MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SPECIALISED SECONDARY EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN

FERGHANA STATE UNIVERSITY

PHILOLOGY FACULTY

ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

This is submitted for

BACHELOR'S DIPLOMA DEGREE

Theme: "Learner language: Observing learning and teaching in the second language classroom"

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Group 450

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Bachelor's diploma work was passed a preliminary by chair.

_____3_____submission number "__4__" __November__2011 year

Ferghana-2012

CONTENTS

I. <u>Introduction</u>

After getting the Independence the Republic of Uzbekistan has worked out an own model of development, taking into account the specific social and political traditions in the country. One of the most important conditions for the development of any country is a well-functioning education system. As the education system ensures the formation of a highly developed that must be able to live in a highly, with social and personal activity, ability to function independently in the public and political life.

By 1997 on the basis of the National Model of development there had been worked out the National program for Personal Training which defined conceptional ways and concrete details, mechanisms for radical reforming the education system and personnel training.

The program is the normative scientific basis for reforms. Starting from 1997 it is being put into practice stage by stage. The documents paves the way for radical reforms in the structure and content of education system of the National program we need to change some ways of teaching the English language under school conditions as the old approaches no longer meet the requirements of the last year. The historic changes took place in Uzbekistan, since there have been obtained. Independence and sovereignty after September 1991, in Independent Uzbekistan many political, economical, cultural and social factors have changed. Therefore, the very time of getting Independence the head of the republic I.A.Karimov[1] attended to change Educational System and the attempts reflected on changing in Educational System in 1997, the Educational System and Personnel Training so high developed before Independence no longer meets requirements of democratic and market changes occurred in the Republic today. It should be noted that the National Program of Personnel training had some unique features. The reforms are carried out on an extensive scale and are supported scientifically.

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[1] I.A.Karimov. Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress. 1993.Tashkent, p.67

As the president I.A.Karimov emphasized in his book "Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress" there are four path of reform and development is based:

- Adherence to universal human values
- Consolidation and development of the nation's spiritual heritage
- Freedom for the individuals realization
- Patriotism

The highest objective of reformation in Uzbekistan is to revive those traditions, fill them with new content and set up all necessary conditions achieving peace and democracy, prosperity, cultural advancement, freedom of conscience and intellectual maturity for every person on the earth.

According to the requirements on the National Program of Personnel training and reforming of highest education in the republic of Uzbekistan it is important to make effective changes in the system of Higher Education. As Karimov I.A.[2] highlighted "Our young generation must be quick- cutter, wiser, healthier and of course, must be happier than us".

In order to achieve "Harmoniously developed generation"[3] Educators should use all the suitable aids.

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[2] I.A.Karimov. There is no future without history. 1997. Tashkent, p.47
[3] I.A.Karimov. Harmoniously developed generation is a basis of progress of Uzbekistan. 1998, Tashkent

Studying the language of second language learners

In this research work we focus on second language learners' developing knowledge and use of their new language. We examine some of the errors that learners make and discuss what errors can tell us about their knowledge of the language and their ability to use that knowledge. We look at stages and sequences in the acquisition of some syntactic and morphological features in the second language. We also review some aspects of learners' development of vocabulary, pragmatics and phonology.

Knowing more about the development of learner language helps teachers to assess teaching procedures in the light of what they can reasonably expect to accomplish in the classroom. As we will see, some characteristics of learner language can be quite perplexing if one does not have an overall picture of the steps learners go through in acquiring features of the second language[4] In presenting some of the findings of second language research, we have included a number of examples of learner language as well as some additional samples to give you an opportunity to practice analyzing learner language. Of course, teachers analyze learner language all the time. They try to determine whether students have learned what has been taught and how closely their language matches the target language. But progress cannot be always measured in these terms. Sometimes language acquisition is reflected in a decrease in the use of correct form that was based on rote memorization or chunk learning. New errors may be based on an emerging ability to extend a particular grammatical form beyond the specific items with which it was first learned. In this sense, an increase in error may be an indication of progress. For example, like first language learners, second language learners usually learn the irregular past tense forms of certain common verbs before they learn to apply the regular simple past *-ed* marker. That means that a learner who

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[4] Patsy M. Zightbown and N.Spada. 2006. How language are learned. Oxford University Press.

says "I buyed a bus ticket" may know more about English grammar than one who says "I bought a bus ticket".

The one who says "buyed" knows a rule for forming the past tense and has applied it to an irregular verb. Without further information, we cannot conclude that the one who says "bought" would use the regular past *-ed* marker where it is appropriate, but the learner who says "buyed" has provided evidence of developing knowledge of a systematic aspect of English. Teachers and researches cannot read learners' minds, so they must infer what learners know by observing what they do. We observe their spontaneous language use, but we also design procedures that help to reveal more about the knowledge underlying their observable use of language. Without these procedures, it is often difficult to determine whether a particular behavior is representative of something systematic in a learner's current language knowledge or simply an isolated item, learned as a chunk.

Like first language learners, second language learners do not learn language simply through imitation and practice. They produce sentences that are not exactly like those they have heard. These new sentences appear to be based on internal cognitive processes and prior knowledge that interact with the language they hear around them. Both first and second language acquisition are best described as developing systems with their own evolving rules and patterns, not as imperfect versions of the target language.

Children's knowledge of the grammatical system is built up in predictable sequences. For instance, grammatical morphemes such as the *-ing* of the present progressive or the *-ed* of the simple past are not acquired at the same time, but in sequence. Furthermore, the acquisition of certain grammatical features is similar for children in different environments. As children continue to hear and use their language, they are able to revise these systems so that they increasingly resemble the language spoken in their environment. Are there developmental sequences for second language acquisition? How does the prior knowledge of the first language affect the acquisition of the second (or third) language? How does instruction

affect second language acquisition? Are there differences between learners whose only contact with the new language is in a language course and those who use the language in daily life? These are some of the questions researches have sought to answer, and we will address them in this research work.

Contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interlanguage

Until the late 1960s, people tended to see second language learners' speech simply as an incorrect version of the target language. According to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), errors were often assumed to be the result of transfer from learners' first language. However, not all errors made by second language learners can be explained in terms of first language transfer alone. A number of studies show that many errors can be explained better in terms of learners' developing knowledge of the structure of the target language rather than an attempt to transfer patterns of their first language. Furthermore, some of the errors are remarkably similar to those made by young first language learners for example, the use of a regular *-ed* past tense ending on an irregular verb.

A simplified version of the CAH would predict that, where differences exist, errors would be bi-directional, that is, for example, French speakers learning English and English speakers learning French would make errors on parallel linguistic features. Helmut Zobl (1980)[5] observed that this is not always the case. For example, in English, direct objects, whether nouns or pronouns, come after the verb ('The dog eats the cookie. The dog eats it.'). In French, direct objects that are nouns follow the verb (Le chien mange le biscuit – literally, 'The dog ears the cookie'). However, direct object pronouns precede the verb (Le chien le mange – literally, 'The dog it eats'). The CAH would predict that a native speaker of English might make an error of saying: *Le chien mange le* when learning French, and that a native speaker of French might say 'The dog it ate' when learning English. In fact, English speakers learning French are more likely to make the

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[5] Zobl H. 1980. The formal and developmental selectivity of Z_1 influence on Z_2 acquisition. Language learning. 30/1 : 43-57

predicted error than French speakers learning English. This may be due to the fact that English speakers learning French hear many examples of sentences with subject –verb – object wo5rd order (for example, Le chien mange le biscuit) and make the incorrect generalization – based on both the word order of their first language and evidence from the second language – that all direct objects come after the verb. French-speaking learners of English, on the other hand hearing and seeing no evidence that English direct object pronouns precede verbs, do not tend to use this pattern from their first language.

Eric Kellerman (1986)[6] and others also observed that learners have intuitions about which language features they can transfer from their first language to the target language and which are less likely to be transferable. For example, most learners believe that idiomatic or metaphorical expressions cannot simply be translated word for word.

As a result of the finding that many aspects of learners' language could not be explained by the CAH, a number of researchers began to take a different approach to analyzing learners' errors. This approach, which developed during the 1970s, became known as 'error analysis' and involved detailed description and analysis of the kinds of errors second language learners make. The goal of this research was to discover what learners really know about the language. As Pit Corder said in a famous article published in 19676 when learners produce 'correct' sentences, they may simply be repeating something they have already heard; when they produce sentences that differ from the target language, we may assume that these sentences reflect the learners' current understanding of the rules and patterns of that language. 'Error analysis' differed from contrastive analysis in that it did not set out to predict errors. Rather, it sought to discover and describe different kinds of errors in an effort to understand how learners process second language data. Error analysis was based on the hypothesis that, like child language, second

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[6] Kellerman E. 1986. An eye for an eye: Cross linguistic constraints on the development of the Z_2 lexicon. New York: Pergamon, pp.35-48

language learner language is a system in its own right – one that is rule-governed and predictable.

Larry Selinker (1972) gave the name INTERLANGUAGE to learners' developing second language knowledge. Analysis of a learner's interlanguage shows that it has some characteristics influenced by previously learned languages, some characteristics of the second language, and some characteristics, such as the omission of function words and grammatical morphemes, that seem to be general and to occur in all or most interlanguage systems. Interlanguages have been found to be systematic, but they are also dynamic, continually evolving as learners receive more input and revise their hypotheses about second language. The path through language acquisition is not necessarily smooth and even. Learners have bursts of progress, then seem to reach a plateau for a while before something stimulates further progress. Selinker also coined the term FOSSILIZATION to refer to the fact that, some features in a learner's language may stop changing. This may be especially true for learners whose exposure to the second language does not include instruction or the kind of feedback that would help them to recognize differences between their interlanguage and the target language.

Analyzing learner language

The following texts were written by two learners of English, one a French-speaking secondary school student, the other a Chinese-speaking adult learner. Both learners were describing a cartoon film entitled *The Great Toy Robbery* (National Film Board of Canada). After viewing the film, they were asked to retell the story in writing, as if they were telling it to someone who had not seen the film. Read the texts and examine the errors made by each learner. Do they make the same kinds of errors? In what ways do the two interlanguages differ?

Learner 1: French first language, secondary school student

During a sunny day, a cowboy go in the desert with his horse, he has a big hat. His horse eat a flour. In the same time, Santa Clause go in a city to give some surprises. You have three robbers in the mountain who sees Santa Clause with a

king of glaces that it permitted us to see at a long distance. Every robbers have a horse. They go in the way of Santa Clause, not Santa Clause but his pocket of surprises. After they will go in a city and they go in a saloon. […]
(unpublished data from P.M.Lightbown and B.Barkman)

Learner 2: Chinese first language, adult

  This year Christmas comes soon! Santa Claus ride in a one horse open sleigh to sent present for children. On the back of his body has big packet. it have a lot of toys, in the way he meet three robbers. They want to take his big packet. Santa Claus no way and no body help, so only a way give them, then three robbers ride their horse dashing through the town. There have saloon, they go to drink some beer and open the big packent. They play toys in the Bar. They meet a cow boy in the saloon.
(unpublished data provided by M.J.Martens)

  Perhaps the most striking thing here is that many error types are common to both learners. Both make errors of spelling and punctuation that we might find in the writing of a young native speaker of English. Even though French uses grammatical morphemes to indicate person and number on verbs and Chinese does not, both these learners make errors of subject – verb agreement, both leaving off the third person -*s* marker and overusing it when the subject is plural ('a cowboy go' and 'three robbers in the mountain who sees' by Learner 1 and 'Santa Claus ride' and 'they plays' by Learner 2). Such errors reflect learners' understanding of the second language system itself rather than an attempt to transfer characteristics of their first language. They are sometimes referred to as 'developmental' errors because they are similar to those made by children acquiring English as their first language. Sometimes these are errors of overgeneralization, that is, errors caused by trying to use a rule in a context where it does not belong, for example, the -*s* ending on the verb in 'they plays'. Sometimes the errors are better described as SIMPLIFICATION, where elements of a sentence are left out or where all verbs have

the same form regardless of person, number, or tense. One can also see, especially in Learner 2's text, the influence of classroom experience. An example is the use of formulaic expression such as 'one horse open sleigh' which is taken verbatim from a well-known Christmas song that had been taught and sung in his ESL class. The vivid 'dashing through the town' probably comes from the same source.

For those who are familiar with the English spoken by native speakers of French, some of the errors (for example, preposition choice 'in the same time') made by the first learner will be seen as probably based on French. Similarly, those familiar with the English of Chinese speakers may recognize some word order patterns (for example, 'on the back of his body has big packet') as based on Chinese patterns. These are called transfer or 'interference' errors. What is most clear, however, is that it is often difficult to determine the source of errors. Thus, while error analysis has the advantage of describing what learners actually do rather than what they might do, it does not always give us clear insights into why they do it. Furthermore, as Jacquelyn Schachter[7] pointed out in a 1974 article, learners sometimes avoid using certain features of language that they perceive to be difficult for them. This avoidance may lead to the absence of certain errors, leaving the analyst without information about learners' developing interlanguage. That is, the absence of particular errors is difficult to interpret. The phenomenon of 'avoidance' may itself be a part of the learners' systematic second language performance.

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[7] Schachter J. 1974. An error in error analysis. Language Learning 24/2:205-14

II. The language of the learners

2.1. Developmental sequences. Grammatical morphemes

Second language learners, like first language learners, pass through sequences of development: what is learned early by one is learned early by others. Among first language learners, the existence of developmental sequences may not seem surprising because their language learning is partly tied to their cognitive development and to their experiences in learning about relationships among people, events, and objects around them. But the cognitive development of adult or adolescent second language learners is much more stable, and their experiences with the language are likely to be quite different, not only from the experiences of a little child, but also different from each other. Furthermore, second language learners already know another language that has different patterns for creating sentences and word forms. In light of this, it is more remarkable that we find developmental sequences that are similar in the developing interlanguage of learners from different backgrounds and also similar to those observed in first language acquisition of the same language. Moreover, the features of the language that are heard most frequently are not always easiest to learn. For example, virtually every English sentence has one or more articles ('a' or 'the'), but even advanced learners have difficulty using these forms correctly in all contexts. Finally, although the learners' first language does have an influence, many aspects of these developmental stages are similar among learners from many different first language backgrounds.

Grammatical morphemes
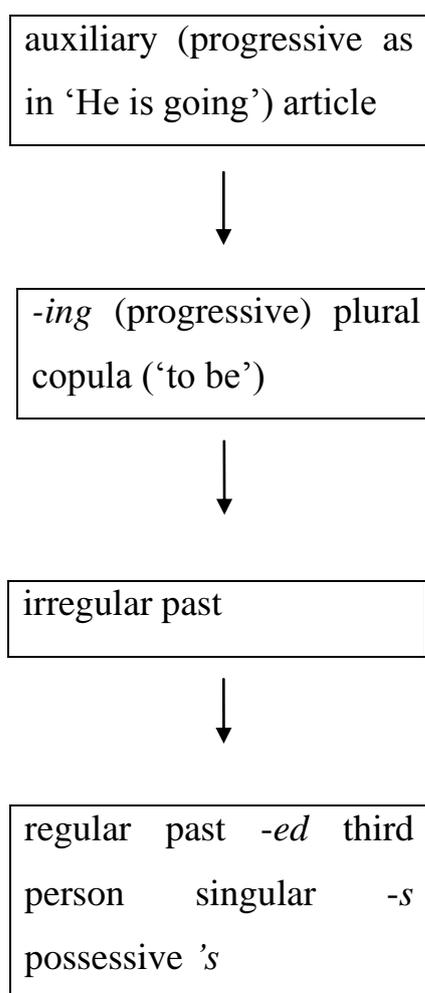
Some studies have examined the development of grammatical morphemes by learners of English as a second language in a variety of environments, at different ages, and from different first language backgrounds. In analyzing each learner's speech, researches identify the OBLIGATORY CONTEXTS for each morpheme, that is, the places in a sentence where the morpheme is necessary to make the sentence

grammatically correct. For example, in the sentence 'Yesterday I play baseball for two hours', the adverb 'yesterday' creates an obligatory context for a past tense, and 'for two hours' tells us that the required form is a simple past ('played') rather than a past progressive ('was playing'). Similarly, 'two' creates an obligatory context for a plural -*s* on 'hours'. For the analysis, obligatory contexts for each grammatical morpheme are counted separately, that is, one count for simple past, one for plural, one for third person singular present tense, and so on. After counting the number of obligatory contexts, the researcher counts the correctly supplied morphemes. The next step is to divide the number of correctly supplied morphemes by the total number of obligatory contexts to answer the question 'what is the percentage accuracy for each morpheme?' An accuracy score is created for each morpheme, and these can then be ranked from the highest to lowest, giving an ACCURACY ORDER for the morphemes.

