

**Teachers' Awareness and Use of Language
for Setting up Teacher-independent Activities
in the Language Class: a Case Study and a Chess Game**

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**Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham
For the Degree of Doctor of Education, October 2004**



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Word Count, excluding Appendices: 59,702

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the authors and artists whose work has contributed to this thesis, and the many individuals with whom I have come into contact in my career who have helped me develop the ideas represented here, especially:

Charles Dodgson and Ludwig Wittgenstein, the two *dead white males* who have been my constant companions throughout this study;

David Brazil, Malcolm Coulthard, Mike McCarthy and John Sinclair, who, twenty years ago, infected me with a curiosity about *used language*;

My students, teacher trainees and colleagues, past and present, for friendship, and for providing the focus and data for this project;

My Dean of Faculty, Marianne Howarth, and my Head of Department, Diane Schmitt, for their support and sensitivity;

My friend and fellow Ed.D. student, Sheila Spencer, with whom I have shared the joys and frustrations of juggling part-time postgraduate study with full-time work – Sheila, *it can be done, it will be done*;

My Supervisor, Do Coyle, my confidante and role model, who has encouraged and inspired me in so many ways to *get it written*;

And of course my long suffering family: Tom, Zeph, and Beth, who, though living in the same house, have seen little of me these past four years; and Tris and Alex, who have seen me even less. I have treasured your belief in my ability to succeed, and I look forward so very much to *getting a life* again.

Thank you all.

Abstract

The practice of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in the British context has evolved to a point where varied and complex patterns of classroom interaction have become the norm, and where teacher-independent activities have become an important vehicle for language learning. In this climate, there is a need for novice English Language Teachers to adopt a major role as managers of learning. Whilst there has been much emphasis in recent Second Language Acquisition Research on the relationship between activity type and output from language learners, there have been fewer studies on the relationship between activity based pedagogy and teacher-generated language output. Using transcribed audio recordings from twenty-two entire lessons conducted by novice teachers, together with data from interviews and stimulated recall-based assignments, the author investigates aspects of lesson staging, classroom interaction and teacher role, as they are manifested through the language that the teachers use in their classes. Three types of teacher-generated language are identified. From these, it is suggested that the functions of structuring and rapport-enhancing have significance in lesson stages involving the setting up of teacher-independent activities. The complexity of the relationship between these two functions, seen in the context of entire lessons, reveals individual differences amongst the novice teacher subjects. Implications of this research for Teacher Education are discussed, and the thesis ends with practical suggestions relevant to the content of Language Teacher Education Courses.

A Note on Translation

Quotations from the works of Ludwig Wittgenstein are used at key points in this thesis, and they underline the importance of the Philosophy of Language to the conceptual framework of the research reported here. In this connection, a decision had to be made about whether to quote from the original German text or from an English translation. I was concerned that certain philosophically significant terms, whether coined by Wittgenstein himself or simply taken up from previous thinkers and discussed by him (e.g. *Bedeutung*), could not be rendered adequately in translation. At the same time, I understood that my thesis needed to be accessible and readable. A compromise position has therefore been taken, by which the original German has been used, along with an English translation, in those parts of the thesis where Wittgenstein's key concepts are discussed. Elsewhere in the thesis, where the ideas expressed are of a more general nature, only the English translation has been given. Sometimes, where deemed significant, single lexical items are given in German and glossed in English. I have quoted in German only from Wittgenstein's most widely-known works, i.e. the *Tractatus Logico-philosophicus* and the *Philosophical Investigations*, and full details of the bilingual editions used are given in the List of Bibliographic References.

A Note on Route Maps

Visual-spatial representation of information, in the form of *visual organizers*, such as diagrams, maps or charts, has been proposed as a way of enhancing comprehension of information presented verbally (Rose, 1985; Dunston, 1992; Beissner, Jonnassen and Grabowski, 1994; Griffin, Malone and Kameenui, 1995). Visual presentation of knowledge can '*facilitate the visual thinking (visualization through images) that underlies the process of knowledge construction*' (Kang, 2004). Drawing on this research, visual organizers have been given as route maps through this thesis, and are placed as the final page of each Chapter. I encourage my reader to consult the maps from time to time, as they summarise what has been presented verbally in the corresponding Chapters and can therefore be used as memory aids to link information given in one Chapter to relevant information presented in another.

