). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Tavakoli, P. and Skehan, P. (2005). Planning, task structure, and performance testing. In R. Ellis (ed.), *Planning and task performance in a second language* (pp. 239-273). John Benjamins.
- Thornbury, S. and Slade, D. (2006). *Conversation: From description to pedagogy*. Cambridge University Press.
- Thornbury, S. (1996). Teachers research teacher talk. *ELT Journal*, 50(4), 279-87. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/50.4.279>
- Tsui, A. B. M. (1995). *Introducing classroom interaction*. Penguin English.
- van Lier, L. (1988a). *The Classroom and the Language Learner*. Longman.
- van Lier, L. (1988b). What's wrong with classroom talk? *Prospect*, 3(3), 267-83.
- van Lier, L. (2000). From input to affordance: Social-interactive learning from an ecological perspective. In J. Lantolf (ed), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning* (pp. 155-177). Oxford University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and society*. Harvard University Press.
- Walqui, A. (2006). Scaffolding instruction for English language learners: A conceptual framework. *The international journal of bilin-*

- gual education and bilingualism*, 9(2), 159–180. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/eeaf/a59d9a254ac843f9d8f-b94aebd017dae6b76.pdf>
- Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(1), 3–23. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168802lr095oa>
- Walsh, S. (2003). Developing interactional awareness in the second language classroom. *Language Awareness*, 12(2), 124–42. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09658410308667071>
- Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: language in action*. Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2013). *Classroom discourse and teacher development*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Wesely, P. (2012). Learner attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs in language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45(S1), 98–117. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2012.01181.x>
- White, C. (2008). Beliefs and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 121–130). Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, J. (1999). Learner-generated attention to form. *Language Learning*, 49(4), 583–625. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.2001.tb00020.x>
- Wintergerst, A. C. (1993). Why-Questions in classroom discourse. *College ESL*, 3(1), 70–79. Retrieved from [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/234675723\\_Why-Questions\\_in\\_Classroom\\_Discourse](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/234675723_Why-Questions_in_Classroom_Discourse)
- Wolfe-Quintero, K., Inagaki, S. and Kim, H.-Y. (1998). *Second language development in writing: Measures of fluency, accuracy, and complexity*. University of Hawaii Press.

- Woods, D. and Çakir, H. (2011). Two dimensions of teacher knowledge: the case of communicative language teaching. *System*, 39(3), 381-390. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.010>
- Woods, D. (2003). The social construction of beliefs in the language classroom. In P. Kalaja and A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 201-229). Kulwer Academic.
- Yang, C. C. R. (2010). Teacher questions in second language classrooms: An investigation of three case studies. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(1), 181- 201. Retrieved from <http://repository.lib.eduhk.hk/jspui/handle/2260.2/10124>
- Yang, J. S. and Kim, T.Y. (2011). Sociocultural analysis of second language learner beliefs: A qualitative case study of two study-abroad ESL learners. *System*, 39(3), 325-334. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.005>
- Yoshida, R. (2013a). Conflict between learners' beliefs and actions: Speaking in the classroom. *Language Awareness*, 22(4), 371-388. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2012.758129>
- Yoshida, R. (2013b). Learners' self-concept and use of the target language in foreign language classroom. *System*, 41(4), 935-951. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.09.003>



## APPENDICES



# APPENDIX I

## INITIAL TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

.	end of a discourse unit or clause.
!	animated intonation
?	presence of a question.
...	noticeable pause or break of less than 1 second within a turn
-	sound abruptly cut off, e.g., false start
:	colon following vowel indicates elongated vowel sound
::	extra colon indicates longer elongation
( )	parentheses around talk spoken in a low voice ('sotto voce')
=	latching: no perceptible inter-turn pause
→	speaker's turn continues without interruption
<i>italics</i>	emphatic stress
/ /	words between slashes show uncertain transcription
/ ? /	indicates inaudible utterances: one ? for each syllable
	overlapping or simultaneous speech
[ ]	words in these brackets indicate non-linguistic information, e.g., pauses of 1 second or longer (the number of seconds is indicated), speakers' gestures or actions
'Hehehe'	Indicates laughter in a turn, for each syllable laughed a "he" is transcribed
.hh	inhalation (intake of breath)
hhh	Aspiration (releasing of breath)

Taken and adapted from Koester (2006: ix- x)





## APPENDIX 2

### LEARNER QUESTIONNAIRE

Nombre \_\_\_\_\_

Género    M ☐    F ☐    Clase \_\_\_\_\_    Edad \_\_\_\_\_

INSTRUCCIONES. Responde las siguientes preguntas con respecto a tu perspectiva y experiencia sobre la lengua inglesa. Las preguntas deberán ser contestadas ya sea subrayando, seleccionando o complementando. Tus respuestas serán tratadas confidencialmente y agradecería que fueran lo más cierto posible.