The overall results of the studies suggested an order which, while not identical to the developmental sequence found for the first language learners, was similar among second language learners from different first language backgrounds. For example, most studies showed a higher degree of accuracy for plural than for possessive, and for -*ing* than for regular past (-*ed*). Stephen Krashen summarized the order as shown in Figure 4.1. The diagram should be interpreted as showing that learners will produce the morpheme in higher boxes with higher accuracy than those in lower boxes but that within boxes, there is no clear pattern of difference. The similarity among learners suggests that the accuracy order cannot be described or explained in terms of transfer from the learners' first language, and some researches saw this as strong evidence against the CAH. However, a thorough review of all the 'morpheme acquisition' studies shows that the learners' first language does have an influence on acquisition sequences. For example, learners whose first language has a possessive form that resembles the English *'s* (such as German and Danish) seem to acquire the English possessive earlier than those whose first language has a very difficult way of forming the possessive (such as

French or Spanish). And even though 'article' appears early in the sequence, learners from many language backgrounds (including Slavic languages and Japanese) continue to struggle with this aspect of English, even at advanced levels. For example, learners may do well in supplying articles in certain obligatory contexts but not others.

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┌─────────────────────────┐
│ auxiliary (progressive as│
│ in 'He is going') article│
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ -ing (progressive) plural│
│ copula ('to be')         │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ irregular past           │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ regular past -ed third   │
│ person singular -s       │
│ possessive 's            │
└─────────────────────────┘
```

Figure 1 Krashen's (1977)[8] summary of second language grammatical morpheme acquisition sequence

    If the language sample that is analyzed contains only the 'easier' obligatory contexts, the learner may have a misleadingly high accuracy score. Another reason why something as difficult as English articles appears to be acquired early is that the order in the diagram is based on the analysis of correct use in obligatory

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[8] Krashen S. 1977. Some issues relating to the monitor model. Washington, DS: TESOZ, pp.144-58

contexts only. It does not take into account uses of grammatical morphemes in places where they do *not* belong, for example when a learner says, 'The France is in Europe'. These issues have led researches to question the adequacy of obligatory context analyses as the sole basis for understanding developmental sequences.

The morpheme acquisition literature raises other issues, not least of them the question of why there should be an order of acquisition for these language features. Some of the similarities observed in different studies seemed to the use of particular tasks for collecting the data, and researchers found that different tasks tended to yield different results. Nevertheless, a number of studies have revealed similarities that cannot be explained by the data collection procedure alone. As with first language acquisition, researches have not found a single simple explanation for the order. Jenifer Goldschneider and Robert De Keyser (2001)[9] reviewed this research and identified a number of variables that contribute to the order.

Salience (how easy it is to notice the morpheme), linguistic complexity (for example, how many elements you have to keep track of), semantic transparency (how clear the meaning is), similarity to a first language form, and frequency in the input all seem to play a role.

Negation

The acquisition of negative sentences by second language learners follow a path that looks nearly identical to the stages for first language acquisition. However, second language learners from different first language backgrounds behave somewhat differently within those stages. This was illustrated in John Schumann's (1979)[10] research with Spanish speakers learning English and Henning Wode's (1978)[11] work on German speakers learning English.

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[9] Goldschneider J.M. and R.M.De Keyser. 2001. Explaining the natural order of L_2 morpheme acquisition in English. Language Learning 51/1: 1-50.

[10] Schumann J. 1979. The acquisition of English negation by speakers of Spanish: a review of the literature in R.W.Anderson. Washington DC: TESOZ.

[11] Wode H. 1978. Developmental sequences in naturalistic L_2 acquisition. MA: Newbury House, pp. 101-17

Stage 1

The negative element (usually 'no' or 'not') is typically placed before the verb or the element being negated. Often, it occurs as the first word in the sentence because the subject is not there.

No bicycle, I no like it. Not my friend.

'No' is preferred by most learners in this early stage, perhaps it is the negative form that is easiest to hear and recognize in the speech they are exposed to.

Italian- and Spanish-speaking learners may prefer 'no' because it corresponds to the negative form in Italian and Spanish (*No tienen muchos libros*). They may continue to use Stage 1 negation longer than other learners because of the similarity to a pattern from their first language. Even when they produce negative sentences at more advanced stages, they may also use Stage 1 negatives in longer sentences or when they are under pressure. Thus, similarity to the first language may slow down a learner's progress through a particular developmental stage.

Stage 2

At this stage, 'no' and 'not' may alternate with 'don't'. However, 'don't' is not marked for person, number or tense and it may even be used before modals like 'can' and 'should'.

He don't like it. I don't can sing.

Stage 3

Learners begin to place the negative element after auxiliary verbs like 'are', 'is', and 'can'. But at this stage, the 'don't' form is still not fully analyzed:

You can not go there. He was not happy. She don't like rice.

At this stage, German speakers, whose first language has a structure that places the negative after the verb may generalize the auxiliary-negative pattern to verb-negative and produce sentences such as:

They come not [to] home. *(Sie kommen nicht nach Hause)*

Stage 4

In this stage, 'do' is marked for tense, person, and number, and most interlanguage sentences appear to be just like those of the target language:

It doesn't work. We didn't have supper.

However, some learners continue to mark tense, person, and number on both the auxiliary and the verb:

I didn't went there.

Questions

In the 1.980s, Manfred Pienemann and his colleagues undertook studies that related the second language acquisition of German and English. Pienemann, Johnston, and Brindley (1988)[12] described a sequence in the acquisition of questions by learners of English from a variety of first language backgrounds. An adapted version of the sequence is shown in Stages 1-6 below. The examples come from French speakers who were playing a game in which they had to ask questions in order to find out which picture the other player was holding. As we saw for negation, the overall sequence is similar to the one observed in first language acquisition. And again, there are some differences that are attributable to first language influence.

Stage 1

Single words, formulae, or sentence fragments.

Dog?

Four children?

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[12] M.Piennemann, M. Johnston and T.Brindley. 1988. Constructing an acquisition-based procedure for second language assessment. Oxford: Blackwell, pp.679-714

Stage 2

Declarative word order, no inversion, no fronting.

It's a monster in the right corner?

The boys throw the shoes?

Declarative order with rising intonation is common in yes/no questions in informal spoken French. French speakers may hypothesize that in English, as in French, inversion is optional.

Stage 3

Fronting: *do*-fronting; *wh*-fronting, no inversion; other fronting.

Do you have a shoes on your picture?

Where the children are playing?

Does in this picture there is four astronauts?

Is the picture has two planets on top?

French has an invariant form 'est-ce que' that can be placed before a declarative sentence to make a question, for example, *Jean dime le cinema becomes Est-ce que jean aime le cinema?*,—'[is it that] John likes movies?' French speakers may think that 'do' or 'does' is such an invariant form and continue to produce Stage 3 questions for some time.

Stage 4

Inversion in wh- + copula; 'yes/no' questions with other auxiliaries.

Where is the sun?

Is there a fish in the water?

At Stage 4, German speakers may infer that if English uses subject-auxiliary inversion, it may also permit inversion with full verbs, as German does, leading them to produce questions such as 'Like you baseball?'—*Magst du baseball?*

Stage 5

Inversion in wh- questions with both an auxiliary and a main verb.

How do you say *proche*?   What's the boy doing?

French-speaking learners may have difficulty using Stage 5 questions in which the subject is a noun rather than a pronoun. They may say (and accept as grammatical) 'Why do you like chocolate?' but not 'Why do children like chocolate?' In this, they are drawing on French, where it is often ungrammatical to use inversion with a noun subject *(Pourquoi aiment les enfants le chocolaff).*

Stage 6

Complex questions

Question tag: It's better, isn't it?

Negative question: Why can't you go?

Embedded question: Can you tell me what the date is today?

Pienemann's developmental sequence for questions has been the basis for a number of studies. Alison Mackey[13] and her colleagues have done a number of these studies, and she provided the data in Table 4.1. These examples come from three adult Japanese learners of English as a second language who were interacting with a native speaker in a spot the differences' task. In this task, learners have similar but not identical pictures and they have to ask questions until they work out how the picture they can see is different from the one their interlocutor has. Note

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[13] Mackey A. 1999. Input, interaction and second language development. Studies in SZA 21/4:557-87

that progress to a higher stage does not always mean that learners produce fewer errors.

Using the information about the developmental sequence for questions in the stages above, circle the stage of second language question development that best corresponds to each question. Hint: Read all of each learner's questions before you begin.

Learner I   *Stage*

1 Where is he going and what is he saying? 1 2 3   4   5   6

2 Is the room his room?   1 2 3   4   5   6

3 Is he taking out his skate board?   1 2 3   4   5   6

4 What is he thinking?   1 2 3   4   5   6

5 The girl, what do you, what does she do,
what is she doing?   1 2 3   4   5   6

Learner 2

6 Are they buying son?e things?   1 2 3   4   5   6
7 Is they bought present?   1 2 3   4   5   6
8 Is they're retirement people?   1 2 3   4   5   6
9 Is this perfume or ... 1 don't know.   1 2 3   4   5   6
10 And it is necktie?   1 2 3   4   5   6

Learner 3

11 Are there any shuttle? Space shuttle?   1 2 3   4   5   6
12 Inside, is there any girl?   1 2 3   4   5   6
13 You don't see?   1 2 3   4   5   6
14 What are, what the people wearing?   1 2 3   4   5   6
15 And they are carrying pink box?   1 2 3   4   5   6

Answer key

Learner I: Questions 1, 4, and 5 are Stage 5 questions. Question 5 is interesting because it shows the speaker self-correcting, suggesting that Stage 5 is still a level that requires some greater effort. Questions 2 and 3 are Stage 4 questions.

Learner 2: Questions 6 and 9 could be Stage 4 questions. However, the fact that questions 7 and 8 are Stage 3 questions suggests that this speaker has not actually progressed from 'fronting' to 'inversion', particularly since question 10 is a Stage 2 question.

Learner 3: Questions 11 and 12 are Stage 4 questions. Questions 13 and 15 are Stage 2 questions. Question 14 shows the speaker apparently on the verge of a

Stage 5 question, then retreating to a Stage 3 question.

2.2 Possessive determiners. Relative Clauses

A developmental sequence for the English possessive forms 'his' and 'her' has been observed in the interlanguage of French- and Spanish-speaking learners. In English, the choice of 'his' or 'her (or 'its') is determined by the natural gender of the possessor. In French and Spanish (and many other languages), the correct form of the possessive determiner matches the grammatical gender of the object or person that is possessed. This can be illustrated with the following translation equivalents for French and English:

Sa mere = his mother or her mother

Son chien = his dog or her dog

Ses enfants = his children or her children

Note that when the object possessed is a body part, French often uses a definite article rather than a possessive determiner.

Il s'est casse' le bras—He broke the [his] arm.

Joanna White (1998)[14] studied the acquisition of possessive determiners by French-speaking students, adapting a developmental sequence that was first proposed by Helmut Zobl (1984). White found a total of eight steps in the sequence, but they can be grouped into four main stages. The examples shown in Stages 1-4 below come from French-speaking students learning English, describing cartoon drawings of family events and interactions.

Stage 1: Pre-emergence

No use of 'his' and 'her. Definite article or 'your' used for all persons, genders, and numbers.

The little boy play with the bicycle.

He have band-aid on the arm, the leg, the stomach.

This boy cry in the arm of your mother.

There is one girl talk with your dad.

Stage 2: Emergence

Emergence of 'his' and or 'her', with a strong preference to use only one of the forms.

The mother is dressing her little boy, and she put her clothes, her pant, her coat, and then she finish.
The girl making hisself beautiful. She put the make-up on his hand, on his head, and his father is surprise.

Stage 3: Post-emergence

Differentiated use of 'his' and 'her but not when the object possessed has natural gender.

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[14] White J. 1998. Getting the learners' attention. Cambridge University Press, pp 85-113

The girl fell on her bicycle. She look his father and cry.

The dad put her little girl on his shoulder, and after, on his back.

Stage 4

Error-free use of 'his' and 'her' in all contexts including natural gender and body parts.

The little girl with her dad play together. And the dad take his girl on his shoulder and he hurt his back.

English speakers learning French, or other languages that use grammatical gender as the basis for choosing possessive determiners, also have to learn a new way of determining the gender of the possessive determiner. Learning the grammatical gender of each and every noun further adds to the challenge.

Relative clauses

Second language learners first acquire relative clauses that refer to nouns in the subject and direct object positions, and only later (and in some cases, never) learn to use them to modify nouns in other sentence roles (for example, indirect object and object of preposition). A summary of the observed pattern of acquisition for relative clauses is shown in Table 4.2. It is referred to as the 'accessibility hierarchy', and it reflects the apparent ease with which learners have 'access' to certain structures in the target language.

Part of speech	Relative clause
Subject	The girl who was sick went home.
Direct object	The story that I read was long.
Indirect object	The man who [m] Susan gave the present to was
Object of preposition	I found the book that John was talking about.
Possessive	I know the woman whose father is visiting.
Object of comparison	'the person that Susan is taller than is Mary.

Table 4.2 Accessibility hierarchy for relative clauses in English (adapted from Doughty[15])

Unlike the study of grammatical morphemes, negation, and questions, the study of relative clauses was not inspired by research on child language. Rather, it came from patterns found in studies of a large number of languages by Edward Keenan and Bernard Comrie (1977). They found that those languages which included the structures at the bottom of the list in Table 4.2 would also have those at the top, but the opposite was not necessarily true. Subsequently, Susan Gass (1982) and others found that if a second language learner could use one of the structures at the bottom of the list, he or she would probably be able to use any that precede it. On the other hand, a learner who could produce sentences with relative clauses in the subject or direct object positions (at the top of the list) would not necessarily be able to use them in any of the positions further down the list.

Despite the similarity of the general pattern that has been found, several types of first language influence have been observed in the acquisition of relative clauses. First, it has been observed that for learners whose first language does not have a particular clause type (for example, object of comparison), it is more difficult to learn to use that type in English. Second, where learners have a first language with a substantially different way of forming relative clauses (for example, Japanese and Chinese, where the relative clause precedes the noun it modifies), they may avoid using relative clauses even when their interlanguage is fairly advanced. Third, first language influence is seen in the errors learners make. For example, Arabic speakers often produce both the relative marker and the pronoun it replaces (for example, 'The man who I saw him was very angry'), as they would in Arabic.

Reference to past

A number of researchers, including Jurgen Meisel (1987), have observed the developing ability to use language to locate events in time. The research has shown

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[15] Doughty C. 1991. Second language instruction does make a difference. Malden; MA: Blackwell Publishing

that learners from different first language backgrounds and acquiring a variety of second languages acquire the language for referring to past events in a similar pattern.

Like young children, learners with limited language may simply refer to events in the order in which they occurred or mention a time or place to show that the event occurred in the past.

My son come. He work in restaurant.

Viet Nam. We work too hard.

Later, learners start to attach a grammatical morpheme marking the verb for past, although it may not be the one that the target language uses for that meaning.

Me working long time. Now stop.

Past tense forms of irregular verbs may be used before the regular past is used reliably.

We went to school every day. We spoke Spanish.

After they begin marking past tense on regular verbs, learners may overgeneralize the regular Wending or the use of the wrong past tense form, for example, the present perfect rather than the simple past.

My sister catched a big fish.

She has lived here since fifteen years.

Kathleen Bardovi-Harlig (2000) and others have found that learners are more likely to mark past tense on some verbs than on others. For example, learners are more likely to mark past tense in sentences such as 'I broke the vase' and 'My sister fixed it with glue' than in sentences such as 'She seemed happy last week' or 'My father swam in that lake'. These differences appear to be due to the 'lexical aspect', that is, the kinds of meanings expressed by the different verbs. Learners seem to find it easier to mark past tense on verbs that refer to something whose end

point can easily be determined. These are referred to as 'accomplishments' and 'achievements' ('I ran three miles. My brother took an aspirin and went to bed'). For 'activities' that may continue for some period ('I swam all afternoon) or 'states' that may be perceived as constants ('He seemed happy to sit by the lake'), learners use simple past markers less frequently.

First language can have an influence here too. Laura Collins (2002) investigated the different English verb forms used by French speakers. The past tense that is most commonly used in spoken French and that is usually a translation of a simple past form in English is a form that resembles the present perfect in English. Thus, the equivalent of 'Yesterday he ate an apple' is *Hier il a mange unepomme*—literally, 'Yesterday he has eaten an apple'. Teachers often comment on French speakers' tendency to overuse the present perfect. In Collins' study, learners completed passages by filling in blanks with the appropriate form of a verb. In places where English speakers would have used the simple past, French speakers did sometimes use the perfect (either present perfect or past perfect) forms. Furthermore, they used them more frequently than a comparison group of Japanese speakers. However, the French speakers were more likely to use perfect forms for achievement and accomplishment verbs than for the states and activities. Collins observes, 'The [first language] influence does not appear to override the effect of lexical aspect; rather it occurs within it' (p. 85).

Movement through developmental sequences

We have seen in this section that, as in first language acquisition, there are systematic and predictable developmental sequences in second language acquisition. However, it is important to emphasize that developmental stages are not like closed rooms. Learners do not leave one behind when they enter another. In examining a language sample from an individual learner, one should not expect to find behaviours from only one stage. On the contrary, at a given point in time, learners may use sentences typical of several different stages. It is perhaps better to