Maps at the end of Chapters 1 to 4 and Chapter 6 relate to the chess metaphor that unifies the ideas presented in this work. Each of these *Metaphor Maps* represents four levels within the metaphor, and these are always colour-coded in the same way. Chapters 1, 5, 7 and 8 contain maps relating to the iterative research framework that I have used in this work. These *Research Framework Maps* are drawn in shades of purple, and are thus easily distinguishable from the *Metaphor Maps*. The map at the end of the final Chapter, Chapter 9, links the levels of the metaphor with my research findings, and thereby acts as a summary of the thesis as a whole.

Alphabetical List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Full Form	Mention
ARC	Authentic Use, Restricted Practice, Clarification and Focus	Chapter 6
CA	Conversation(al) Analysis	Chapter 4
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis	Chapter 4
CDS	Child-Directed Speech	Chapter 3
CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults	Chapter 1
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching	Chapter 1
CTP	Communicational Teaching Project	Chapter 6
C-zone	Zone of Teacher-learner Congruence	Chapter 3
DA	Discourse Analysis	Chapter 4
DfES	Department for Education and Skills	Chapter 3
EFL	English as a Foreign Language	Chapter 1
ESA	Engage, Study, Activate	Chapter 6
ES(O)L	English as a Second or Other Language	Chapter 1
ESL	English as a Second Language	Chapter 1
ESOL	English to Speakers of Other Languages	Chapter 1
FENTO	Further Education National Training Organisation	Chapter 3
HPD	High Power Distance	Chapter 3
IATEFL	International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language	Chapter 1
III	Illustration, Interaction, Induction	Chapter 6
IRF	Initiation, Response, Follow-up	Chapter 3
LPD	Low Power Distance	Chapter 3
LT	Long Turn (a subcategory of <i>ST</i> lasting 5 seconds or longer)	Chapter 7
NLP	Neuro-Linguistic Programming	Chapter 1
OHE	Observe, Hypothesize, Experiment	Chapter 6
PI	Philosophical Investigations	Chapter 1
PPP	Presentation, Practice, Production	Chapter 6
R-zone	Learner Resist Zone	Chapter 3
SAID	System for Analysing Instructional Discourse	Chapter 6
SEAL	Society for Effective Affective Learning	Chapter 3
SLA	Second Language Acquisition	Chapter 1
S	Student working alone (Global Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
S1	Student working alone on form-focused language work (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
S2	Student working alone on communication-focused language work (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
S12	Student working alone on work focused both on form and use (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5

SS	Student-Student in pairs or groups (Global Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
SS1	Students working in pairs or groups on form-focused language work (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
SS2	Students working in pairs or groups on communication-focused language work (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
SS12	Students working in pairs or groups on language work focused both on form and use (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
ST	Student-Teacher (Global Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
<i>ST</i>	Student Turn (any word, phrase or longer utterance made by a learner)	Chapter 5
STT	Student Talking Time	Chapter 5
TA	Transactional Analysis	Chapter 1
TBL	Task Based Learning	Chapter 6
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages	Chapter 1
TL	Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus	Chapter
TS	Teacher-Student (Global Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
TS1	Teacher-Student interaction focused on form (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
TS2	Teacher-Student interaction focused on communication (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
TS12	Teacher-Student interaction focused on both form and use (Detailed Interaction Pattern)	Chapter 5
TTEd SIG	Teacher Trainers and Educators Special Interest Group	Chapter 1
TTT	Teacher Talking Time	Chapter 5

SECTION A: PRE-TASK

CHAPTER 1: THE GAME

1.1 Introduction

Question: “Well then, what’s your thesis about?”

Without teachers, learning dies. In a world dominated by the techno-babble of geeks and Gates, it pays to constantly remind ourselves that the truth really is as simple and unvarnished as this: teachers, not technology, are the key to the future. In fact, without good teachers we have no future.

(Puttnam, 2003, p.5)

Successful teaching, celebrated in those inspiring words, has been characterised elsewhere as a ‘*synthesis of the head and the heart*’ (Day, 1993:2). It is a complex process, involving commitment of both professional and personal kinds. My current teacher training activities involve devising and delivering courses for pre- and in-service teachers of English, and it is one of these courses, the one leading to the Cambridge ESOL CELTA (formerly Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults), that is the focus of this study. In order to set the context for the work I shall be describing in this thesis, I introduce below some key ideas that are relevant to the type of training course that forms the basis for my study.