¡MUCHAS GRACIAS POR TU COOPERACIÓN!

1. ¿Cuáles son tus metas para aprender inglés? Selecciona las opciones que apliquen.

1. Pasar los exámenes/clase \_\_\_\_\_
2. Obtener un empleo \_\_\_\_\_
3. Motivos personales \_\_\_\_\_
4. Viajar al extranjero \_\_\_\_\_
5. Trabajar en el extranjero \_\_\_\_\_
6. Otro: por favor mencione \_\_\_\_\_

2. ¿Qué tan frecuente practicas las siguientes habilidades en tu clase? En orden de frecuencia, por favor escribe 1 – 5 (donde 1 es la que más practicas y 5 la que menos practicas).

1. Listening \_\_\_\_\_
2. Reading \_\_\_\_\_
3. Speaking \_\_\_\_\_
4. Writing \_\_\_\_\_
5. Grammar \_\_\_\_\_

3. ¿Qué habilidades te gustaría practicar más en tu clase de inglés? Ordena las siguientes habilidades de 1 a 5 (donde 1 es la que te gustaría practicar más a 5 como la que te gustaría practicar menos).

1. Listening \_\_\_\_\_
2. Reading \_\_\_\_\_
3. Speaking \_\_\_\_\_
4. Writing \_\_\_\_\_
5. Grammar \_\_\_\_\_

4. ¿Qué tipo de actividades de *speaking* son las más comunes en tu clase? Ordena las siguientes actividades con 1 a 5, donde 1 es la más frecuente a 5 como la menos frecuente.

1. Individual \_\_\_\_\_
2. En parejas \_\_\_\_\_
3. En pequeños grupos (3-5 personas) \_\_\_\_\_
4. En grupos grandes (más de 5 personas) \_\_\_\_\_
5. Con el maestro \_\_\_\_\_

5. Durante una típica clase de inglés, ¿Qué porcentaje de práctica de *speaking* dirías que se dedica entre el maestro y alumnos?

a) 0%   b) 25%   c) 50%   d) 75%   e) 100%

6. En tu opinión, ¿es suficiente?    SÍ ☐    NO ☐

7. ¿Por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

8. Durante una típica clase de inglés, ¿Qué porcentaje de práctica de *speaking* dirías que se dedica entre alumnos?

a) 0%   b) 25%   c) 50%   d) 75%   e) 100%

9. En tu opinión, ¿es suficiente?    SÍ ☐    NO ☐

10. ¿Por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

11. Para hablar el inglés eficientemente, ¿qué necesitaría hacer el maestro diferente? Marca la respuesta que indique tu respuesta.

	Más	Es suficiente	Menos
a) Práctica del speaking en grupos o parejas.			
b) Práctica del speaking con el maestro.			
c) Variedad de actividades de speaking.			
d) Actividades que se asemejen a la comunicación real fuera de clase.			
e) Un ambiente agradable para poder hablar.			
f) Más gramática/vocabulario.			

12. ¿Crees que aprendes cuando practicas speaking?    SÍ ☐    NO ☐

13. ¿Por qué (no)? \_\_\_\_\_

14. ¿Cómo te sientes cuando... (encierra la que mejor represente tu respuesta):

a)	El maestro te hace una pregunta	No lo haría	Incómodo				Cómodo
b)	Le hablas al maestro en inglés enfrente del grupo						
c)	Tienes una conversación con el maestro						
d)	Interrumpes al maestro						
e)	Hablas en inglés con el maestro						
f)	Hablas en inglés con tus compañeros						
g)	Hablas en español						
h)	No entiendes algo que el maestro dice						
i)	Practicas speaking con tus compañeros						
j)	El maestro te corrige oralmente						

15. ¿Crees que tus habilidades de speaking han mejorado este semestre?  
SÍ ☐ NO ☐
16. ¿Por qué (no)? \_\_\_\_\_
17. ¿Cuál es tu opinión acerca del nivel de inglés de tu clase? Subraya tu respuesta.
- a) Difícil, no entiendo                      b) Difícil pero generalmente entiendo  
c) Fácil de entender                      d) Es muy bajo
18. ¿Crees estar en el nivel correcto?  
SÍ ☐ NO ☐
19. ¿Por qué (no)? \_\_\_\_\_

# APPENDIX 3

## QUESTION GUIDE:

### TEACHER INTERVIEWS

Género    M ☐    F ☐                      Clase \_\_\_\_\_ Edad \_\_\_\_\_

#### Language/teaching background

1. How many years have you dedicated to learning English?
2. Have you had the chance to learn it in an English speaking country?
3. How many years have you been teaching English?
4. Have you had formal teaching training, such as a BA, courses, diplomas, etc.?