think of a stage as being characterized by the emergence and increasing frequency of new forms rather than by the complete disappearance of earlier ones. Even when a more advanced stage comes to dominate in a learners speech, conditions of stress or complexity in a communicative interaction can cause the learner to 'slip back' to an earlier stage. Note that progress to a higher stage does not always mean that learners produce fewer errors. For example, a learner may produce correct questions at Stage 1 or Stage 3, but those correct forms are not based on underlying knowledge of subject-verb inversion. Correct questions at Stage 1 are chunks, hot sentences that have been constructed from the words that make them up. At Stage 2, learners have advanced, in the sense that they are forming original questions, but the word order of those questions is the same as that of declarative sentences. At Stage 3, questions are formed by placing a question form (most often a *wh-* word or a form of the verb 'do') at the beginning of a sentence with declarative word order. Another important observation about developmental sequences is the way they interact with first language influence. Learners do not appear to assume that they can simply transfer the structures of their first language into the second. However, as Henning Wode (1978) and Helmut Zobl (1980) observed, when they reach a developmental point at which they encounter a ' crucial similarity' between their first language and their interlanguage pattern, they may have difficulty moving beyond that stage or they may generalize their first language pattern and end up making errors that speakers of other languages are less likely to make.

2.3. First language influence

Researchers rejected the interpretation of contrastive analysis that made transfer or 'interference' the explanation for all of a learner's difficulties with the target language. This was due in part to the fact that contrastive analysis was closely associated with behaviourist views of language acquisition. In rejecting behaviourism, some researchers also discarded contrastive analysis as a source of

valuable information about learners' language. Researchers at the European Science Foundation carried out a study that created some valuable opportunities to examine the influence of the first language. Adult language learners, most of whom had little or no formal second language instruction, were followed as they learned particular European languages. For each target language, groups of learners from two different first language backgrounds were compared. Also, for each group of learners, their progress towards two target structures was studied. As Wolfgang Klein and Clive Perdue (1993) report, there were substantial similarities in the interlanguage patterns of the learners, in spite of the great variety in the first and second language combinations. The similarities were greatest in the earliest stages of second language acquisition.

Despite the similarities, there is no doubt in the minds of most researchers and teachers that learners draw on their knowledge of other languages as they try to discover the complexities of the new language they are learning. We have seen some ways in which the first language interacts with developmental sequences. When learners reach a certain stage and perceive a similarity to their first language, they may linger longer at that stage (for example, the extended use of preverbal 'no' by Spanish speakers) or add a substage (for example, the German speakers inversion of subject and lexical verbs in questions) to the sequence which, overall, is very similar across learners, regardless of their first language. They may learn a second language rule but restrict its application (for example, the French speakers rejection of subject—auxiliary inversion with noun subjects).

The first language may influence learners interlanguage in other ways as well. The phenomenon of 'avoidance' that Jacquelyn Schachter (1974) described appeared to be caused at least in part by learners' perception that a feature in the target language was so distant and different from their first language that they preferred not to try it.

Other researchers have also found evidence of learners' sensitivity to degrees of distance or difference and a reluctance to attempt a transfer over too great a distance. In one very revealing study, Hakan Ringbom (1986) found that the 'interference' errors made in English by both Finnish-Swedish and Swedish-Finnish bilinguals were most often traceable to Swedish, not Finnish. The fact that Swedish and English are closely related languages that actually do share many characteristics seems to have led learners to take a chance that a word or a sentence structure that worked in Swedish would have an English equivalent. Finnish, on the other hand, belongs to a completely different language family, and learners used Finnish as a source of possible transfer far less often, whether their own first language was Swedish or Finnish.

The risk-taking associated with this perception of similarity has its limits, however. As we noted earlier, learners seem to know that idiomatic or metaphorical uses of words are often unique to a particular language. Eric Kellerman (1986) found that Dutch learners of English were often reluctant to accept certain idiomatic expressions or unusual uses of words such as 'The wave broke on the shore' but accepted 'He broke the cup' even though both are straightforward translations of sentences with the Dutch verb *breken.*

Another way in which learners' first language can affect second language acquisition is in making it difficult for them to notice that something they are saying is not a feature of the language as it is used by more proficient speakers. Lydia White (1991) gave the example of adverb placement in French and English. Both languages allow adverbs in several positions in simple sentences. However, as the examples in Table 4.3 show, there are some differences. English, but not French, allows SAVO order; French, but not English, allows SVAO.

S = Subject V = Verb O = Object A = Adverb

ASVO
Often, Mary drinks tea.
Souvent, Marie boit du the.

SVOA
Mary drinks tea often.
Marie boit du the souvent.

SAVO
Mary often drinks tea.
*Marie souvent boit du the.

SVAO
*Mary drinks often tea.
Marie boit souvent du the.

Note: The asterisk (*) means that the sentence is not grammatical.

Table 4.3 Adverb placement in French and English

It seems fairly easy for French-speaking learners of English to add SAVO to their repertoire and for English-speaking learners of French to add SVAO, but both groups have difficulty getting rid of a form similar to a form in their first language that does not occur in the target language. English-speaking learners of French accept SAVO as grammatical, and French-speaking learners of English accept SVAO. As White points out, it is difficult to notice that something is not present in the input, especially when its translation equivalent sounds perfectly all right and communication is not disrupted.

There are patterns in the development of syntax and morphology that are similar among learners from different language backgrounds. Evidence for these developmental patterns first came from studies of learners whose primary learning environment was outside the classroom. For example, Jurgen Meisel, Harald Clahsen, and Manfred Pienemann (1981) identified developmental sequences in

the acquisition of German by speakers of several Romance languages who had little or no instruction. Subsequent research has shown that learners who receive instruction exhibit similar developmental sequences and error patterns. In the interlanguage of English- speakers whose only exposure to German was in university classes in Australia, Pienemann (1988) found patterns that were similar to those of the uninstructed learners. We will discuss other studies that have investigated the influence of instruction on developmental sequences.

Our understanding of the influence of the first language on the second has been refined in recent decades. Current views of second language development emphasize the interaction between the first language (or other previously learned languages), cognitive processes, and the samples of the target language that learners encounter in the input. As Terence Odlin's (1989, 2003) extensive reviews show, the complexity of this relationship has inspired scores of investigations. Many questions remain to be answered. So far this chapter has focused on the acquisition of morphology and syntax in the second language. We now turn to the learning of other important components of COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE: vocabulary, pragmatics, and pronunciation.

Vocabulary

In 1980, Paul Meara characterized vocabulary learning as a 'neglected aspect of language learning. Researchers in the 1970s and early 1980s were drawn to syntax and morphology because of the way error patterns and developmental sequences of these features might reveal something about universals in languages and language acquisition. How different things are now! Just as Meara was commenting on the state of neglect, an explosion of research on vocabulary learning was beginning, and the acquisition of vocabulary has become one of the most active areas in second language acquisition research.

For most people, the importance of vocabulary seems very clear. As it has often been remarked, we can communicate by using words that are not placed in the proper order, pronounced perfectly, or marked with the proper grammatical morphemes, but communication often breaks down if we do not use the correct word. Although circumlocution and gestures can sometimes compensate, the importance of vocabulary can hardly be overestimated.

The challenge of acquiring a large enough vocabulary for successful communication in a variety of settings has been the focus of much recent research. Every language has an astonishingly large number of words. English, which has built its vocabulary from a great variety of source languages, is variously estimated to have anywhere from 100,000 to one million words, depending in part on how words are counted. For example, some would treat teach, teacher, teaching, and taught' as separate words 'While others would count all of them as part of a single root word from which all the others are derived.

An educated adult speaker of English is believed to know at least 20,000 words. Fortunately, most everyday conversation requires a far smaller number, something more like 2,000 words. Similarly, although Chinese and Japanese have tens of thousands of characters, most are rare, and nontechnical material can usually be read with knowledge of about 2,000 characters. Even so, acquiring a basic vocabulary is a significant accomplishment for a second language learner.

Children learn thousands of words in their first language with little observable effort. The task of learning a large vocabulary is quite different for second language learners. For one thing, they are likely to be exposed to far smaller samples of the language to be learned. The contexts in which second language learners encounter new vocabulary may not be as helpful as those in which children learn the first one or two thousand words of their first language. If they are older children or adults, the words they are exposed to may also be more difficult, referring to meanings that are not easily guessed from context. It is estimated that, in order to guess the meaning of a word even in a helpful context,

one needs to know nearly all the other words in the text—a rare event for second language learners at most stages of acquisition. Although the two or three thousand most frequent words in English make up as much as 80-90 per cent of most non-technical texts, less frequent words are crucial to the meaning of many things we hear and read. For example, the meaning of a newspaper article about a court case may be lost without the knowledge of words such as testimony, 'alleged', or 'accomplice'.

The first step in knowing a word may simply be to recognize that it is a word. Paul Meara and his colleagues (2005b) developed tests that took advantage of this fact. Some of these tests take the form of simple word lists, and learners are instructed to simply check yes' or no' according to whether or not they know the word. Each list also includes some items that look like English words but are not. The number of real words that the learner identifies is adjusted for guessing by a factor that takes account of the number of non-words that are also chosen. Such a simple procedure is more effective than it might sound. A carefully constructed list can be used to estimate the vocabulary size of even advanced learners. For example, if shown the following list: 'frolip, laggy, scrule, and albeit', a proficient speaker of English would know that only one of these words is a real English word, albeit a rare and somewhat odd one. On the other hand, even proficient speakers might recognize none of the following items: 'gonion, micelle, lairage, throstle'. Even our computer's spellchecker rejected three out of four, but all are real English words.

Among the factors that make new vocabulary more easily learnable by second language learners is the frequency with which the word is seen, heard, and understood. Paul Nation (2001) reviews a number of studies suggesting that a learner needs to have many meaningful encounters with a new word before it becomes firmly established in memory. The estimates range as high as sixteen times in some studies. Even more encounters may be needed before a learner can retrieve the word in fluent speech or automatically understand the meaning 'of the

word when it occurs in a new context. The ability to understand the meaning of most words without focused attention is essential for fluent reading as well as for fluent speaking.

Frequency is not the only factor that determines how easily words are learned, however. Look at the words in List 1 and List 2. Which one would you expect beginning second language learners to recognize and understand?

List 1	List 2	List 3
Friend	Hamburger	Government
More	Coke	Responsibility
Town	T-shirt	Dictionary
Book	Walkman	Elementary
Hunt	Taxi	Remarkable
Sing	Pizza	Description
Box	Hotel	Expression
Smile	Dollar	International
Eye	Internet	Preparation
Night	Disco	Activity

All of the words in List 1 look easy because they are simple one-syllable words that refer to easily illustrated actions or objects. They are also quite common words in English, appearing among the 1,000 most frequent words. And yet, they are not likely to be known to students who have not had previous instruction in English or exposure to the language outside of school. Furthermore, there is nothing in the written form or the pronunciation of the words that gives a clue to their meaning. If students are to learn them, they must see or hear the words and connect them to meaning many times before they are well established.

On other hand, some students who have never studied English might already know words in List 2, because they are part of an international vocabulary. With increasing internationalization of communications, many languages have 'borrowed' and adapted words from other languages. Students throughout the world

may be surprised to learn how many words they already know in the language they are trying to learn.

The words in List 3 look difficult. They are rather long, not easily illustrated, and most are fairly infrequent in the language. And yet, many students would either 'know' them on sight or learn them after a single exposure. These words have a clear resemblance to their translation equivalent in other languages—not just romance languages with shared Latin origins. Words that look similar and have the same meaning in two languages are called COGNATES.

Thus, when students are learning a new language, frequency is not the only thing that makes words more accessible. The presence of cognates and borrowed words can also be exploited for vocabulary development.

On the other hand, students may have particular difficulty with words that look similar in the two languages but have different meanings. They may come from different origins or they may have evolved differently from the same origin. For example, the English verb 'demand' has a different meaning from its French cousin *demander*, which means 'request' or ask a 'question', even though they developed from the same Latin verb.

Teachers should not assume that students will always recognize borrowed words or cognate words in their second language. Some cognates are identical in form and meaning, while others may require some knowledge of how spelling patterns are related in the two languages (for example, 'water' and *Wasser* in English and German). Even with different spellings, words are likely to be easier to recognize in their written form than they are in the spoken language. Learners may need guidance in recognizing them, as illustrated in the following question, asked by an eight-year-old in a Quebec hockey arena: *He coach, comment on dit coach en anglais?* ('Hey, coach. How do you say coach in English?'). And after a moment's reflection, English speakers may realize that they know both speciality items in a Japanese restaurant that calls itself 'Sushi and Bisusteki.'

Some second language theorists have argued that second language learners, like children learning their first language, can learn a great deal of vocabulary with little intentional effort. Stephen Krashen (1985, 1989) has asserted that best source of vocabulary growth is reading for pleasure. There is no doubt that reading is an important potential source of vocabulary development for second language learners as it is for first language learners. However, there are some problems with the notion that vocabulary growth through reading requires little effort. Bhatia Laufer (1992) and others have shown that it is difficult to infer the meaning and learn new words from reading unless one already knows 95 per cent or more of the words in a text. In addition, as we have seen, learners usually need to encounter a word many times in order to learn it well enough to recognize it in new contexts or produce it in their own speaking and writing. As we saw in Chapter 1, Dee Gardner (2004) has shown how rare certain types of words are in narratives. Thus, students who read mainly fiction may have little chance of learning words that are essential for their academic pursuits. Research on vocabulary learning through reading without focused instruction confirms that some language, including vocabulary, can be learned without explicit instruction. On the other hand, Jan Hulstijn and Bhatia Laufer (2001) provide evidence that vocabulary development is more successful when learners are fully engaged in activities that require them to attend carefully to the new words and even to use them in productive tasks. Izabella Kojic-Sabo and Patsy Lightbown (1999) found that effort and the use of good learning strategies, such as keeping a notebook, looking words up in a dictionary, and reviewing what has been learned were associated with better vocabulary development. Even with instruction and good strategies, the task is daunting. What does it mean to know a word? Grasp the general meaning in a familiar context? Provide a definition or a translation equivalent? Identify its component parts or etymology? Use the word to complete a sentence or to create a new sentence? Use it metaphorically? Understand a joke that uses homonyms (words that sound alike but mean different things, such as 'cents', 'sense', 'scents')? Second language

learners whose goal is to use the language for academic purposes must learn to do all these things.

Morphology of the target language, they can still encounter difficulty in using language. They also need to acquire skills for interpreting requests, responding politely to compliments or apologies, recognizing humour, and managing conversations. They need to learn to recognize the many meanings that the same sentence can have in different situations. Think of the many ways one might interpret an apparently simple question such as 'Is that your dog?' It might precede an expression of admiration for an attractive pet. It might be an urgent request to get the dog out of the speakers flower bed. Similarly, the same basic meaning is altered when it is expressed in different ways. For example, we would probably assume that the relationship between speaker and listener is very different if we hear 'Give me the book' or 'I wonder if you'd mind letting me have that book when you've finished with it'.

The study of how second language learners develop the ability to express their intentions and meanings through different, speech acts (for example, requesting, refusing, apologizing, etc.) is referred to as interlanguage pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig 1999). For a long time, most of the research in this area focused on learners' use of pragmatic features. For example, studies were done to describe the ways in which learners expressed speech acts such as inviting and apologizing in relation to differences in their proficiency level or their first language background. Other studies have examined learners' ability to perceive and comprehend pragmatic features in the second language and to judge whether a particular request is appropriate or inappropriate in a specific context.

Since the early 1990s more research has directly investigated the acquisition of second language pragmatic ability. This includes longitudinal and cross-sectional studies describing the acquisition of several different speech acts. One that has been the focus of considerable attention is 'requesting'. Requests are an interesting pragmatic feature to examine because there are identifiable ways in

which requests are made in different languages as well as differences in how they are expressed across languages and cultures.

In a review of longitudinal and cross-sectional studies on the acquisition of requests in English, Gabriele Kasper and Kenneth Rose (2002) outline a series of five stages of development. Stage 1 consists of minimal language that is often incomplete and highly context-dependent. Stage 2 includes primarily memorized routines and frequent use of imperatives. Stage 3 is marked by less use of formulas, more productive speech and some mitigation of requests. Stage 4 involves more complex language and increased use of mitigation, especially supportive statements. Stage 5 is marked by more refinement of the force of requests. The five stages, their characteristics and examples are given below.