In the context of Teacher Education, *the head* has received a great deal of emphasis: Day (1991) gives four components of *Teacher Knowledge*:

- *Content Knowledge*, i.e. of subject matter;
- *Pedagogic Knowledge*, i.e. of generic teaching strategies, beliefs and practices;

- *Pedagogic Content Knowledge*, i.e. of how students learn the subject; and
- *Support Knowledge*, i.e. of disciplines that inform teaching and learning approaches.

Eraut (1994; 2000) and Lai (2003) recognise an additional dimension, *Personal Knowledge*, that a teacher learns from experience in practising the profession. Throughout this thesis, I shall be putting forth two main *knowledge paradigms* of my own, which I shall apply to Research, to Language, and to Language Teaching Methodology. However, I shall also be referring to another, personal, dimension, which I consider to be of overarching importance.

The field of training teachers in the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) dates back only to the 1950's; its own dedicated journal, *The Teacher Trainer*, to 1987; and its dedicated support group, the Teacher Trainers and Educators Special Interest Group (TTEd SIG) of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), to 1989 (McGrath, 1997). In the British context, ESOL Subject Knowledge has been a problematic concept. The two traditions of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and Teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) (sometimes English as a Second or Other Language, ES(O)L) have had very different histories, largely as a result of whether their activities have been funded by commercial (EFL) or government

(ES(O)L) agencies. Burdon and Guneri (2003) have explained the difference thus:

The EFL student has been seen as someone who is not an immigrant and who has some degree of affluence, and the ES(O)L student as an immigrant in this country attending a course which is wholly or partially subsidised.

(Burdon and Guneri, 2003, p.2)

Since I began this study, there have been two significant developments that have brought these separate traditions together. The first is the setting up in 2001 of a Special Interest Group for ES(O)L within the professional body of IATEFL. The second is the publication in 2002 of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) ESOL Subject Specifications (Appendix A).

These two developments taken together have unified and provided recognition for the large body of professionals working in a common field that exists both in UK and abroad, now known under the umbrella acronym, TESOL.

For international contexts, Roberts (1998) and Richards (1998) have posited categories of appropriate required knowledge for TESOL. Richards (1998:1-13), whose work I have used to inform my research, proposes six domains of content for a Language Teacher's core knowledge base, including a language proficiency component:

- *Theories of Teaching*, i.e. those that are relevant to mainstream teaching in general as well as those specific to the nature of second language teaching and learning;

- *Teaching Skills*, i.e. a core of generic and subject specific competences;
- *Communication Skills*, i.e. both general communication skills and language proficiency;
- *Subject Matter Knowledge*, i.e. what teachers need to know about what they teach and also the specialized discourse that language teachers use to talk about their discipline;
- *Pedagogical Reasoning and Decision Making Skills*, i.e. the specialized thinking and problem solving skills involved in teaching;
- *Contextual Knowledge*, i.e. an understanding of how societal, community and institutional context impacts on language teaching and learning.

The particular research focus of this thesis touches on all Richards' core domains, though its specific concerns are *teaching and communication skills* and *theoretical and subject matter knowledge*.

Richards (1998:34-45) goes on to give a tri-partite categorisation of perspectives on teacher knowledge relevant to Teacher Education (after Zahorik, 1986), which I shall come back to in Chapter 8 (Section 8.4):

- *Science-Research Conceptions*, i.e. a view of teaching as informed by scientific research, legitimated by empirical investigation;
- *Theory-Philosophy Conceptions*, i.e. a view of teaching based on principles put forward by linguists or educators and accepted as received truth;

- *Art-Craft Conceptions*, i.e. a view of teaching that is based on the individual's personal skills, applied according to context, and in which teacher decision making needs to be informed by knowledge of alternative methodologies.

The special nature of language in Language Teaching, where it is both content and medium of instruction, makes for added complexity. This has been recognised by Roberts (1998:108), who states that the target language may be viewed as '*a medium for transmitting information*', as '*a system of rules*', or as '*a social experience played out in the classroom*'.

The relationship between a teacher's knowledge, general teaching skill and language skill is highly interdependent. Schon (1983) and Stenhouse (1975), for example, have acknowledged that theory and practice are interrelated and embedded in practice, whilst Van Manen (1995) has created the concept of *Pedagogical Tact*, to describe the intuitive skill of knowing how to handle interaction with students as it unfolds in specific classroom situations.