#### Classroom structure

5. What are the language skills most practised in your class? Why?
6. Which skills are more important to your learners? What would be the reason of this?

#### Skill planning

7. When you plan and deliver a speaking class, what do you normally focus on?
8. What kind of speaking practice is the most common in your English classes? E.g. individual, in pairs, in groups or with you.
9. Which problems do you face when planning or carrying out speaking activities?
10. What problems do you experience when you practise speaking with your learners?
11. When you practise speaking, do you focus on fluency or accuracy?

Skill practice
<p>12. When you prepare a speaking class, what do you consider?</p> <p>13. How do you organise a speaking class?</p> <p>14. Describe a common speaking session in your class. What activities you normally carry out? What do your learners have to do?</p> <p>15. Would you say that your learners' productions could meet real life needs? How do you make sure?</p> <p>16. Do you think that the learners have been putting great emphasis on the skill just to obtain the language certification?</p> <p>17. During a typical English class, what percentage of the speaking practice would you say is dedicated to speaking between teacher and learners? Is this enough time?</p> <p>18. During a typical English class, what percentage of the speaking practice is dedicated to speaking among learners? Is this enough time?</p> <p>19. Do you sometimes speak Spanish? In which circumstances?</p> <p>20. How do you make sure that your learners are progressing in speaking?</p>
Oral interaction/ practice perceptions
<p>21. Which benefits do you think your learners obtain when they practise speaking?</p> <p>22. Would you say that in your class there are enough opportunities to practise and develop the speaking skill?</p> <p>23. Do you believe that in your class there is a proper environment for your learners to practise speaking at all times?</p> <p>24. Do you consider that your learners are on the right level of English?</p> <p>25. Do you believe that the speaking practise in class really resembles real life communication?</p> <p>26. Do you believe that the speaking practice in you class is really meaningful for your learners so they can have a real conversation outside the classroom?</p> <p>27. How do you make sure that your learners are learning through speaking practice?</p> <p>28. Do you consider that there has been a positive effect on correcting the errors during speaking? How do you make sure?</p> <p>29. Do you modify you talk for learners to understand better?</p> <p>30. Could you name some situations in which you modify your speech to learners?</p>
Recommendations
<p>31. What would you recommend that learners do in class in order to improve their oral skills?</p>

# APPENDIX 4

## QUESTION GUIDE:

### SECOND TEACHER INTERVIEWS

Speaking
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) How often do you practise speaking? What is the reason for that?</li> <li>2) How do you normally plan and prepare for a speaking session?</li> <li>3) What are the language aspects that you want your learners to practise and learn?</li> <li>4) Do you normally practise speaking with them, or is it among them?</li> </ol>

Language performance
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5) What are your priorities while practising speaking with your learners?</li> <li>6) Do you focus on fluency or accuracy?</li> <li>7) How do you plan a speaking activity focused on accuracy?</li> <li>8) Have you ever practised complexity with your learners?</li> </ol>

Discourse function
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>9) Do you believe that the speaking activities that you perform are communicative?</li> <li>10) How do you make sure that they are communicative?</li> <li>11) Which communicative aspects do you include in the speaking activities?</li> </ol>

Negotiation of meaning
12) Do you normally correct your learners during speaking practice?
13) If not, what would be the reasons that prevent you from correcting them?
14) How do you think that your learners consider the oral corrections from you?
15) Do those perceptions are an obstacle for you to correct them during the speaking practice?
16) What kind of error do you normally correct during speaking practice?



## APPENDIX 5

### QUESTION GUIDE: LEARNER FOCUS GROUPS

#### Language background

1. What are your names?
2. How many years have you been learning English?
3. Have you learned English in a speaking country?
4. Why is English important for you?

#### Structure of class

5. Which skills do you normally practise most in your English class? What would be the reason for this?
6. Why do you think the class is focused on these skills?
7. Which skills would you like to practise most in your current English class? Why?