Stage 1: Pre-basic

Highly context-dependent, no syntax, no relational goals.

   -Me no blue.

   -Sir.

Stage 2: Formulaic

Reliance on unanalysed formulas and imperatives.

   Lets play the game.

   Let's eat breakfast. Don t look.

Stage 3: Unpacking

Formulas incorporated into productive language use, shift to conventional indirectness.

   Can you pass the pencil please?

   Can you do another one for me?

Stage 4: Pragmatic expansion

Addition of new forms to repertoire, increased use of mitigation, more complex syntax.

   Could I have another chocolate because my children—I have five children.

Can I see it so I can copy it?

Stage 5: Fine tuning

Fine tuning of requestive force to participants, goals, and contexts.

You could put some blue tack down there.

Is there any more white?

Learning how to make and reject suggestions has also been extensively investigated. Kathleen Bard Wi-Harlig and Beverly Hartford (1993) investigated rejections and, suggestions with native and non-native speakers of English in academic advising\sessions at an American university. They observed differences between the way in which native and non-native speakers communicated with their .professors as they discussed their course selections. These differences contributed to their greater or lesser success in negotiating their academic plans. For example, the non-native speakers tended to take on a passive role and did, not initiate suggestions compared with the native speakers who initiated a great deal. There was also a tendency on the part of the non-native speakers to reject suggestions made by the advisor in ways that the advisors might find rude inappropriate. For example, they would reject an advisor's suggestion take a particular course by saying ʻI think I am not interested in that course', instead of saying 'My schedule conflicts with that course', or 'I think this other course would better meet my needs', which was more typical of native-speaker rejection responses.

The non-native speakers were also much less adept than the native speakers at using mitigation—language that can be used to soften a rejection or gently make a suggestion. For example, native speakers were observed to say I think I would like to take this course', whereas the non-native speakers said 'I will take that course'. Over a period of four and a half months, the researchers observed progress in come aspects of the non-native speakers' pragmatic ability. For examples, they took a more active role in the advising interactions. They provided reasons for rejecting suggestions that the advisors were likely to perceive as more credible or

acceptable. Even so, they continued to experience difficulty in mitigating their suggestions and rejections.

For a long time, it was assumed that second language classrooms could not provide appropriate input for learning how to realize many speech acts. This was particularly the case with structure-based approaches to teaching and in particular, in teacher-fronted classrooms where the dominant interaction pattern was 'teacher initiation—learner response—teacher feedback'. In communicative content-based, and task-based approaches to second language instruction, there are more opportunities not only for a greater variety of input but also for learners to engage in different roles and participant organization structures (for example, pair and group work). This enables learners to produce and respond to a wider range of communicative functions. Furthermore, research on the teaching of pragmatics has demonstrated that pragmatic features can be successfully learned in classroom settings and explicit rather than implicit instruction is most effective (Kasper and Rose 2002). This is particularly good news for foreign language learners who do not have extensive exposure to conversational interaction outside the classroom. Thus, the question is no longer whether second language pragmatics should be taught but rather how it can be best integrated into classroom instruction.

Phonology

Grammar has been the focus for second language teachers and researchers for a long time. As we saw, vocabulary and pragmatics have also received more attention in recent years. However, we know less about pronunciation and how it is learned and taught. Pronunciation was a central component in language teaching during the audiolingual era. Several techniques for teaching pronunciation were developed at that time and most of them focused on getting learners to perceive and to produce distinctions between single sounds (i.e. SEGMENTALS) in minimal pair drills (for example, 'ship' and 'sheep'). When audiolingualism and behaviourism fell into disfavour and were replaced by other views of learning, the

teaching of pronunciation was minimized if not totally discarded. Evidence for the critical period hypothesis suggested that native-like pronunciation was an unrealistic goal for second language learners, particularly older learners   . It was argued, therefore, that instructional time would be better spent on teaching features that learners might learn more easily, most specifically grammar. When communicative language teaching was first introduced in the late 1970s, little attention was given to the teaching of pronunciation. When it was included, the emphasis was on rhythm, stress, and intonation (i.e. SUPRASEGMENTALS), areas considered more likely to affect communication (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin 1996).

Although research on the teaching and learning of pronunciation is not as extensive as that in other language domains, there is theoretical and empirical work to help us understand the processes involved in phonological development in a second language and the factors that contribute to it. Contrastive analysis has helped to explain some aspects of first language influence on second language learners' phonological development. We can all think of examples of these from our own experiences or those of our students. Japanese and Korean learners of English often have problems hearing and *l* producing and *r* because these sounds are not distinct in their language. Spanish speakers will often say 'I e-speak e-Spanish' because Spanish words do not have consonant clusters beginning with s at the beginning of a word. French speakers may place stress on the last syllable of a word because French usually stresses the last syllable. Few languages have the *th* sounds that are frequent in English. Learners may substitute similar sounds from their first language (for example, t or d, s or z). Sometimes, however, learners overcompensate for sounds that they know are difficult. Thus, learners may pronounce a *th* (as in *th*in) where a *t* belongs. Such errors are similar to the overgeneralization errors that we saw for grammatical morphemes. That is, if they replace earlier correct' pronunciation of t or d sounds, they may represent progress in learners' ability to notice and produce the *th* sound.

The relationship between perception and production of sounds is complex. Evelyn Altenberg (2005) developed a series of tasks to explore Spanish speakers' perceptions and production of English consonant clusters at the beginning of a word. In one task, they had to say whether certain invented words were possible new English words'. The learners were quite good at recognizing what English words are supposed to sound like. They accepted pseudowords like 'spus' and rejected those like 'zban', even though both words would be unacceptable as 'new Spanish words'. She found that they could usually write (from dictation) pseudowords with initial clusters such as sp and sm. However, in their own production, these same learners might still insert a vowel at the beginning of words such as 'spoon' and 'smile'.

It is widely believed that the degree of difference between the learner's native language and the target language can lead to greater difficulty. The evidence supporting the hypothesis comes partly from the observation that it takes learners longer to reach a high level of fluency, in a particular second or foreign language if that language is substantially different from the languages they already know. For example, a Chinese-speaker faces a greater challenge in learning English than does a speaker of German or Dutch. Language distance affects pronunciation as well as other language systems. Theo Bongaerts (1999) collected speech samples from many highly proficient speakers who had learned Dutch in their adulthood and who came from a wide variety of first language backgrounds. When native speakers of Dutch were asked to judge these speech samples, only those learners who spoke a language that was closely related to Dutch (for example, English or German) were judged to have native-like accents. None of the speakers whose first languages were more distant from Dutch (for example, Vietnamese) were judged to have native-like pronunciation.

There has been little research to document the developmental sequences of individual sounds in second language phonological acquisition. Furthermore, while there is evidence for similarity in the acquisition of some features of stress and

rhythm, it is also clear that the learner's first language plays an important role. Other factors such as the amount and type of exposure to the target language and the degree of use of the first language have been identified as influential contributors to pronunciation. Thorsten Piske, Ian MacKay, and James Flege (2001) have reported that longer periods of exposure to the second language can lead to improved pronunciation. They also found that adults who continue to make greater use of their first language may have stronger accents in the second language. As noted in Chapter 3, learners' ethnic affiliation and sense of their identity are also related to some of the choices they make about how they produce the sounds and rhythms of a second language.

Few studies have investigated the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction, but the results of recent studies suggest that it can make a difference, particularly if the instruction focuses on suprasegmental rather than segmental aspects of pronunciation (Hahn 2004). Tracey Derwing and her colleagues (1998, 2003) carried out a series of studies on how intelligible learners were judged to be. They found that learners who received pronunciation lessons emphasizing stress and rhythm were judged to be easier to understand than learners who received lessons focused on individual sounds. Even though the learners who received instruction on individual sounds were more accurate in their use of those sounds, this did not seem to increase listeners' perception of the intelligibility of their speech to others. Findings like these support the current emphasis on suprasegmentals in pronunciation classes.

One of the controversial issues in pronunciation research is whether intelligibility rather than native-like ability is the standard that learners should strive toward. Studies of relationships between English native speakers' perceptions of foreign accent, their perceptions of comprehensibility, and their actual ability to understand non-native utterances show clear relationships among all three. However, it is also evident, as Murray Munro and Tracey Derwing (1995) suggest, that the presence of a strong foreign accent does not necessarily result in

reduced intelligibility or comprehensibility. Of course, evidence like this does not change the fact that foreign accents sometimes cause listeners to respond negatively to second language speakers. Jennifer Jenkins (2000, 2004) and Barbara Seidlhofer (2004) are among the many who argue for the acceptance of language varieties other than those spoken in the languages country of origin. People increasingly interact with speakers who have learned a different variety of the same language. Even so, in some situations, accent still serves as a marker of group membership and is used as the basis for discrimination. Many second language learners, particularly those who have achieved a high level of knowledge and performance in other aspects of the target language, may be motivated to approximate a particular target language accent in their pronunciation. Others view this as irrelevant to their goals and objectives as users of the second language.

III. LEARNING AND TEACHING IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

In this research work we explore different ways in which researchers have observed and described what goes on in second language classrooms. Before we do this, let us take a moment to reflect on the differences between classroom settings for language learning and other settings where people learn a new language without instruction.

Most people would agree that learning a second language in a non-instructional setting is different from learning in the classroom. Many believe that learning on the street' is more effective. This belief may be based on the fact that most successful learners have had exposure to the language outside the classroom. What is special about this natural' language learning? Can we create the same environment in the classroom? Should we? Or are there essential contributions that only instruction and not natural exposure can provide?

3.1. Natural and Instructional settings

Natural acquisition contexts should be understood as those in which the learner is exposed to the language at work or in social interaction or, if the learner is a child, in a school situation where most of the other children are native speakers of the target language and where the instruction is directed toward native speakers rather than toward learners of the language. In such a classroom, much of a child's learning would take place in interaction with peers as well as through instruction from the teacher.

In structure-based instructional environments; the language is taught to a group of second or foreign language learners. The focus is on the language itself rather than on the messages carried by the language. The teacher's goal is to see to it that students learn the vocabulary and grammatical rules of the target language. Some students in structure-based classes may have opportunities to continue

learning the target language outside the classroom; for others, the classroom is the only contact with that language. In some cases, the learners' goal may be to pass an examination rather than to use the language for daily communicative interaction beyond the classroom.

Communicative, content-based, and task-based instructional environments also involve learners whose goal is learning the language itself, but the style of instruction places the emphasis on interaction, conversation, and language use, rather than on learning about the language. The topics that are discussed in communicative and task-based instructional environments are often of general interest to the learner, for example, how to reply to a classified advertisement from a newspaper. In content-based instruction, the focus of a lesson is usually on the subject matter, such as history or mathematics, which students are learning through the medium of the second language. In these classes, the focus may occasionally be on the language itself, but the emphasis is on using the language rather than talking about it. The language that teachers use for teaching is not selected solely for the purpose of teaching a specific feature of the language, but also to make sure learners have the language they need to interact in a variety of contexts. Students' success in these courses is often measured in terms of their ability to 'get things done' in the second language, rather than on their accuracy in using certain grammatical features.

We compared the profiles of first and second language learners. In this one, we compare natural and instructional contexts for second language learning. Think about the characteristics of the four contexts represented by each column. For each context, decide whether the characteristics on the left are present or absent. Mark a plus (+) in the table if the characteristic is typical of that content. Mark a minus (-) if it is something you usually do not: find in that context. Write '?' if you are not sure. Note that the 'Communicative instruction' column has been subdivided into teacher-student and student-student interaction. What happens when learners talk to each other? Is that different from what happens in teacher-student interaction?

As you look at the pattern of + and - signs you have placed in the chart, you will probably find it matches the following descriptions.

When people learn languages at work, in social interactions, or in the playground, their experiences are often quite different from those of learners in classrooms.

In natural acquisition settings

- Language is not presented step by step. In natural communicative interactions, the learner is exposed to a wide variety of vocabulary and structures.

- Learners' errors are rarely corrected. If their interlocutors can understand what they are saying, they do not remark on the correctness of the learners' speech. They would probably feel it was rude to do so.

Characteristics	Natural acquisition	Structure-based instruction	Communicative	
			Teacher-student	Student-student
Learning one thing at a time				
Frequent feedback on errors				
Ample time for learning				
High ratio of native speakers to learners				
Variety of language and discourse types				
Pressure to speak				
Access to modified input				

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Table 1 Contexts for language learning

- The learner is surrounded by the language for many hours each day sometimes the language is addressed to the learner; sometimes it is simply overheard, the learner usually encounters a number of different people who use the target language proficiently.
  - Learners observe or participate in many different types of language events: brief greetings, commercial transactions, exchanges of information, arguments, instructions at school or in the workplace. Older children and adults may also encounter the written language in the form of notices, newspapers, posters, etc.
  - Learners must often use their limited second language ability to respond to questions or get information. In these situations, the emphasis is on getting meaning across clearly, and more proficient speakers tend to be tolerant of errors that do not interfere with meaning.

The events and activities that are typical of structure-based instruction differ from those encountered in natural acquisition settings. In grammar translation approaches, there is considerable use of reading and writing, as learners translate texts from one language to another and grammar rules are taught explicitly. In audiolingual approaches there is little use of the first language, and learners are expected to learn mainly through repetition and habit formation, although they may be asked to figure out the grammar rules for the sentences they have memorized.

In structure-based instructional settings

- Linguistic items are presented and practised in isolation, one item at a time, in a sequence from what teachers or textbook writers believe is simple' to that which is complex.

- Errors are frequently corrected. Accuracy tends to be given priority over meaningful interaction.

- Learning is often limited to a few hours a week.

- The teacher is often the only native or proficient speaker the student comes in contact with, especially in situations of foreign language learning.

- Students experience a limited range of language discourse types. The most typical of these is the Initiation/Response/Evaluation (IRE) exchange where the teacher asks a question, a student answers, and the teacher evaluates the response. The written language they encounter is selected primarily to provide practice with specific grammatical features rather than for its content.

- Students often feel pressure to speak or write the second language and to do so correctly from the very beginning.

Grammatical forms are focused on only in order to clarify meaning. The assumption is that, in focusing on meaning, learners will acquire the language in a way that is similar to natural acquisition.

In communicative instructional settings

- Input is simplified and made comprehensible by the use of contextual cues, props, and gestures, rather than through structural grading. Students provide each other with simplified and sometimes erroneous input.

- There is a limited amount of error correction on the part of the teacher, and meaning is emphasized over form. Students tend not to overtly correct each other's errors when they are engaged in communicative practice. Because the focus is on meaning, however, requests for clarification may serve as implicit feedback. The need to negotiate for meaning may help students see the need to say something in a different way.

- Learners usually have only limited time for learning. In a typical teacher-fronted classroom with 25-30 students, individual students get very little opportunity to produce language in a sixty-minute class, and when they do, it's usually in the form of a short response to a teachers question. When students work in pairs or groups, they have opportunities to produce and respond to a greater amount and variety of language. Sometimes, however, subject-matter courses taught through the second language can add time for language learning. A good example of this is in immersion programmes where most or all the subject matter is taught to a group of students who are all second language learners.

- As in structure-based instruction, it is usually only the teacher who is a proficient speaker. Learners have considerable exposure to the interlanguage of other learners, particularly in student-student interaction. This naturally contains errors that would not be heard in an environment where the interlocutors are native speakers, but it provides many more opportunities for students to use the target language than is the case in most structure-based instruction.