There seems to be a broadly dichotomous distinction in these definitions between knowledge created by *others* and knowledge created by *self*: namely, between knowledge as mastery of theories and principles passed on by Teacher Educators, as opposed to knowledge as personally constructed from experience. As Hargreaves (1994) has observed, teachers' roles are constantly expanding to meet new challenges, yet the strategies they use,

and the knowledge base on which those strategies are based, are constantly being called into question. He asks, therefore :

If the knowledge base of teaching has no scientific foundation, on what can our justifications for practice be based?

(Hargreaves, 1994, p.4)

In this climate, the voices of teachers themselves and their own implicit theories of teaching are being increasingly brought into the frame of teacher knowledge (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1990; Cortazzi, 1991; Bailey and Nunan, 1995). The importance of *heart* in all of this is also becoming more clearly understood, notably through studies on teachers' personal emotional and life histories (Hargreaves and Woods, 1984; Clandinin and Connelly, 1984a, 1984b, 1987, 1995; Connelly and Clandinin, 1990, 1995; Hargreaves, 1994).

As for our students, they realised long ago the efficacy of a combination of head and heart in a teacher's ability to motivate them to learn. Day (1999), for example, cites research stretching back over forty years that reports appreciation for teachers who, along with sound subject knowledge, show cheerfulness, good temper, a sense of humour, help and encouragement, interest and enthusiasm, enjoyment of the subject, and a willingness to explain without making students feel small. Of additional importance for the research reported in this thesis, Woodward (1996) finds that teachers have similar thoughts about their trainers:

When you ask teachers what they like and remember about their trainers, many will mention personal qualities such as sensitivity, flexibility and sense of humour rather than the strategies and techniques used and often rather even than the content or knowledge passed on.

(Woodward, 1996, p.5)

In my research, I wanted to investigate this *synthesis of head and heart* in a way that would be of use to Initial Teacher Trainees. My specific interest is in the question of how this interrelationship might be manifested through the language that teachers use in class. If there are benefits for learners in teachers' using talk in specific ways, then training prospective teachers to do so might prove a worthwhile activity for Teacher Educators.

1.2. Connections

In embarking on this thesis, and in my quest for balancing head and heart within it, I have looked back over the half century of my lifetime and taken stock, both of my personal development as a Teacher Educator, and of the more general trends in Teacher Education that my career has encompassed. In so doing, I have become aware of childhood fascinations and enthusiasms that in retrospect seem important. As Cook puts it (2000:6), '*things which seem irrelevant to each other are often connected*'. The *connections* I am making in this thesis concern Philosophy; Communication; Classroom Interaction; Language Teaching Methodology; and Affect, all of which will be explored in the following Chapters. For the moment, I set down the personal context for this research study.

As I begin this opening Chapter, I hold in my mind's eye a 1952 edition of Lewis Carroll's *Through the Looking Glass*, given to me on my fifth birthday. I fell in love with the book then, and it has remained a treasured possession. Reading it a little later, a feat much facilitated by Tenniel's beautiful illustrations, which I 'improved' with the help of Lakeland

crayons, I was fascinated by its strange characters and by its linguistic playfulness (Cook, 2000). That birthday present, and the later purchase of its companion, *Alice in Wonderland*, gave rise to a passion for language that has continued to guide my choices in life, throughout my education and my career in language teaching and training. It is not until now, however, in the course of the present study, that I have come to a full appreciation of the importance of the history of philosophical thought in what I and other Language Teachers do for a living. The writing of this thesis has given me an opportunity to explore and reaffirm the relevance of the Philosophy of Language to the Practice of Language Teaching.