#### Language practice perception

8. Describe how it is when you have a speaking class? What do you normally do?
9. Does your teacher try to make you practise your speaking in class?
10. Are there many opportunities inside your classroom for you to speak in English?
11. While speaking, what do you do when you don't understand something the other person is saying?
12. Do you have more practice with the teacher or with your classmates?
13. Do you learn more when you practise your speaking with the teacher or with your classmates?

Needs for communicating in English
14. When you speak in English in your class, do you only answer the teacher's questions or have the opportunity to have a conversation?
15. How often do you speak in English in your class? Is this enough time?
16. Does your teacher speak in English all the time? If not, in which situations does s/he speak Spanish?
17. When you speak to your classmates, do you speak in English or Spanish? Why?



Attitudes towards language/interaction
18. Do you prefer practising English speaking with pairs, small groups or the teacher?
19. How do you feel when you speak or have a conversation in English to the teacher?
20. How do you feel when the teacher asks you questions in English?
21. How do you feel when you talk to the teacher in front of the class?
22. How do you feel when you interrupt the teacher?
23. When does your speaking become more fluent? When is it with the teacher or classmates?
24. How do you feel when you speak in English to your classmates?
25. Outside the classroom, is it possible for you to speak in English? How?
26. How many hours do you approximately speak in English inside the classroom every day?
27. What do you think about the level of the class? Is it too easy or difficult?

Perception of benefits from speaking English
--

- |  |
|--|
| <p>28. Do you think that your English oral skills have improved this semester? Why (not)?</p> <p>29. Do you believe that the speaking practice that you have in your class is meaningful so that you can have a conversation outside the classroom?</p> <p>30. Do you think that you normally learn English from speaking practice?</p> <p>31. Do you consider that error correction coming from the teacher is beneficial for your learning?</p> <p>32. Do you consider that error correction during speaking has helped you to improve the skill?</p> <p>33. For you, what strategies do you commonly use so that you oral skills improve?</p> |
|--|

Recommendations
-----------------

- |  |
|--|
| <p>34. In order for you to speak English effectively, what do you need your teacher to do differently? What do you need to do differently?</p> |
|--|



# APPENDIX 6

## FRAMEWORK OF INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INTERACTION: NATURE OF FLIS

FISFLI					
Interactional strategies Teacher talk		Occurrences (No.)		Percentage %	
		Learner talk	Teacher talk	Learner talk	
IRF pattern	1. Initiation				
	2. Response				
	3. Feedback/Follow-up				
	Examples				
Teacher-initiated exchanges	Interactional strategies	Teacher talk			
		Occurrences (No.)		Percentage %	
	4. Inform				
	5. Direct				
	6. Elicit				
	7. Check				
	Examples				

Questioning	8. Referential questions				
	9. Display questions				
	10. Total number of questions				
	Examples				
Interactional strategies Teacher talk		Occurrences (No.)		Percentage %	
		Learner talk	Teacher talk	Learner talk	
Length	11. Total number of turns				
	12. Long turns				
	13. Short turns				
	14. Length of talk				
	Examples				

# APPENDIX 7

## FRAMEWORK OF INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INTERACTION: LEARNER TALK

FISFLI			
Interactional strategies		Occurrences (No.)	Percentage/Ratio
Discourse Functions	1. Moves conversation on to a new topic/activity		
	2. Extends a previous contribution		
	3. Jokes/says something funny		
	4. Provides an example/Exemplifies		
	5. Summarizes or ends discussions/task		
	6. Confirms		
	7. Hypothesizes		
	8. Makes an observation		
	9. Defines		
	10. Negates		
	11. Concludes		
	12. Praises or encourages		
	13. Completes		
	14. Interrupts		
	15. Speaks simultaneously		
	16. Explains/gives information		
	17. Gives directions		
	18. Total number of functions of conversation		
	Examples		

Language performance	19. Turns				
	20. Words				
	21. Clauses				
	22. Independent clauses				
	23. Dependent clauses				
	24. Coordinated clauses				
	25. AS-units				
	26. Error-free clauses				
	27. Errors				
Examples					
Interactional strategies Teacher talk		Occurren- ces (No.)	Percentage %		
		Learner talk	Teacher talk	Learner talk	



Negotiation of Meaning	28. Comprehension checks			
	29. Confirmation checks			
	30. Clarification requests			
	31. Recasts			
	32. Repetitions			
	33. Total number of negotiation moves			
	34. Total number of NoMs			
	Examples			
Interactional strategies		Occurrences (No.)	Percentage/Ratio	
Length of answers	35. Answers			
	36. Words			
	37. Clauses			
	38. Independent clauses			
	39. Dependent clauses			
	Examples			