- A variety of discourse types may be introduced through stories, peer- and group-work, the use of 'authentic' materials such as newspapers and television broadcasts. Text materials may include both those modified for second language learners and those intended for native speakers. In the latter case, teachers use instructional strategies to help learners get the meaning, even if they do not know all the words and structures. In student—student interaction, learners may practice a range of sociolinguistic and functional features of language through role-play.

- There is little pressure to perform at high levels of accuracy, and there is often a greater emphasis on comprehension than on production, especially *in* the early stages of learning.

- Modified input is a defining feature of this approach to instruction. The teacher makes every effort to speak to students in a level of language they can understand. If students speak the same first language, they may have little difficulty in understanding each other. If they come from different language backgrounds, they may modify their language as they seek to communicate successfully.

General descriptions of classroom instruction such as those above cannot capture the individual characteristics of particular classrooms. For this reason, researchers have developed a number of ways to study classroom learning and teaching. We will discuss two approaches to classroom research in this chapter. We will look first at observation schemes, in which researchers anticipate the occurrence of particular events and behaviours and make note of them within preplanned frameworks or checklists. Then we will look at classroom ethnography, an approach that requires the observer to describe what happens in the classroom, trying not to limit the observation to any predetermined categories or expectations.

Observation schemes

Many different observation schemes have been developed for use in second language classrooms. They differ in several respects, including the number of categories they contain, whether they focus on qualitative or quantitative descriptions and whether they are used throughout a lesson or on selected samples of classroom interaction. The schemes also differ in relation to whether they are used by observers in 'real time' while they are in the classroom, or used later outside the classroom to analyze audio or video recordings or transcripts of such recordings. One example of a scheme developed specifically for second language classrooms is the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme described by Nina Spada and Maria Frohlich (1995)16.

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[16] T. Spada and M. Frohlich. 1995. Communicative orientation of language teaching observation schemes. Sydney: National Centre for English teaching and research, Macquary University

COLT is divided into two parts. Part A describes teaching practices in terms of content, focus, and organization of activity types. When using Part A, the observer can record, for example, whether the pedagogical activities are teacher- or learner-centred, whether the focus is on language   form or meaning, and whether there are opportunities for students to choose the topics for discussion. Part B describes specific aspects of the language produced by teachers and students, for example, how much (or how little) language students produce, whether their language production is restricted in any way, the kinds of questions teachers ask, and whether and how   teachers respond to learners errors.

The COLT scheme and others like it have been used primarily in classroom research that is intended to look at how differences in teaching practices are related to differences in second language learning. Observation schemes have also been used in the training of new teachers and in the professional development of experienced ones.

Below is an activity in which you are asked to use a set of pre-determined categories similar to those used in the COLT scheme to characterize the   nature of interaction between teachers and students and between students   and students.

3.2. Teacher- student interaction

Amount and type of teacher talk

It is not surprising that in all sorts of classrooms, not only those devoted to the teaching and learning of languages, it is the teacher who does by far the most talking. However, teachers who obtain an objective record of their teaching by recording and reviewing their lessons are generally surprised by just how much talking they do. In an in-service programme in which teachers were asked to record and analyse one of their lessons, one of the most frequent comments made by teachers asked what surprised them most, was the amount of talking they did. (For an account of this programme, see Nunan 1990.) Of course, whether or not it is considered a good thing for teachers to spend 70 or 80 per cent of class time

talking will depend on the objectives of a lesson and where it fits into the overall scheme of the course or programme. Normative statements sometimes appear that teacher talk is 'bad', and while it can be argued that excessive teacher talk is to be avoided, determining what is or is not 'excessive' will always be a matter of judgement. It can also be argued that in many foreign language classrooms, teacher talk is important in providing learners with the only substantial live target language input they are likely to receive.

When determining the appropriateness or otherwise of the quantity of teacher talk, then, we need to take into account a variety of factors including:

1. The point in the lesson in which the talking occurs.

2. What prompts the teacher talk: whether it is planned or spontaneous, and, if spontaneous, whether the ensuing digression is helpful or not.

3. The value of the talk as potentially useful input for acquisition.

Another issue of concern is code switching between the first and target language by the teacher and the effect of this on pupil talk. In many foreign language classrooms, it has been found that teachers and learners make far greater use of their mother tongue than they do of the target language. Zilm (1989), in an investigation of target language use in her German classes, discovered code-switching was affected by the following factors:

1. The nature of activity
2. The teacher's perceptions of how the students learn
3. Teacher perceptions of the role and functions of the native and target language (for example, English was used exclusively for disciplining student)
4. Student perceptions of the role of the target and native language (students regarded German as the 'end' rather than the means to learning, and tended

only to value its use in controlled situations such as set tasks and manipulative drills)

5. The use of English by the teacher

The relationship between the teacher's use of the first or target language, and the pupils' use of the first or target language was an interesting finding. In a follow-up action research project, Zilm discovered that when she increased her use of German in class, her students' use of German, the target language, rose proportionally.

In the literature, there are literally dozens of investigations of the speech modifications made by teachers. This research follows on from that which has investigated the speech modifications made by primary caregivers to children and by native speakers to non-native speakers (so called motherese and foreigner talk). Investigators have studied a wide range of speech phenomena, including modifications to phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse. In language classrooms, interest in the speech modifications made by teachers is motivated by the hypothesis that these modifications make language more comprehensible, and therefore, potentially more valuable for acquisition. In his extensive review of the literature, Chaudron summarizes the research on teacher speech in language classrooms which shows that the following modifications occur:

1. Rates of speech appear to be slower.
2. Pauses, which may be evidence of the speaker planning more, are possibly more frequent and longer.
3. Pronunciation tends to be exaggerated and simplified.
4. Vocabulary use is more basic.
5. Degree of subordination is lower.
6. More declaratives and statements are used than questions.
7. Teachers may self-repeat more frequently.

(Chaudron 1988: 85)

While most studies of teacher speech modifications have taken place in classrooms where the modifications have not been deliberately made, nor manipulated experimentally, there are a number of experimental investigations into the effect of speech modifications on comprehension (and therefore, it is presumed, on acquisition). Some studies have looked at the effect of simplified input, in which the cognitive and linguistic load on the learner is reduced. Others have looked at the effect of elaboration. Elaborated input contains redundant information, the redundancy being achieved through repetition, paraphrase, slower speech and so on. These studies typically present one group of learners with an unmodified listening text and another group with a text which, although containing the same information, is modified in ways hypothesised to enhance comprehension. In their literature review, Parker and Chaudron (1987) conclude that the studies seem to indicate that, 'linguistic simplifications such as simpler syntax and simpler vocabulary do not have as significant an effect on L2 comprehension as elaborative modifications' (p. 6). However, as they point out, the studies tend to confound the different modificational categories. 'The fact that the criterion measure of comprehension is typically a close, multiple choice or true/false test also raises questions about the results of the studies. (In effect, the researchers are implicitly 'defining' comprehension as the ability to complete cloze, multiple choice and true/false questions.)

If future research confirms the value of elaboration over modification, it will strengthen the view that when talking to second language learners, teachers should try to use elaborated rather than simplified language. In other words, they should try to build in redundancy through the use of repetition, paraphrase and rhetorical markers rather than simplifying their grammar and vocabulary

Teacher questions

Teacher questions have been the focus of research attention in both content classrooms (that is, classrooms devoted to teaching science, mathematics, geo-

graphy, etc.) and language classrooms for many years (Gerot 1989). This is hardly surprising, given the importance of questions to pedagogy. (Questions are also relatively easy to observe, document and analyse which might also explain their attraction for some researchers.) Despite their importance, Good and Brophy, in commenting on the use of questions in content classrooms, conclude that:

Unfortunately, in too many classrooms, discussions are parrot-like sessions, with teachers asking a question, receiving a student response, asking a question of a new student and so forth. Such 'discussions' typically are boring and accomplish little other than the assessment of students' factual knowledge. Such assessment is important, but if that is all that is done in discussion, students may come to perceive that the teacher is interested only in finding out who knows the answers. When this occurs, discussion becomes a fragmented ritual rather than a meaningful, enjoyable process. Furthermore, students often do not perceive a clear logical sequence to factual questions. Such questions seem more like an oral test than a lesson intended to teach content or to engage students in a meaningful discussion. (Good and Brophy 1987: 11)

Classroom research has also shown that certain types of questioning behaviour have persisted over many years. Borg *et al.* (1970) point out that factual questions to determine whether or not students know basic information are far more frequent than higher-order questions which encourage students to reflect on their knowledge, attitudes and beliefs, or which require them to follow through and justify a particular line of reasoning.

The following running sequence of teacher questions is extracted from a teacher- student exchange in which the teacher is trying to get the students to talk about an excursion they went on the previous week. It is worth noting that virtually all of the questions are 'closed' requiring little more than yes/no or single-word responses from the students.

Hello, Monica how are you?

Last Wednesday, you went to [name deleted|, didn't you?

What did you do on Wednesday?

It was nice, was it?

Did you look at the animals?

What else?

Zdravko, did you go?

What animals did you see?

Was it good?

Can you draw it?

Is it small or big?

What did you do?

[I am grateful to Jill Burton who provided the transcript from which these quest ions were taken.]

In content classrooms, there has been considerable research on the length of time teachers wait after asking a question. This 'wait time' research is predicated on the belief that it is important for students to have sufficient time to think about questions after they have been asked before attempting to answer them. Rowe (1974, 1986) found that, on average, teachers waited less than a second before calling on a student to respond, and that only a further second was then allowed for the student to answer before the teachers intervened, either supplying the required response themselves, rephrasing the question, or calling on some other student to respond.

Even when given specific training, some teachers never managed to extend their wait time beyond one or two seconds. In those classrooms where teachers did manage to extend their wait time from three to five seconds after asking a question, there was more participation by more students. In particular, the following effects were observed:

1. There was an increase in the average length of student responses.
2. Unsolicited, but appropriate, student responses increased.

3. Failures to respond decreased.

4. There was an increase in speculative responses.

5. There was an increase in student-to-student comparisons of data.

6. Inferential statements increased.

7. Student-initiated questions increased.

8. Students generally made a greater variety of verbal contributions to the lesson.

The issue of wait time is obviously important in language classrooms, not only because of the greater processing time required to comprehend and interpret questions in a second or foreign language but also because of the findings by Rowe. If we believe that acquisition will be maximally facilitated when learners are pushed to the limits of their competence, then, on the evidence of Rowe, wait time should be increased.

The limited amount of research on wait time in language classrooms has yielded mixed results. Shrum and Tech (1985) investigated French and German high school classes and came to similar conclusions as Rowe, finding that wait time following questions was less than two seconds. Long and Crookes (1986) report a similar finding in an investigation of ESL teachers in Hawaii. Holley and King (1971) found that when teachers of German were trained to increase their wait time, the length and complexity of student responses increased.

The study by Long and Crookes found that increased wait time did not lead to greater mastery of content by ESL pupils, although this may have been due to the time scale of the study. If it had been conducted over a longer period of time, the researcher may have obtained a significant result. Unfortunately, Long and Crookes do not report whether increased wait time led to more participation or more complex language by students.

Another issue relevant to the management of learning concerns the distribution of questions. It is generally considered desirable to distribute questions among all students rather than restricting them to a select few. While some

students who do not actively participate in lessons do well, the overwhelming evidence presented in this book is that, all other things being equal, students will improve more rapidly if they are actively engaged in interaction than if they are passive. In teacher-fronted interactions, by distributing response opportunities widely, all learners are kept alert and given an opportunity to respond (Good and Brophy 1987: 495). (There are, of course, some students, who might appear to be passive in that they are not responding overtly, but who are, in fact, mentally engaged in their lessons - Bailey, personal communication.)

While most teachers probably imagine that they are even-handed in their treatment of students, they might find, if they obtain an objective record of their teaching, that they favour certain students over others with our questions. Research shows that there is a great deal of variation in the chances afforded to different pupils to speak in class. Jackson and Lahaderne (1967), for example, found that some students were up to twenty-five times more likely to be called upon to speak than others. Furthermore, it is generally the more able students who get called upon. If we accept that one learns to speak by speaking, this means that those most in need of the opportunity to speak are probably given the least amount of classroom talking time.

One way of monitoring this aspect of our leaching is to audiotape or videotape our teaching over several lessons, or get a friend or colleague to observe us, and note down the number of questions we direct to each student. (Techniques for doing this, through the use of seating chart observation records, are set out in Nunan 1989b.) Researchers have also found that there is a tendency for teachers-to restrict their questions to certain 'action zones' in the classroom (these are usually towards the front).

One final aspect of questioning behaviour worth looking at is the use of display and referential questions. Display questions are those to which we know the answer (for example, when we hold up a book and ask, 'Is this a book?') Referential questions, on the other hand, are those to which the asker does not

know the answer. In classrooms of all kinds, display questions are far more common than referential questions. Outside the classroom, however, they are virtually never used - to begin asking display questions in social situations outside the classroom could lead to highly undesirable consequences.

Several investigations have been carried out into the use of display and referential questions in language classrooms. Long and Sato (1983) looked at forms and functions of teachers' questions. They found significant differences between the types of question that learners encountered in class and out of class: for example, teachers asked more display questions and fewer referential questions. Brock (1986) discovered that teachers could be trained to increase the number of referential questions they ask, and that this prompted students to provide significantly longer and syntactically more complex responses. Nunan (1987a) also found that the use of referential questions by the teacher resulted in more complex language by students. Student interaction was also more like natural discourse (that is, the discourse typical of out-of-class encounters).

The following features, which are characteristic of genuine communication, appear in the data: content-based topic nominations by learners; student-student interactions; an increase in the length and complexity of student turns; the negotiation of meaning by students and teacher, with a concomitant increase in the number of clarification requests and comprehension checks. There is even an instance of a student disagreeing with the teacher.

Not all researchers agree that the distinction between display and referential questions is a useful one. Van Lier (1988), for example, argues that the distinction is irrelevant, as the function of teacher questions is to elicit learner language, and from this perspective whether or not teachers already know the answer to the question is unimportant.

Elicitation is another common feature of classroom teacher questions. Elicitation methods are designed to extract from students information which might otherwise have been provided by the teacher, and there were many examples in the

database for this book of teachers extracting (sometimes painfully) information from students which could have been provided by the teacher in a few seconds.

Feedback on learner performance

Instructing students and providing feedback on performance are probably the two most commonly conceived classroom functions of teachers. In this section we look at some of the managerial and pedagogical aspects of feedback to learners.

Of the various ways in which feedback can classified, one of the most frequent and simplest distinctions is between positive and negative feedback. For many years, behaviourist-inspired research has found that positive feedback is much more effective than motive feedback in changing pupil behaviour. Positive feedback has two principal functions: to let students know that they have performed correctly, and to increase motivation through praise. In his functional analysis of feedback, Brophy (1981) provides guidelines for effective praise.

Classroom management in action

In the preceding sections we have looked at the role of teacher talk and teacher-student interaction in the management of learning. Research in this area shows that teachers need to pay attention to the amount and type of talking they do, and to evaluate its effectiveness in the light of their pedagogical objectives. Questions are also extremely important, and here we need to monitor the types of question we ask, particularly in terms of their potential to stimulate extended student responses. Another important consideration is wait time, that is, the thinking space we give to students between asking a question and demanding a response. Feedback and error correction are other important aspects of teacher talk, and here we need to monitor, not only how and when such feedback is provided, but also whether the feedback is positive or negative, and who receives the feedback. In the next section we see aspects of teacher talk in action. In this section we see how the ideas and insights set out in the preceding section have been realised at the level of classroom action.