1.3 Genesis

In my work in TESOL, I have been aware of the myriad of local constraints on teachers in various parts of the world, whether imposed by government or arising from cultural factors, that cannot be addressed through the kind of generic curriculum I deliver, namely, initial training in TESOL to those who will take up a variety of positions both in UK and overseas. Consequently, the research I have chosen to undertake for this thesis has been designed to be relevant to the kinds of decisions that all teachers are called upon to make within their own classrooms. In this connection, I have witnessed over recent years, through personal experience abroad and through the literature, a globally significant change in emphasis from *teaching* to *learning* (Prabhu, 1987; Rossner and Bolitho, 1990; Ur, 1996; Willis and Willis, 1996; Woodward, 1996; Hedge, 2000; Larsen Freeman, 2000). This gradual shift has been away from a teacher-centred methodology, often referred to as

transmission style, towards an *interpretation* one, in which learning is managed and facilitated through pair and group work (Barnes, 1976; Wright, 1987). In TESOL, the corresponding shift has highlighted the importance both of variety in classroom interaction patterns and of clarity in the language teachers use for the management of learning (see Chapter 6, Section 6.1); these are crucial in the context of teaching English, through the medium of English, to a multilingual class.

Of relevance to my study are the two ways of learning described by Argyris and Schon (1974), who coined the terms *single loop* and *double loop learning*. In the former, teachers evaluate how far what they *say* they believe about teaching chimes with what they actually *do* in the classroom. In the latter, teachers take learning one step further, by problematising what they have previously taken for granted. The impetus for my own research comes from just such a *double loop* learning situation. One of my Teachers in Training (henceforth Colin) was having difficulty with managing learning in his classes. On hearing his plea, '*If you just tell me the rules, I'll follow them*', I was embarrassed to admit that I had no *rules* to give. Up until that time, I had not thought of a language class in terms of *applying a set of rules to be followed*. I had thought of it as *a purposeful interaction in which learning takes place*. In order to help this Trainee, I had to shift my frame of reference, and, in so doing, I was reminded that it is just such a *reframing* process that is described as part of the pedagogy of Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) (Dilts, 1983). In an effort to find information that might offer practical help, I set about reviewing literature in the areas of

Communications, Classroom Interaction, NLP and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (See Chapter 3). Yet I lacked a sense of how insights from these various fields would come together practically in the classroom, i.e. in what has become known as *instructed*, as opposed to *naturalistic*, Second Language Acquisition settings (Nunan, 2001:87, VanPatten, 2004). Consequently, I decided to carry out research that would take account of the context that Colin typically had to deal with, i.e. a class of adult students of English for General Purposes. I planned to observe and document relevant practices, with the aim of creating a set of tools that would be useful for Colin and others like him. The research for this thesis would allow me to undertake an analysis of that aspect of a Language Teacher's competence that has been referred to variously as *teacher talk* (Bailey, 2001), or *classroom language* (Spratt, 1994:3). Tsui (2001:120) states that descriptions of classroom interaction initially focused on language used by the teacher to question, elicit, provide feedback and allocate turns. She categorises aspects of classroom interaction as pertaining to *input*, *interaction* and *output*, of which *input* refers to the language used by the teacher. I intended to take a broader view of the teacher-generated spoken language used in ESOL classes, which I refer to as *instructional language*. Exactly what constitutes instructional language and how the term should be defined would emerge through my studies (see Chapter 5, Section 5.9).

This thesis, then, is about half a century of my own fascination with Language and Language Learning. It is about thirty-five years of working as a Language Teacher. Its overt purpose is, through analysis of

instructional language, to provide models of practice that prospective Language Teachers can learn to use in their classrooms, thus contributing to their knowledge base. It is also a vehicle for documenting my own philosophical explorations. Finally, it is an opportunity for me to experiment with writing about a combination of personal and professional concerns. This thesis therefore exists on various levels, *connected* by an inner, personal, legacy of life experience and by an outer, public, legacy of Wittgenstein's thought.

1.4 A Metaphor for Reframing *either...or* into *both ...and*

Inspired by Aristotle's discussion of the pedagogic value of metaphors in the Poetics and the Rhetoric (Lawson-Tancred, 1991, Grube, 1958), Woodward (1991) has pioneered the use of metaphor in TESOL Teacher Education. In my case, I used the metaphor of *game* as a *both ... and* frame into which a view of the language classroom as *applying a set of rules to be followed* might be compatible with a view of it as *creating purposeful interaction in which learning takes place* (see Section 1.8). Later in this thesis, I shall be reframing other *either...or* dichotomies into *both...and* continua (e.g. Chapter 2, Section 2.7). I have chosen *the game of chess* as the metaphor for this thesis for several reasons, chief of which is its importance amongst Philosophers, Linguists and Educationalists. Wittgenstein used *game* as a metaphor for *language*, and embodies, in his life and work, the shifts in philosophical perspective that have influenced Educational Research and Practice, and my own teaching career in particular (see Chapter 3, Sections 2.2 and 2.3).