## APPENDIX 8

### CATEGORIES FROM INTERVIEWS AND FOCUS GROUPS

1. Language practice
  - a. Objectives of language practice
  - b. Most practised language skills
2. Perceptions of speaking practice
  - a. Aims for speaking practice
  - b. Implementation of speaking practice
  - c. Learners' preference for speaking practice
3. Perceptions about learners' proficiency level
  - a. Learners in right class
  - b. Learners with low oral competence
4. Benefits of speaking practice
  - a. Benefits of speaking practice in the classroom
  - b. Progress in speaking skills
  - c. Learners' development of language performance
  - d. Development of discourse competence
  - e. Practice of fluency and accuracy
5. Perceptions of TLIs
  - a. Speaking practice relied on TLIs
  - b. Positive attitudes towards TLIs
  - c. Benefits of TLIs
  - d. Limitations of TLIs

6. Perceptions of PIs
  - a. Speaking practice relied on PIs
  - b. Benefits of PIs
  - c. Limitations of PIs
    - i. PIs as relaxed opportunities
    - ii. PIs may not be performed as expected
  - d. PIs as source of error treatment
7. Perceived limitations to speaking practice
  - a. Speaking not developing learners' competence
  - b. Learners' low oral competence
  - c. Limited participation during speaking
  - d. Speaking practised as a complementary activity
  - e. Teachers dominating talk
  - f. Learners' reticence
  - g. Speaking focused on form
  - h. Lack of learner autonomy
8. Indicators of learners' progress in speaking skills
  - a. Use of speaking test
  - b. Performance as indicator of progress
9. Locally-situated needs
  - a. Class size constraints
  - b. Class time constraints
10. Influence of beliefs about locally-situated needs
  - a. Reliance on textbooks
  - b. Question – answer patterns
  - c. Teaching to the language certification
    - i. Practice for language certification as a limitation for developing speaking skills
  - d. Reliance on grammar practice
    - ii. Reasons for grammar/vocabulary practice

11. Perceptions about error corrections
  - a. Error correction strategies
  - b. Positive attitude towards error correction
    - i. Perceived benefits of error corrections
  - c. Negative attitude towards error correction
    - ii. Teachers not correcting learners
  
12. Negotiations of meaning
  - a. Negotiations of meaning at word level
  - b. No need for negotiations of meaning
    - i. Negotiations not initiated by learners
    - ii. Face-threatening negotiations of meaning
  - c. More negotiations of meaning in PIs
  
13. Recommendations
  - a. Recommendations for the speaking
    - i. More speaking practice
    - ii. More time
  - b. Needs/recommendations for learner autonomy

This book presents in-depth explorations of oral interactions that occurred as part of the regular class activities in three English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms in a university in Mexico. Two key features distinguish these explorations. The first is that the author analysed and compared the nature of learner talk in two types of activities: teacher-led discussion and peer interaction. The second is that the author considered a range of factors that may have impacted learner talk in these activities, including not only task related factors but also learner related factors. In this sense, the book crosses the traditional methodological boundary associated with interactionist research. Specifically, the explorations in this book draw attention to the role of teacher and learner beliefs, showing how teachers' and learners' diverse and sometimes conflicting beliefs shape the structure and nature of classroom interactions. In particular, these explorations address how teachers' and learners' interactional- and teaching and learning-related choices and beliefs are influential on three aspects of learner talk: language performance indicated by levels of fluency, complexity and accuracy, use of discourse functions, and negotiations of meaning. The book concludes that there is an interrelated set of cognitive, practical and interactional factors which shape classroom interactions and in turn learners' language achievement.

NEOMY STORCH,  
PhD. Professor in ESL & Applied Linguistics,  
The University of Melbourne



Edgar Emmanuell García-Ponce holds an MA in Applied Linguistics (UAEMex) and a PhD in English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (University of Birmingham, UK). He is currently studying a specialisation degree in Spanish as a Foreign Language Teaching at the National University of Mexico (UNAM). His research interests are classroom interactions and teacher cognitions. He has recently worked on projects funded by the British Council. He is a member of the Sistema Nacional de Investigadores, and coordinates the BA in ELT at the Universidad de Guanajuato.



Campus Guanajuato | División de Ciencias  
Sociales y Humanidades