Pre-reading task

The first classroom extract has been presented in two sequences. While both sequences involve the same teacher, students and materials, the interactions which emerge are very different. As you read these accounts, consider what 1 he differences are between the two interactional sequences focusing in particular on the teacher questions.

Classroom extract 10.1: Teacher questions

Sequence I

The teacher is working with a small group of students. She stands at the front

of the classroom, while the students sit at desks. Most of the students are middle-aged and are from Southeast Asia. They are working with six pictures which show the following road accident. A milk van, swerving to avoid a dog which has run across the road, knocks a boy off his bicycle. A passerby runs to a public telephone and calls an ambulance. Each student has a set of pictures which has been shuffled up so they are out of sequence.

T: Can you put the pictures . . . number one, number two . . . ?

[She demonstrates that she wants the students to put the pictures in the sequence in which they think the incidents occur. The students do this quickly.]

T: Finished? Good, good, that was quick. Let me have a look.

[One student looks at the sequence which has been arranged by the person on his left.]

S: No, this one, you know, hospital, this one first, telephone, hospital, car.

T: This the same, same this? [sic] Look at picture number one.

S: Number one.

T: Yes, can you see, Hing? Where are they? Where is this?

Ss: Where are, where are, um, bicycle, bicycle.

T: The man's on a bicycle, mmm.

S: And a man behind, behind a car. Bicycle behind a car. Behind a car.

T: What's the name of this? What's the name?

Not in Chinese.

Ss: Van. Van,

T: Van. What's in the back of the van?

Ss: Milk, milk.

T: Milk.

Ss: Milk. Milk.

T: A milk van.

S: Milk van.

T: What's this man? . . . Driver.

S: Driver.

T: The driver.

S: The driver.

T: The milkman.

S: Millman.

T: Milkman.

Ss: Milkman.

Sequence 2

The students and teacher are sitting in a circle. Having completed the activity, the teacher turns to the students sitting next to her.

T: Da Sheng, have you been in an accident?

S: [Pauses] No.

T: No? Good! Lucky!

S: Lucky.

[The other students laugh. Several other students are questioned and then a middle-aged Chinese woman speaks.]

S: My mother is by bicycle ... By bicycle, yes. Many, many water.

T: She had an accident?

S: In China, my mother is a teacher, my father is a teacher. Oh, she go finish by bicycle, er, go to. . .

S: House?

S: No house, go to . . . [pauses]

S: School?

S: No school. My mother. . .

T: Mmm.

S: Go to her grandmother.

T: Oh, your grandmother.

S: Grandmother. … On, yes, by bicycle. By bicycle, oh, is um, accident. [She gestures with her head.]

T: In water?

S: In water, yeah.

T: In a river?

S: River, yeah, river. … Oh, yes, um dead.

Ss: Dead! Dear! Oh!

T: Dead? Your mother?

[There is general consternation as the students repeat the story to each other.]

The basic difference between the two sequences is that the first is driven by a sequence of display questions whereas the second is initiated by questions from the teacher to which she does not know the answer. This, as can be seen, has a marked effect on the language produced by the students. In general, the length and complexity of the responses increases. In interactional and discourse terms there are also notable differences: students initiate interactions, nominate topics, disagee with the teacher, and generally use a greater range of language functions. Although such interactions driven by referential questions are extremely rare in the data, when they do occur, they generally stimulate much richer learner language.

The next extract is taken from a class of low proficiency students, many of whom are from Asian first language backgrounds. It illustrates what happens when the teacher digresses in the course of his lesson. Such extemporisations are quite common in the data, although their general utility is questionable.

Pre-reading task

As you read the extract, think about what causes the teacher to digress. Consider also the net effect of the digression.

Classroom extract 10.2: Extemporisation

The students, all Asian, and all low proficiency, are sitting in groups on the floor. Each has a set of pictures showing a man getting out of bed, having a shave, having breakfast, and performing a number of other tasks which typically occur between getting up in the morning and going to work. The teacher is describing each action in turn and the students have to find the picture associated with that particular action.

T: Find the picture of Fred getting out of bed.

[The students rummage through their pictures. Several, who have obviously not understood what the teacher has said, wait until the better students have found the correct picture and then follow suit.]

T: Put the picture down on your right.

Ss: Light. Light.

[The teacher calls a halt to the activity. He claps his hands and stands on one leg, pointing down to it.]

T: What's that? Left or right?

Ss: Left. left.

T: What's that?

Ss: Right.,

Ss: Light.

T: Not light, right.

Ss: Right, right

T: What's that?

Ss: Left.

T: What's that?

Ss: Right.

T: [Pointing to the light just above his head.] What's that?

Ss: Light.

T: What's that?

Ss: Light.

T: All right, that's light. [He points to his right hand.] What's that?

Ss: Left, left, right.

S: Less.

T: Right, right. [He points above his head.] That's light.

Ss: Light.

T: That's right.

Ss: Right.

T: [Shakes his left hand.] That?

Ss: Left.

T: [Hopson his right leg.] That?

Ss: Right.

T: Okay. [The teacher sits on the floor next to the students.] So when I say to put it on the left, you...

Ss: Left.

T: . . . you [He picks up a card and demonstrates.]. . . put it down there. And on the right - put it down there.

Post-reading task

What advice would you give this teacher about what to do when an error occurs in the course of a lesson?

One of the problems of error correction is that it generally happens spontaneously. In this extract, we see the teacher having to make an on-line decision about whether or not to correct the pronunciation error. As a participant observer in this lesson, it seemed doubtful to me whether such a digression was of much use to the students, several of whom were clearly mystified by the break in the routine of the lesson. It is also worth noting that the teacher chose not to further digress by correcting the student who mispronounced 'left' as 'less'.

It is something of a truism to say that classrooms are busy, complex places, and it is therefore not surprising that extemporised grammatical explanations and error corrections are not always as clear, consistent or appropriate as we would like them to be. These problem points in teaching can be reduced, if not minimised, by thinking through and deciding in advance which errors you intend to correct, when you intend to correct them (you may, for example, decide not to correct grammatical errors during communicative, meaning-focused tasks), and how you will correct them.

In analysing the lesson transcripts which formed the database for this book, I found that digressions in the form of anecdotes by the teacher were also quite common. In the following teacher-fronted exchange, the teacher digresses to tell an anecdote about something that happened at home. The point and purpose of the anecdote are not entirely clear to the students within the overall structure of the lesson, even though they most commonly occur during the opening phase of a lesson, or during a changeover point from one activity to another.

Classroom extract 10.3: Digressions

The teacher has spent several minutes at the beginning of the lesson talking about what the students have done over the weekend. She then asks them about their trip to an animal and conservation reserve during the preceding week where they saw native Australian animals.

T: We have a possum at home . . .

S: Emu.

T: . . . at our house. . . roof, it goes in the roof.

S: Smells.

T: Yes, it smells. It makes a lot of noise. My husband got a trap-you know a trap? You want to catch ... [She demonstrates the process of catching an animal with a trap.]

Ss: Ah! Yes, yes, yes. Oh!

T: He got a trap and he caught the possum . . . [She demonstrates again.]. . . in the trap and it was at night time-eleven o'clock at night and he was very worried. Oh, poor possum, poor possum, possum will be . . . Oh, oh, oh, I must go now up to the hills. Let it free. So he gets dressed to go up to the hills and pulls on his boots and his gloves because the possum may bite. He goes to the cage to pick it up. The door is open . . . and the possum goes away.

S: Yes.

T: So, that was the possum. Ok, erm, so last Wednesday, you went to [name deleted] to the park and saw a lot of animals. What did you do with [teacher's name deleted] on Thursday and Friday?

Post-reading task

What is the net effect of this digression? Do you think that digressions such as this fulfill a useful function? If so, what?

Other features of the data were the speech modifications made by teachers. These are exemplified in extract 10.4 where the teacher modifies her speech,

presumably to facilitate comprehension. As with other features of their language, the teachers were unaware of these modifications, and were greatly surprised when presented with the transcripts.

Pre-reading task

Make a note of the speech modifications as you encounter them. (Note. In particular, the ungrammatical utterances.)

Classroom extract 10A: Teacher speech modifications

The teacher is talking to her students about road accidents and safety.

T:　In Australia, er, bicycle, er, we wear a helmet.

S:　Helmet.

Ss:　Yes, yes.

T:　Special helmet. [She gestures to show them what she means.]

Ss:　Ohh.

S:　Malaysia, same, same.

T:　Same in Malaysia?

Ss:　Yes, yes.

S:　Moto, moto.

T:　In China, a little or a lot?

S:　Motor. Some motor bicycle.

T:　Motor bike.

S:　Yes, yes. Bicycle, no. China, bicycle no. Motor, yes.

T:　 Ah huh!

S:　Cap, cap.

S:　Cap.

S:　Hat on, hat, hat.

T: Hat. [It is not clear here whether she is confirming the utterance of the preceding speaker or correcting the student who said 'cap'.]

Ss: Hat. Hat.

T: Ah, in Australia, motor bike, yes. Yes, yes, yes. Bicycle, yes, good. [Oh!] Children, special helmet [Helmet], Helmet, mmm. Special helmet.

Post-reading task

1. What is the overall effect of the speech modifications?

2. What advice would you give to this teacher about her teacher talk?

The final extract illustrates another commonly employed technique: the use of elicitation as a device for extracting information from the students which might otherwise have been provided by the teacher. While this can be an effective device for eliciting learner contributions, and getting students involved, it can be overdone.

Classroom extract 10.5 Elicitation

The teacher and students are discussing a forthcoming classroom test, about which the students are seeking some additional clarification.

T: The questions will be on different subjects, so, er, well, one will be about, er, well, some of the questions will be about politics and some of them will be about, er. . . what?

S: History.

T: History. Yes, politics and history and, um, and . . .?

S: Grammar.

T: Grammar's good, yes . . . but the grammar questions were too easy.

Ss: No. Yes, ha, like before. You can use . . . [Inaudible]

T: Why? ... The hardest grammar question I could think up-the hardest one, I wasn't even sure about the answer, and you got it.

S: Yes.

T: Really! I'm going to have to go to a professor and ask him to make questions for this class. Grammar questions that Azzam can't answer. [The students all laugh at this.]

T: Anyway, that's, um, Thursday . . . yeah, Thursday. Ah, but today, er, we're going to do something different. . .

S: . . . yes. . .

T: . . . today, er, we're going to do something where we, er, listen to a conversationer, in fact, we're not going to listen to one conversation. How many conversations're we going to listen to?

S: Three?

T: How do you know?

S: Because, er. you will need, er, three tapes and three points.

T: Three?

S: Points.

T: What?

S: Power points, [power points = electrical sockets]

T: Power points. If I need three power points and three tape recorders, you correctly assume that I'm going to give you three conversations, and that's true. And all the conversations will be different, but they will all be on the same . . . ?

Ss: Subject. Subject.

T: The same?

Ss: Subject. Subject.

T: Right, they'll all be on the same subject. Different conversations, but the same subject. And so, I'm going to later in the lesson divide the class into three . . . ?

T: Right! And each group, each group.

T: Ah huh!

Post-reading task

Do you feel the elicitation is overdone or not?

The extracts presented in this section illustrate some of the issues and outcomes revealed by research into teacher-learner interaction in both content classrooms and language classrooms. Many of the outcomes of content classroom research, such as findings on wait time, have particular pertinence for language classrooms, where language is both message and medium. These and other extracts presented in the book underline the importance of teachers being aware of the research, and of contesting the outcomes; of such research in their own classrooms.

10.6 Investigating teacher talk

Task 10.1

Record your teaching over several lessons. (Alternatively, if you are not teaching, and cannot get access to a class, see whether you can obtain a recorded sample from someone else's classroom.) Select one lesson for analysis, and, if it is your own classroom, estimate the amount of time you talked as a percentage of the lesson as a whole. If you are analysing someone else's lesson, ask them to estimate how much of the lesson was spent in teacher talk. Now measure the amount of teacher talk there is and express this as a percentage of the total lesson.

How accurate was your (or your colleague's) estimate? Were you surprised by the amount of teacher talk?

Task 10.2

1. Using the recorded lesson from task 10.1, analyse the teacher talk.
2. At what stage in the lesson does the talk occur?
3. What prompts the teacher talk?
4. Is it planned, or spontaneous? (If spontaneous, is the digression helpful or not in terms of the lesson as a whole?)
5. Does the talk seem to be comprehensible to the students?

Task 10.3

1. Using the recorded lesson from task 10.1, or another lesson, investigate the issue of wait time. How long does the teacher wait after asking questions?

2. What percentage of questions does the teacher answer her/himself?

3. Make a list of the strategies adopted by the teacher when students fail to respond, or fail to provide the required response.

Task 10.4

1. Audiotape or videotape a lesson (alternatively, get a friend or colleague to sit in on a lesson and make a record of the distribution of questions in the lesson).

2. Does the record show that you favour certain students over others?

3. Are these the better students?

4. Do you favour male students over female students or vice versa?

5. Do you tend to direct your questions to one part of the room rather than another?

6. Do you think you should modify your practice 'is a result of your investigation?

Task 10.5

1. Record a lesson in which you provide no negative or positive feedback to the learners. What is the reaction of the learners?

2. Review the audio- or videotaped lesson. Did you, in fact, inadvertently provide feedback?

3. How difficult was it not to provide feedback?

4. Survey a group of learners and find out what they think about the issue of teacher feedback.

Conclusion

Teacher action and teacher-learner interaction are important aspects of classroom life, and there are many facets to structuring and managing learning. We have focused in particular on teacher language, suggesting that this is central to effective classroom management and organization. In the body of the chapter, we surveyed relevant research into the amount and type of teacher talk, teacher questions, feedback, instructions and explanations. We also presented a number of classroom interactions which serve to contextualize and exemplify research outcomes. As with other aspects of teaching, it is extremely valuable for us as teachers to monitor and experiment with different aspects of classroom management, and this can be achieved through small-scale research projects of the type set out in the final section of the chapter.

3.3. Classroom comparisons: Student—student interactions

This section presents some student-student interactions. The transcripts are based on the interactions between second language learners engaged in different communicative tasks.

As in the previous section, there is a chart with each transcript where you can indicate whether certain things are happening in the interaction.

Communication task A: Picture description

The following transcript is of two girls aged 11—12 years, both ESL learners in their first year of learning English in Australia. The first learner (SI) is from Hong Kong; the second (S2) is from Somalia. They are engaged in a task where SI is describing a picture for S2 to draw. They are sitting at a table, separated by a small barrier, so that they can see each other's faces and hands (when they gesture), but not each other's work. The picture is a black outline containing stick figures—a boy flying a kite and a girl holding his hand. The stick figures are standing on some grass near a tree. Square brackets indicate non-target pronunciation. (This

transcript comes from unpublished data collected by Alison Mackey, Rhonda Oliver and Jennifer Leeman.)

	Student 1	Student 2
Errors		
Feedback on errors		
Genuine questions		
Display questions		
Negotiation of meaning		
Metalinguistic comments		

Photocopiable Oxford University

S1 And o-on the right, there is a [tree]. It's a- a, the ki-, the kite is up. (Points up in the air) This is the kite. (Points up again) This is the kite. (Points yet again) And the [tree] is up there.

S2 Three bird?

S1 Huh

S2 Is a three bird?

S1 Huh?

S2 Up, up-up the kite?

S1 Yeah, the kite is u-, the kite is up and the [tree] is down. (Points directions) t

S2 The [bird] down?

S1 The kite-, the [tree] is down.

S2 What's the [tee]?

S1 Huh?

S2 Whats the [tree] ? (Imitates Learner 1 s production)

S1 Feel?

S2 Fell? Fell down? (Points down)

S1 No, it's not the fell down. No, it's just at the bottom.

S2 The bird?

S1 No, the tree.

S2 The tree? (Emphatic stress)

S1 Yes.

S2 It is left and right?

S1 It's right. (Points)

S2 It's long? It's [little]?

S1 It's—what?

S2 It's long and [little]?

S1 Um, a little-. It-, um, a middle size.

S2 Middle size tree?

S1 Yes.

S2 It's little. (Says as drawing the tree)

Communication task B: Jigsaw

The following transcript is of two students in a grade 7 French immersion classroom. They are engaged in a jigsaw activity based on a series of eight pictures telling the story of a young girl being awakened by her alarm clock early in the morning. One student has pictures 1, 3, 5 and 7, and the other student has pictures 2,4,6, and 8. They take turns telling the story portrayed by the pictures and then they display all the pictures in sequence and write the story they have just told. Telling the story requires the use of a number of reflexive verbs in French. In the third person, the form se' is placed between the subject and the finite verb. Thus, *elle se lève* ('she gets up') and *elle se souvient* ('she remembers') are correct. Incorrect uses of these reflexive verbs are in italics. In this transcript the learners are called Dara (D) and Nina (N). (The data are from Swain and Lapkin 2002.)[17]

	Dara	Nina

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[17] Swain M. and S. Lapkin. 2002. Interaction and Second language learning: Two adolescent French Immersion students working together. Modern Language Journal. 82/3:338-58

Errors		
Feedback on errors		
Genuine questions		
Display questions		
Negotiation of meaning		
Metalinguistic comments		

D   Elle. [She]

D   Elle se souvient, non, *Elle souvient* quelle a un ... une pratique de chorale, alors elle se lève. [She remembers, no. She remembers that she has a choir practice so she gets up]

D   Tout à coup [Suddenly]

N   Elle ssse [She ssse]

D   *Elle souvient* [She remembers]

N   se souvient ou *souvient* ? [Remembers or remembers?]

D   *Elle souvient* ... ahh, elle se souvient ... *Elle souvient* ... Elle se souvient, no. [She remembers ... ahh, she remembers ... She remembers ... She remembers, no]

N   pas ... [not]

D   *Elle souvient* qu' elle doit aller au band ... ? [She remembers that she has to go to band]

N   Chorale. [Choir]

D   Chorale. [Choir]

N   Tout a coup *elle souvient* qu'elle ... doft aller a la chorale [All of a sudden she remembers that she has to go to choir]

D   [very softly] elle se souvien ... non. [She remembers... no]

D   Alors, elle [So, she]

N non, wait, tout a coup elle ... se souvient? [no, wait ... all of a sudden she ... remembers?]

D Je pense pas que c'est se souvient. [I don't think it's remember]

N oh, souvient souvient. [oh remember .... remember]

D *Elle souvient* qu'elle a le chorale. [She remembers that she has choir]

N Quelle doit se preparer, [that she has to get ready]

D Oui. [Yes]

N pour le chorale ... non, tout a coup *elle souvient* qu'il ya une pratique de chorale, [for choir ... no, all of a sudden she remembers that there's a choir practice]

Characteristics of input and interaction

Compare the two charts you have completed. As before, what kinds of second language input and opportunities for interaction are available to learners in each of the environments that these transcripts exemplify? How are they different from each other and the teacher-student interaction you looked at previously?

Communication task A