Metaphor is defined as '*a device for seeing something in terms of something else*' (Burke, 1945: 503). Cortazzi and Jin (1991:149) have further described it as a *bridge*, etymologically *carrying over* from one side to another. Schon (1979, 1983, 1991) and Lakoff (1987) have gone further in suggesting that metaphor provides structure for thought itself. The components of a metaphor have become known as *topic* and *vehicle* (Richards, 1936; Perrine, 1971). For Wittgenstein, then, the vehicle, *game* is used to describe the topic, *language*. For me, the vehicle, *chess game* is used here to describe the topic, *instructional language*.

Like Schon (1979:254), Block (1999) feels metaphor is of crucial importance in how we '*make sense of reality and set the problems we later try to solve*'. This view certainly has resonance with my own case, as, once I had conceptualised my research in terms of chess game and framed my thesis in terms of the life and work of Wittgenstein, I was enabled to proceed with the construction of my argument.

1.5 Game-like Activities

The *game* metaphor is conventional, but far from dead. It is well known to linguists from Wittgenstein's *language games* (1968:17, 28,108, 194, 254), de Saussure's *language is a game of chess* (1960; Harris,1983:23), and Lakoff and Johnson's *life is a gambling game* (1980:51). I have chosen to use it in my work, not only because of its frequency in Linguistics, but also because it is used by the creators of training tools that have been useful to

me, such as Transactional Analysis (TA) and NLP. Cook (2000) refers to the TA-related area of enquiry known as Game Theory, which has seen game playing as part of life. Bellack et al. (1996:237) have described the classroom as a game, involving '*one person called teacher and one or more persons called pupils*' who '*follow a set of complementary rules*'. Wells (1992) and Coyle (2000) have contributed further insights into the classroom game, and language games and game-like activities are very much a part of the methodology of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (See Chapter 6, Section 6.1).

Malcolm (2001:55) tells how, when passing a field where a football game was in progress, the thought first struck Wittgenstein that in language we '*play games with words*'. This was the genesis of the notion of *language game*, which is central in Wittgenstein's writings. Wittgenstein also apparently once said that a serious and good philosophical work could be written that would consist entirely of jokes (Malcolm, 2001: 28); the role of humour in language acquisition will resurface in my later discussions (see Chapter 3, Section 3.9 and Chapter 7, Section 7.10).

Of a random forty concordances for the word, *game*, called up from the Collins Cobuild Corpora (2003), six of these, i.e. 15%, were metaphorical: '*give the game away*'; '*see his little game*'; '*name of the game*'; '*play him at his own game*'; and '*power game*'. The Oxford English Dictionary (2003) gives fifteen senses for the noun, the first five being: '*amusement, delight, fun, mirth, sport*', whilst Steen (1999) describes *game* as a simple countable

process noun, of Anglo Saxon provenance, with '*positive and homely connotations of a non-serious nature*'. It would therefore seem an appropriate, non-threatening word to choose for describing language classroom procedures to novice English Language Teachers.

1.6 Chess

Chess has been compared to *life* by many authors over the years (Gardner, 2001), and has long held a fascination for mathematicians such as Dodgson and Wittgenstein. At a similar age to that at which I discovered Lewis Carroll, Kasparov, the world champion and Grand Master (1993: 116-121) was discovering chess: it seemed to him '*like a fairy tale*'. Kasparov too likens the game of chess to life itself:

I, like many others, see in chess a remarkably accurate model of human life with its daily struggle and ups and downs. At the chessboard we get the chance to control events. We can devise plans and then try consistently to bring them to their logical conclusions – but surely isn't that analogous with what we do every day?

(Kasparov, 1993, p.121)

In chess, I see a model of life in a language classroom, and my own fascination for the language teaching *game* stems from the fact that each language class is a unique experience. Classrooms are full of variables, and, in spite of the thousands of books written on the subject of language teaching, no one method guarantees success. It is a similar unpredictability in chess that fascinates Kasparov:

Judge for yourself; millions of games have been played, thousands of books have been written on various aspects of the game, yet there is no chess formula or method which can guarantee victory, there are no mathematically justified criteria for evaluating even a single move, let alone a position.

(Kasparov, 1993, p.1)

For Lewis Carroll's Alice, life is a chess game played out in a *landscape* (Carroll, 1952: 35; Gardner, 2001:172) and Wittgenstein's writings similarly interpret the chess board as *landscape*, with chess as *game of life*, and chess pieces variously as *humans*, as *learners* and as *tools* (see Chapter 3).

In the field of Education, using the analogy of the chess player developing 'a *feel for the game*', Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1977:12) identify a set of levels of skill development, from novice to expert: the novice level is notable for its adherence to *rules*, whereas the expert level transcends rules and becomes fluid, flexible and proficient. It is my aim in training novice teachers of ESOL that they should be enabled to deal with the unpredictability inherent in classrooms, and that they should shape their own classroom *game* according to rules that suit their own personality and ability, as well as those of their students.

1.7 Wittgenstein

Wittgenstein is an inspiration for this thesis in terms not only of his work, but of his life. It was whilst I was studying for my Master's Degree in Applied Linguistics that I came across Bernard Harrison's work on the Philosophy of Language (1979), which acknowledges Wittgenstein as a writer of genius. Harrison discusses central concerns of Linguistic Philosophy: *names, meaning and truth*, and *communication and intention*. These concepts have a bearing on the topic and orientation of my research and will be discussed more fully in Chapter 3, but I mention them here, with a brief reference to Wittgenstein's life history, in order to justify my

adoption of Wittgenstein as a guide, and my use of his writings as a thread illustrating my argument throughout this thesis.

Wittgenstein embodies the kind of synthesis of contradictions and *either ... or* dichotomies that I shall be seeking to reframe in my own thesis: for example, he was both Austrian and British, and saw military action on both sides; he was both intellectual and practical, having studied Mathematics, Engineering and Philosophy, and worked as Professor, Architect, School Teacher and Gardener; having been a Teacher, he is attractive to me as a fellow Practitioner; having known the life and language of two cultures, and philosophised in both, he is attractive to me also as a lover and learner of language. In Wittgenstein's two major works, contradictions are similarly in evidence: in the Preface to his later *Philosophical Investigations* (PI) (Anscombe and Rhees, 1968), he does what few academics are courageous enough to do, i.e. to recognise '*grave mistakes*' in his first book, the *Tractatus Logico-Mathematicus* (TL)(Pears and McGuinness, 1961)'.

Both books inspired schools of Philosophy, the former leading to the Logical Positivism championed by A. J. Ayer (1936;1956;1963) and the latter to the Linguistic Philosophy of Austin (1962). The early work dealt with abstraction and logic, viewing language in mathematical terms. The later work presented Philosophy as a method of description and analysis, not of theorising (PI, 109). Such concerns are very much alive for Applied Linguists and Language Teachers today, in seeking ways to help learners practise how language is *used*, as well as understand what language *is*. The

research methodology that I have adopted in my own study is much inspired by Wittgenstein's later philosophy, but does not lose sight of the earlier work (see Chapters 3 and 4).

Knowledge of the development of Wittgenstein's thought has helped me to understand Trainee Colin's predicament: in order that he can exert his right to become an autonomous teacher (Benson, 2000; McGrath, 2000), Colin feels it necessary to serve an apprenticeship in which he learns some *rules*. With the confidence that comes with experience, he may break these rules later (Sinclair et al., 2000). I have been interested to explore the kinds of interaction between Teacher/Trainer and Trainee/Student that can facilitate progression toward autonomy. This type of process, in the context of apprenticeship to Bertrand Russell, appears to have been important to Wittgenstein's ultimate development as a free thinker.

1.8 Conclusion

To conclude this Chapter, I set out my metaphorical framework for this thesis, tabulated as Figure 1.8.1. The framework is in two parallel parts: the general; and the specific. This dual framework is represented graphically in two Metaphor Maps: a general Metaphor Map (Fig.1.8.2), and a Metaphor Map that is specific to the focus of my study (Fig.1.8.3).