1. Errors: There are many errors in the speech of both learners. This includes grammatical and pronunciation errors. These errors are present in several breakdowns in the learners' conversation.

2. Feedback on errors: There is no error correction in terms of form as the learners struggle to understand each other's meaning. The difficulty they are having in communication may serve as a kind of implicit feedback. That is, the fact that the interlocutor does not understand may signal that there is something wrong with what they have said.

3. Genuine questions: Yes, there are many genuine questions. Naturally, Student 2 asks most of these questions because he needs to get the informa-

tion from Student 1 in order to draw the picture. Student 1 also asks some genuine questions and these are almost always to ask for clarification.

4. Display questions: No, there are no display questions because they engaged in a real communication gap exchange. Student 2 cannot see the picture that Student 1 possesses. Therefore all the questions asked are 'real' questions.

5. Negotiation of meaning: Yes, indeed! Both learners are trying hard to understand each other even though they often fail to do so. This involves many comprehension questions and clarification requests, as well as repetitions of each other's utterances, often with emphasis, trying to understand what the other learner has just said.

6. Metalinguistic comments: None.

Communication task B

1. Errors: Both learners make several grammatical errors, most notably the repeated failure to produce the reflexive form of the verb *se souvenir*.

2. Feedback on errors: There is no actual error correction provided. Neither learner is really sure what the correct form is. Instead, there is metalinguistic reflection and discussion as they try to figure out whether they are using the correct form of the verb se souvenir.

3. Genuine questions: The questions that are asked are genuine. The content is language form, but the students are genuinely sharing information about how to complete the task.

4. Display questions: There are no display questions. The students are actively collaborating to reconstruct the story and are asking 'real' questions of each other.

5. Negotiation of meaning: At this point in the interaction, the students have agreed on the content of the story Thus, there is more NEGOTIATION OF FORM, that is, more discussion of whether they are using the correct forms to say what they've agreed they want to say

6. Metalinguistic comments: Although they are not using words such as 'verb' or 'pronoun', the students are talking about language as they focus on trying to find the right form.

7. These two transcripts of student-student interaction are very different from each other. In the first communication task, the children are focused exclusively on meaning and on trying to understand each other in order to complete the information gap activity. They are constantly using comprehension and clarification requests as they negotiate meaning in this task. In the second student-student transcript, however, the learners are focused on both form and meaning. While reconstructing the story, they make several explicit statements about whether they are using the correct form of the reflexive verb *se souvenir* and continually question the grammatical accuracy of their use of this form as they continue to discuss the content of the story.

8. In the activities in the preceding pages, we have described and compared teacher-student and student-student interaction in terms of six observation categories. Some observation schemes use many more categories, covering a broad range of instructional practices and procedures. Others focus on one specific feature of classroom instruction and interaction. In the following sections, we review eight studies in which one particular feature of instruction has been examined. Four studies examine corrective feedback and four investigate teachers' use of questions.

Corrective feedback in the classroom

Study 1: Recasts in content-based classrooms

Roy Lyster and Leila Ranta[18] (1997) developed an observational scheme which describes different types of feedback teachers give on errors and also examines student UPTAKE—how they immediately respond to the feedback.

This scheme was developed in French immersion classrooms where second language students learn the target language via subject-matter instruction (i.e. content-based instruction). It may also be used to describe other types of second language instruction as well.

They developed their scheme by observing the different types of corrective feedback provided during interaction in four French immersion classrooms with 9-11 years old students. They began their observations by using a combination of some categories from Part B of the COLT scheme and other categories from models that had examined feedback in both first and second language learning. They adjusted some of the categories to fit their data, and they also developed additional categories. This resulted in the identification of six feedback types, defined below. The definitions are taken from Lyster and Ranta (1997). The examples come from 10-11 year-old students in an ESL class.

Explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect (for example, 'Oh, you mean ...', 'You should say...').

S   The dog run fastly.
T   'Fastly' doesn't exist. 'Fast' does not take -ly. That's why I picked 'quickly'.

Recasts involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. Recasts are generally implicit in that they are not introduced by 'You mean', 'Use this word', or 'You should say.'

S1   Why you don't like Marc?

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[18] R. Lyster and L. Ranta. 1997. Correction feedback and learner uptake. Studies in Second language acquisition. 19/1:37-61

T   Why don't you like Marc?

S2   I don't know, I don't like him.

Note that in this example the teacher does not seem to expect uptake from SI. It seems she is merely reformulating the question S1 has asked S2.

Clarification requests indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the .teacher or that the utterance is incorrect in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. A clarification request includes phrases such as 'Pardon me ...' It may also include a repetition of the error as in 'What do you mean by...?'

T   How often do you wash the dishes?

S   Fourteen.

T   Excuse me. (Clarification request)

S   Fourteen.

T   Fourteen what? (Clarification request)

S   Fourteen for a week.

T   Fourteen times a week? (Recast)

S   Yes. Lunch and dinner.

Metalinguistic feedback contains comments, information, or questions related to the correctness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere (for example, 'Can you find your error?'). Also, metalinguistic information generally provides either some grammatical terminology that refers to the nature of the error (for example, 'It's masculine') or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Metalinguistic questions also point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student (for example, ʿIs it feminine?').

S   We look at the people yesterday.

T   What's the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past?

S   e-d

Elicitation refers to at least three techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the students. First, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance (for example, 'It's a ...'). Second, teachers use questions to elicit correct forms (for example, ... 'How do we say *x* in English?'). Third, teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance.

S   My father cleans the plate.

T   Excuse me, he cleans the???

S   Plates?

Repetition refers to the teacher's repetition of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.

In this example, the repetition is followed by a recast:

S   He's in the bathroom.

T   Bathroom? Bedroom. He's in the bedroom.

In the next example, the repetition is followed by metalinguistic comment and explicit correction:

S   We is …

T   We is? But it's two people, right? You see your mistake? You see the error? When it's plural it's 'we are'.

Lyster and Ranta found that all teachers in the content-based French immersion classes they observed used recasts more than any other type of feedback. Indeed, recasts accounted for more than half of the total feedback provided in the four classes. Repetition of error was the least frequent feedback type provided. The other types of corrective feedback fell in between.

They also found that student uptake was least likely to occur after recasts and more likely to occur after clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and repetitions. Furthermore, elicitations and metalinguistic feedback not only resulted in more

uptake, they were also more likely to lead to a corrected form of the original utterance.

Lyster (1998) has argued that students in content-based second language classrooms (where the emphasis is on meaning not form) are less likely to notice recasts than other forms of error correction. In this type of instruction, students may assume that the teacher is responding to the content rather than the form of their speech. Indeed, the double challenge of making the subject-matter comprehensible and enhancing knowledge of the second language itself within subject-matter instruction has led Merrill Swain (1988) and others to conclude that not all content teaching is necessarily good language teaching (p. 68). Since Lyster and Ranta reported their findings, several other observation studies of the type of corrective feedback provided in second or foreign language classrooms have been carried out. Some of them report similar results-—that recasts are the most frequently occurring type of feedback provided by teachers and that they appear to go unnoticed by learners. However, others report that learners do notice recasts in the classroom. Below, two studies are described in which learners were observed to notice and to respond to recasts provided by their teachers.

Study 2: Recasts and private speech

In a study with adult foreign language learners of Japanese, Amy Ohta (2000) examined the oral language that learners addressed to themselves during classroom activities. She was able to obtain this PRIVATE SPEECH by attaching microphones ta individual students during classroom interaction. The classroom interaction consisted of a focus on grammar and metalinguistic instruction. In this context, Ohta discovered that learners noticed recasts when they were provided by the instructor. Furthermore, learners were more likely to react to a recast with private speech when it was directed to another learner or to the whole class rather than when the recast was directed to their own errors. On the basis of these findings, she

concluded that recasts do get noticed in classroom interaction even if they do not lead to uptake from the student who originally produced the error.

Study 3: Recasts and uptake

In a descriptive classroom study with adult learners of English as a second language, Rod Ellis, Helen Basturkmen, and Shawn Loewen (2001) observed the types of corrective feedback provided by teachers and the learners' immediate responses to it (i.e. uptake). They observed that most of the teachers' responses to the learners' errors came in the form of recasts. They also observed that learners immediately reacted to most of these recasts. Both the frequency of recasts and learners' responses to them led the researchers to conclude, like *Ohta,* that learners notice and respond to recasts in ways that may contribute positively to their second language development.

Studies 1, 2, and 3 used similar categories to describe feedback on error and students' reaction to it in different classroom environments. This permits useful comparisons and an insight into how the same teaching behavior may have a different effect in a different situation. Learners in Studies 2 and 3 were adults in small classes. Those in the Lyster and Ranta study were children. Furthermore, in the ESL class, learners received an hour of explicit grammatical instruction prior to the observation period. This was followed by communicative activities to practice the structure taught in the first part of the lesson. Thus, it is possible that this primed' the learners to pay attention to form and therefore led them to respond to recasts as feedback on form. Similarly, students in the Japanese foreign language class received language-focused as opposed to the content-based instruction provided in the French immersion context in the Lyster and Ranta study. Thus, they too were more likely to perceive recasts as feedback on the form of their utterances.

The importance of context and how it contributes to different ways in which learners perceive and respond to corrective feedback is further highlighted in the classroom study described below.

Study 4: Corrective feedback in context

Rhonda Oliver and Alison Mackey (2003)[19] carried out a descriptive study of an Australian primary ESL classroom with 6-12 year-olds. They investigated whether teachers' provision and learners' use of corrective feedback differed depending on varying contexts for interaction in a lesson. They identified four contexts in which teachers and learners interacted: (1) content exchanges in which the teacher imparted knowledge or asked questions about the content of the curriculum; (2) management exchanges in which the teacher talked about the organization of the lesson and appropriate classroom behavior; (3) communication exchanges in which the emphasis was on students using English in meaningful ways; and (4) explicit language-focused exchanges where the emphasis was on grammar and the use of metalinguistic terminology.

Oliver and Mackey found that learners produced significantly more errors in the communication exchanges. Thus opportunities for feedback were greatest in this context. The researchers found that feedback was provided in all instructional contexts but that it was most frequent in the explicit language-focused exchanges, followed by content, communication, and management. When they examined how learners reacted to the corrective feedback, they found that learners modified their output most often within explicit language-focused exchanges, only some of the time in content and communication exchanges, and never in management exchanges. Interestingly, the types of corrective feedback also varied across contexts: recasts were used at a consistently high rate in management, communication, and content exchanges, but less so in explicit language-focused

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[19] Oliver R. and A. Mackey. 2003. Interactional context and feedback in Child ESZ classrooms. The Modern Language Journal .87/4

exchanges; explicit corrective feedback was rarely provided during content, management, and communication exchanges, and frequently during explicit language-focused contexts. The results of this study emphasize how important it is to keep in mind differences in the instructional context when we talk about teacher feedback and learner response to it.

Other factors that may affect learners' reactions to different types of feedback include age and learning goals. Adults are probably more likely to recognize recasts as feedback on language form particularly if high levels of accuracy and native-like performance in the second or foreign language are their goals.

Questions in the classroom

Teachers' questioning behaviour has been the focus of a good deal of research in second language classrooms. Questions are fundamental in engaging students in interaction and in exploring how much they understand. Two types of questions that have been extensively examined are display and genuine and the role they play in classroom interaction has been examined in a number of studies.

Study 5: Teachers questions in ESL classrooms

Michael Long and Charlene Sato[20] (1983) examined the forms and functions of questions asked by teachers in ESL classrooms and compared them with questioning behaviours observed outside the classroom between native and non-native speakers. They were particularly interested in differences between the quantity of 'display' and 'information' (i.e. referential/genuine) questions. Audio-recordings made of the interactions between teachers and students in six adult ESL classes revealed that teachers asked more display questions than information questions. In the native speaker/non-native speaker conversations outside the classroom, referential questions were more frequent than display questions. The

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[20] M. Long, Ch. Sato. 1983. Classroom foreigner talk discourse. Rowley, MA: Newbury House

researchers concluded that teacher- learner interaction is a 'greatly distorted version of its equivalent in the real world' (p. 284), and they argued that the interactional structure of classroom conversation should be changed.

Since the Long and Sato study, other classroom studies on teachers' questioning behaviour have also reported disproportionately higher numbers of display to referential questions. In the context of communicative language teaching, teachers have been urged to use fewer display questions because they are thought to lead to short, simple responses that require little cognitive effort on the part of the learner. Instead, they have been encouraged to ask more referential (or genuine) questions since the latter are thought to require more cognitive processing and to generate more complex answers.

More recently, however, a re-evaluation of display questions has taken place. This is based on the observation that there are different ways in which display questions can be asked in classrooms. One is for the teacher to ask, a series of questions in a drill-like format such as 'Do you have a brother?', 'Does he have a brother?', 'Do you have a sister?', 'Does she have a sister?' In this context, display questions do not have a meaningful or communicative purpose. In other contexts, however, display questions can serve important pedagogic and interaction functions. The study below describes teachers' use of display questions in a more positive light.

Study 6: Scaffolding and display and referential questions

In a case study of one teacher's adult ESL class, Dawn McCormick and Richard Donato (2000) explored how the teacher's questions were linked to her goals. Working within sociocultural theory, the researchers chose the concept of SCAFFOLDING to investigate teacher questions as 'meditational tools within the dialogue between the teacher and students' (p.184). Scaffolding refers to a process in which a more knowledgeable (or expert) speaker helps a less knowledgeable (or novice) learner by providing assistance. McCormick and Donato identified six functions of scaffolding, for example, drawing the novice's attention to the task,

and simplifying or limiting the task demands. The researchers examined another function— the teacher's use of questions during scaffolded interactions—and how it contributed to class participation and learner comprehension. In the example below, they argue that the teacher's use of the display question 'Who usually lives in palaces?' serves an important pedagogic function because it draws the learners' attention to the word 'palace' through the display question and facilitates the learners' comprehension of the word.

T   Palace?

S1   Like castle?

S2   Special place, very good.

S3   Very nice.

T   Castle, special place, very nice. Who usually lives in palaces?

Ss   Kings.

T   Kings, and queens, princes and princesses.

Ss   Yeah

S4   Maybe beautiful house?

T   Big, beautiful house, yeah, really big

McCormick and Donato suggest that questions should be examined within the framework of scaffolded interaction and with reference to the teacher's goals in a particular lesson or interaction.

Study 7: Open and closed questions

Another distinction similar to the one between display and genuine questions is that between open and closed questions. Closed questions usually lead to simple one-word responses, making them quick and easy to respond to. Open questions lead to longer and more complex answers, including, for example, explanation and reasoning. In English-as-a-foreign-language classrooms in Austria, Christiane Daltoft-Puffer (2006) observed and audiorecorded the type of questions asked by teachers, as well as the responses students gave to them. In content and language-

integrated learning (CLIL) classes, students produced a greater quantity and quality of output after open questions. Also, open-ended questions that asked learners not just for facts but for reasons or explanations led to the most complex linguistic outcomes. Dalton Puffer concluded that asking more open-ended questions would benefit learners in these CLIL classrooms that this level of question/response interactions requires a high level competence in the foreign language on the part of the teacher.

Study 8: Wait time

Another aspect of teachers questioning behaviour is 'wait time'— amount of time the teacher pauses after having asked a question to give a student time to respond. Joanna White and Patsy Lightbown (1984) did quantitative analysis of wait time in ESL classes that were audiolingual their approach. They found that teachers typically gave students no more than a second or two before they directed the question to another student: answered the question themselves. They also tended to repeat the question several times rather than silently wait for the student to formulate a response. Finding a balance between placing too much pressure on student respond quickly and creating awkward silences seems to be a real challenge.

Study 9: Language in the home and school

Karen Watson-Gegeo (1992) carried out a longitudinal study over several years with nine families in the Solomon Islands. She explored language use practices in the home and in the school. Observations in the homes revealed environments that were rich and stimulating for both linguistic and cognitive development. Nevertheless, a large number of the children failed in school. A detailed analysis uncovered many differences in language use and values between the home and school setting. There was no use of the children's first language in school. Their first language was replaced with a restricted and often incorrect version of English. Although these language issues were contributing factors to the children's failure,

a broader analysis of the social and cultural context revealed other, more influential factors at play. Evidently, part of the children's language socialization experience at home included parents negatively portraying their experiences at school, expressing fears about their children's ability to succeed and raising fundamental questions about the value of school in their lives. The researcher concludes that these factors were central in contributing to the children's lack of continued cognitive and linguistic development in school.

Study 10: Separation of second language learners in primary schools

In a longitudinal study, Kelleen Toohey (1998) observed a group of children age 5-7 in kindergarten, grade 1, and grade 2 in Vancouver, Canada. The group included children who were native speakers of English, as well as bilingual children who spoke both English and Polish, Tagalog, Cantonese, Punjabi, or Hindi. All the children were in the same class, and English was the medium of instruction. Toohey identified three classroom practices that led to the separation of the ESL children in the classroom. First, the ESL childrens desks were placed close to the teacher's desk, on the assumption that they needed more direct help from the teacher. Some of them were also removed from the classroom twice a week to obtain assistance from an ESL teacher. Second, instances in which learners interacted more with each other usually involved borrowing or lending materials but this had to be done surreptitiously because the teacher did not always tolerate it. Finally, there was a 'rule' in the classroom that children should not copy one another's oral or written productions. This was particularly problematic for the ESL children because repeating the words of others was often the only way in which they could participate in conversational interaction. According to Toohey, these classroom practices led to the exclusion of ESL students from activities and associations in school and also in the broader community in which they were new members. Furthermore, such practices did not contribute positively to the children's ESL development.

Study 11: Socio-political change and foreign language classroom discourse

In an ethnographic study of English-medium content classes in Hungarian secondary schools, Patricia Duff (1995) examined the impact of sociopolitical changes on pedagogical practice. She compared the structure and participation patterns of two classroom activities. One is a traditional activity called a *felelés* which is a heavily ritualized recitation format closely associated with Soviet-oriented policies that were rejected after the fall of communism in the late 1980s. As a result, in many English-medium classes in Hungary, the *felelés* was replaced by a more open-ended activity called student lecture in which students prepared and presented material to the class in a less ritualized way. In an examination of the kind of language produced by students when participating in student lectures, Duff observed a large number of spontaneous comments and questions produced in English rather than Hungarian. She also noted how students appeared to incorporate feedback provided by the teacher (and other students) in their subsequent production, how the teacher and students worked together to negotiate meaning and form, and how they developed their fluency, accuracy, and comprehension skills in the process. On the basis of these findings, Duff concluded that socio-political transformation impacts on classroom practice and ultimately on second language learning.

Excerpts from four transcripts of second language classroom interaction are given in this and the following section. The first two present teacher-student interaction. The transcripts come from classrooms that differ in their approach to second language teaching; one of them represents structure-based instruction; the other, a communicative approach. Structure-based approaches emphasize language form through either metalinguistic instruction (for example, grammar translation) or pattern practice (for example, audiolingual).

With each transcript, there is a chart where you can indicate whether certain things are happening in the interaction, from the point of view of the teacher and

that of the students. Before you begin reading the transcripts, study the following interpretations of the categories used in the grids:

1. Errors: are there errors in the language of either the teacher or the students?

2. Feedback on errors: when students make errors, do they receive feedback? From whom?

3. GENUINE QUESTIONS: do teachers and students ask questions to which they don't know the answer in advance?

4. DISPLAY QUESTIONS: do teachers ask questions that they know the answers to so that leaders can display their knowledge of the language (or lack of it)?

5. Negotiation of meaning: do the teachers and students work to understand what the other speakers are saying? What efforts are made by the teacher? By the students?

6. Metalinguistic comments: do the teachers and students talk about language, in addition to using it to transmit information?

In the following excerpts, T represents the teacher, S represents a student. (The first two classroom examples in this chapter come from unpublished data collected by P. M. Lightbown, N. Spada, and B. Barkman.)

Classroom A: A structure-based approach

(Students in this class are fifteen-year-old French speakers.)

T   OK, we finished the book—we finished in the book Unit 1, 2, 3. Finished. Workbook 1, 2, 3. So today we're going to start with Unit 4. Don't take your books yet, don't take your books. In 1, 2, 3 we worked in what tense? What tense did we work on? OK?

S   Past.

T   In the past—What auxiliary in the past?

S   Did.

T   Did (writes on board T-2-3 Past'). Unit 4, Unit 4, were going to work in the present, present progressive, present continuous—OK? You don't know what it is?

S Yes

T Yes? What is it?

S Little bit.

T A little bit.

S ...

T Eh?

S Uh, present continuous

T Present continuous? What's that?

S e-n-g

T i-n-g

S Yes.

T What does that mean, present continuous? You don't know? OK, fine. What are you doing, Paul?

S Rien [nothing].

T Nothing?

S Rien—nothing.

T You're not doing anything? You're doing something!

S Not doing anything.

T You're doing something!

S Not doing anything.

T You're doing something—Are, are you listening to me? Are you talking with Marc? What are you doing?

S No, no—uh—listen—uh—

T Eh?

S to you.

T You're you're listening to me.

S Yes.

T Oh. (writes 'What are you doing? I'm listening to you' on the board).

T What are you—? You're excited.

S   Yes.

T   You're playing with your eraser, (writes 'I'm playing with my eraser' on the board). Would you close the door please, Bernard? Claude, what is he doing?

S   Close the door.

T   He is closing the door, (writes 'He's closing the door' on the board). What are you doing, Mario?

Classroom B: A communicative approach

(Students in this class are ten-year-old French speakers. In this activity, they are telling their teacher and their classmates what 'bugs' them. They have written 'what bugs them' on a card or paper that they hold while speaking.)

	Teacher	Student
Errors		
Feedback on errors		
Genuine questions		
Display questions		
Negotiation of meaning		
Metalinguistic comments		

S   It bugs me when a bee streeng me.

T   Oh, when a bee streengs me.

S   Streengs me.

T   Do you get strung often? Does that happen often? The bee **<u>sringing</u>** many times?

S   Yeah.

T Often? (Teacher turns to students who aren't paying attention)Ok. Sandra and Benoit, you may begin working on a research project, hey? (Teacher turns her attention back to "What bugs me")

S It bugs me (inaudible) and my sister put on my clothes.

T Ah! She borrows your clothes? When you're older, you may appreciate it because you can switch clothes, may be. (Turns to check another student's written work) Mélanie, this is yours, I will! Check. – Ok. It's good.

S It bugs me when I'm sick and my brother doesn't help me – my – my brother, ' cause he – me – .

T Ok. You know – when (inaudible) sick, you're sick at home in bed and you say, oh, to your brother or sister: "Would you please get me a drink of water?" – "Ah! Drop dead!" you know, "Go play in the traffic! "you know, it's not very nice. Martin!

S It bug me to have–

T It bugs me. It bugzz me.

S It bugs me when my brother takes my bicycle. Every day.

T Every day? Ah! Doesn't your brother bro – (inaudible) his bicycle? Could his brother lend his bicycle? Uh, your brother doesn't have a bicycle?

S Yeah! A new bicycle (inaudible) bicycle.

T Ah, well. Talk to your mom and dad about it. May be negotiate a new bicycle for your brother.

S (inaudible)

T He has a new bicycle. Bur his brother needs a new one too.

S Yes!

T Hey, whoa, just a minute! Jean?

S Martins brother has—

T Martin, who has a new bicycle? You or your brother?

S My brother.

T And you have an old one.

S   (inaudible)

T   And your brother takes your old one?

S   (inaudible) bicycle.

T   His bicycle! How old is your brother?

S   March 23.

T   His birthday?

S   Yeah!

T   And how old was he?

S   Fourteen.

T   Fourteen. Well, why don't you tell your brother that when he takes your bike you will take his bike? And he may have more scratches than he figures for. OK?

Characteristics of input and interaction

Compare the two charts you have completed so far. What kinds of second language input and opportunities for interaction are available to learners in each of the environments that these transcripts exemplify? How are they different?

Classroom A

Errors: Very few on the part of the teacher. However her speech does have some peculiar characteristics typical of this type of teaching, for example, the questions in statement form—often asked with dramatic rising intonation (for example, 'You don't know what it is?'). Students don't make too many errors because they say very little and what they say is usually limited by the lesson.

1. Feedback on errors: Yes, whenever students do make errors, the teacher reacts.

2. Genuine questions: Yes, a few, but they are almost always related to classroom management. No questions from the students.

3. Display questions: Yes, almost all of the teacher's questions are of this type. Interestingly, however, the students sometimes interpret display questions as genuine questions (T: What are you doing, Paul? S: Nothing.). The teacher

wants students to produce a sentence—any sentence—in the 'present continuous' but the student worries that he's about to get in trouble and asserts that he is doing 'nothing'. This is a good example of how the teachers pragmatic intent can be misinterpreted by the student, and of how strongly we seek to find genuine meaning in language.

4. Negotiation of meaning: Very little, learners have no need to paraphrase or request clarifications, and no opportunity to determine the direction of the discourse; the teacher is focused only on the formal aspects of the learners' language. All the effort goes into getting students to produce a sentence with the present continuous form of the verb.

5. Metalinguistic comments: Yes, this is how the teacher begins the lesson and lets the students know what really matters!

Classroom B

1. Errors: Yes, students make errors. And even the teacher says some odd things sometimes. Her speech also contains incomplete sentences, simplified ways of speaking, and an informal speech style.

2. Feedback on errors: Yes, sometimes the teacher repeats what the student has said with the correct form (for example, He buzz me —emphasizing the third person singular ending). However, this correction is not consistent or intrusive as the focus is primarily on letting students express their meanings.

3. Genuine questions: Yes, almost all of the teacher's questions are focused on getting information from the students. The students are not asking questions in this exchange. However, they do sometimes intervene to change the direction of the conversation.

4. Display questions: No, because there is a focus on meaning rather than on accuracy in grammatical form.

5. Negotiation of meaning: Yes, from the teacher's side, especially in the long exchange about who has a bicycle!

6. Metalinguistic comments: No. Even though the teacher clearly hopes to get students to use the third person ending, she does not say so in these words.

You no doubt noticed how strikingly different these two transcripts are, even though the activities in both are teacher-centred. In the transcript from Classroom A, the focus is on form (i.e. grammar) and in Classroom B, it is on meaning. In Classroom A, the only purpose of the interaction is to practise the present continuous. Although the teacher uses real classroom events and some humour to accomplish this, there is no real interest in what students are doing. Rather the teacher is highlighting their ability to say what they are doing, using the correct verb form. There is a primary focus on correct grammar, display questions, and error correction in the transcript from Classroom A. In the transcript from Classroom B, the focus is on meaning, conversational interaction, and genuine questions, although there are some brief references to grammatical accuracy when the teacher feels it is necessary.

IV. CONCLUSION

Learning is a continual process and teaching, of course, is also a continual process of learning. One can never be a "perfect" teacher. Initial teacher education programs should be based upon an ideal teacher profile. There are some suggestions to teacher about good foreign language teaching:

- *Use the target language in class.* English should be used for all communication in the class. "Real communication takes place before and after the lesson," one replace before reminds us, "and having these conversations in English is chance for the students to practice their English".

- *Speak at the students' level.* Give them comprehensible language while teaching. As one respondent explains: "The teacher's first duty is to teach according to the level and needs of the students. Try not to show off while teaching; you don't have to make them believe that you speak English well." One respondent suggests that teachers avoid using texts full of unknown vocabulary and structures, because such texts "create frustration and demotivate students."

- *State the lesson's objectives at the beginning of each class.* Giving the aims of the lesson at the beginning will make the lesson more meaningful for the students, and, according to one respondent, will help students "develop regular study habits".

- *Give clear instructions.* Before giving instructions, make sure that the students are paying attention. Don't give the instruction so quickly that students can't follow them.

- *Motivate the students in the first few minutes of the class.* Also the Importance of student motivation was mentioned by most of the respondents, they do not all agree on how teachers can motivate their students. One suggests: "Give students time to relax, have discussions on topics they are interested in – their problems may be." Another says: "Don't spend too much on socializing activities …

spend more time on learning tasks." Several recommend jokes as a technique to get the students' attention, especially, at the start of the lesson.

- *Give positive feedback.* According to one respondent, "Giving negative feedback might be discouraging and intimidating, especially if students are shy". Another says: "Never embarrass them, be tolerant.

- *Avoid immediate error corrections.* All the respondents who mentioned error correction agree that immediate correction should be avoided because it discourages students' willingness to participate. One advises: "Correct the frequent errors at the end of the activity without referring to individuals."

- *Be organized.* "Plan your teaching time carefully and intelligently", says one respondent. Another advice: "Have a clear idea of what you're going to teach. Don't jump from one topic to another… because if you don't know what you're doing, then the students will be lost, too, and spend their time trying to figure out your aim."

- *Be punctual.* One respondent state: "Never be late. Students will lose their respect for you and they will tend to be truant. They will not see you as an authority." Concerning discipline, another respondent recommends: "Set your policies for discipline at the beginning of the course. Make it clear to your students that rules are essential for managing the class effectively. "

- *Be cheerful and energetic in class.* There was some disagreement between the respondents on how the teacher should behave in class – in particular, on how a teacher can demonstrate enthusiasm and stimulate student participation. One respondent says: "Smile, never frown! How can we expect students to be enthusiastic and active in front of a yawning or frowning teacher?" Another says: "you will be more efficient. If you are active and never sit down, and this will give rise to increased student participation.

It would be a mistake to assume that suggestions given above are related to one particular foreign language teaching method. Although techniques may change the reflect developments in language teaching theory, the traits of effective language

teachers remain constant. Becoming a superior teacher still requires training and time. Sa in any other profession, a knowledge of the fundamentals plus experience them are what make a good teacher better.

The lessons are designed to help learners develop skills important in their learning process. Each lesson consists of several activities. There are overall objectives for each lesson as well as objectives for each activity. Each activity lists all the necessary materials including handouts/worksheets, timing and the procedure of each activity in the lesson.

Role of teacher as a facilitator

- Your role as a teacher is to facilitate the learning of students in a lesson and to create friendly learning atmosphere for them so that they fill safe to take risks share their views and learn from each other.
- Be patient and encourage students to find answers for their questions themselves by asking leading questions.
- Make sure you know their names and use them during the lessons.
- Allow them to share their experience when they are really eager and be sure to value it.
- Make sure the setting is suitable for students (size of chairs, tables, room decoration)

Use of language in the lessons

- It is advisable to use the working language (English).
- If you have a lesson in English, encourage students to use English in the lessons. However, if you see people struggling to understand you in English, it might be helpful to use their native language to explain difficult parts.
- Let the students use their native language when they work in small groups.
- Try to avoid difficult terms.

Interaction patterns

To help students' reflection their learning, make their decisions and draw their

conclusions about their learning, there is a variety of interaction modes that you will be using such as:

- Individual work which helps students reflect on their own experiences;
- Pair work which helps student to share information where they discuss things together and generate ideas;
- Group work where students share their ideas with each other and come to a general agreement;
- Plenary discussion that encourage students to exchange their views with the whole group.

Making objectives clear

Make sure you mention the objectives at the beginning of each lesson. Some students prefer being introduced to what to expect before a lesson. You may wish to paraphrase the objectives given in your notes as they are written for teachers.

Keep in mind that you may have learners with a variety of learning styles in your class. Make sure you have something for visual learners. You might wish to prepare a Power Point slide (s) or a flipchart with the summary of objectives and/or main points of a lesson.

Ice – breakers and warmers

If you have a new class using ice-breakers and wormers is helpful for teachers to get familiar with the group, learn names make initial analysis of learners' learning preferences, to introduce a change if a lesson begins to brag at a certain point.

Checking learners' understanding and monitoring your pace

Give learners thinking time, do not ask for an immediate response or provide an answer yourself even if there is a time limit.

Encourage learners to ask questions and do not always explain everything yourself. Other learners can help you to handle some of them at the lesson.

Check the instructions are understood. Ask learners to repeat/rephrase what they need to do before you give them time for doing a task.

Be flexible about timing of the lessons. The timing for each lesson and activity in the lesson is given in the teacher's notes. However, do not forget that each individual has his/her own pace of understanding/writing/reading information and level of English. So, if students spend more time for some activities than is allocated, do not rush for the sake of finishing everything on time and allow your learners as much time as they need.

Summarizing main points of each lesson

Do not forget to summarize the main points:

- At the end of each activity in a lesson
- At the end of each lesson

This will help learners get the sense of accomplished work and keep in mind what was covered.

Building friendly contact

Communicating with people is a part of our daily routine. We communicate with colleagues at work, with family at home, friends and strangers in the street. There are people who we would like more engagement with and some people whose company we try to avoid depending on how comfortable or uncomfortable we are with these people. A teacher should know what influences people's willingness to build good relationships to be able to help learners more effectively.

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