Figure 1.8.1 Chapter One Metaphor Summary

Level	General Framework	Specific Framework
1. Wittgenstein	Wittgenstein embodies in his own life and works the philosophical <i>paradigm wars</i> in which the Newtonian scientific method of seeking one truth is pitted against the alternative method of acknowledging and seeking multiple truths (see Chapter 2).	For me, Wittgenstein is a model for the corresponding <i>paradigm shift in language teaching</i> , from teacher-centredness to learner-centredness, from form to use, from grammar-translation to communicative and task based approaches (See Chapter 3).
2. Game	Games are rule governed and goal oriented. <i>Life, language, communication and research</i> are also rule governed and have been described as games by Dodgson, Wittgenstein, de Saussure, Kasparov and others.	For me, <i>language teaching</i> is a game and within it <i>instructional language</i> is a game in its own right: it is my intention to isolate a set of rules by which the game of instruction giving can be played.
3. Chess Board	Every chess game is played on a board. This provides the context and boundary for play. The chessboard is constant but the configuration of moves made by the pieces makes each game unique. For Carroll and Wittgenstein, the context is a <i>landscape</i> . For my research, the context is my <i>thesis</i> .	The game of language teaching is played in the <i>classroom</i> . The chessboard for the instructional language game is the unit or segment of instruction giving, the <i>instructional exchange</i> (see Chapter 4).
4. Chess Pieces	There are sixteen chessmen, of six different types. Each chessman has its own repertoire of prescribed moves, but must use these to interact to advantage with other pieces. For Carroll, chess pieces are <i>living creatures</i> . For Wittgenstein, and for my own research, they are <i>tools</i> .	On my instructional language chess board, my chess pieces are the procedures in the <i>instructional repertoire</i> .

In this first Chapter, I have acknowledged the complexity of the teaching process, and described knowledge in terms of *paradigms* that have been posited as relevant content for Teacher Education courses. Taking Cook's (2000) lead, I have signalled my wish to look for unaccustomed connections. I have stated my choice of a narrow focus for my research, namely, the kind of *instructional language* that teachers use for managing learning in the ESOL classroom. However, taking the *game of chess* as my metaphor, I have linked this focus to wider philosophical and linguistic contexts. With Wittgenstein as my inspiration, I have begun the process of reframing *either ... or* perceptions into *both ... and* frames, introducing in this Chapter such oppositions as *head and heart; theory and practice; self and other; teaching and learning; TL and PI*.

1.9 Preview

I have been concerned, in the writing of this thesis, to present my research in a way that would convey to my reader the nature of the exploratory processes I went through as they unfolded, in clarifying the focus of my study and in arriving at my findings. I therefore wish, in so as far as it is possible, to take my reader with me on this journey. However, I am also mindful that I need at the outset to give some detail at least of aims, subjects, procedures and expected outcomes. I therefore set out below, and in Figure 1.9.1, a brief outline of the study, in order that my reader may contextualise the Chapters that follow.

The focus of my research is on the interrelationship of teacher-generated language, language instruction, management of learning and interaction in teacher-fronted classroom discourse, and its status as knowledge. My aim has been to investigate what I am calling *instructional language*, i.e. the spoken language generated in their classes by Language Teachers (see Chapter 5), with particular reference to the language used for setting up what I am calling *teacher-independent activities for language learning* (see Chapter 6). All my data was collected from teaching practice sessions conducted by subjects following initial Teacher Education courses in TESOL (henceforth Trainees), working towards the Cambridge ESOL CELTA qualification (see Appendix B). I followed an iterative research cycle over a period of two years, during which time four cohorts of CELTA Trainees passed through courses at my institution. Three of these cohorts took part in the research reported in this thesis.

After considering my research options and conducting an initial literature review (see Chapters 2 and 3), I undertook preliminary observational research with five Trainees from my first cohort (henceforth Cohort One), using audio-recorded lessons with adult language learners at two levels, and related lesson plans (see Chapter 4, Section 4.12). The aim of this first research phase (henceforth Phase One) was to come to an understanding and working definition of *instructional language*, in order to refine and narrow the focus of my study. To do this, seven analytical *operations* were carried out (the findings relating to the operations undertaken on the audio-recorded lessons from Cohort One, and the emerging definition of *instructional*

language, are reported in Chapter 5). I additionally carried out interpretive research, using individual interviews with Cohort One participants, and scrutinising reflective written assignments from the five Trainees from this cohort (the findings relating to these interviews and assignments are given in Chapter 8). As a result of this preliminary study with Cohort One, issues arose relating to lesson staging, activity or task-oriented learning, and Language Teaching Methodology, which necessitated further literature review (this supplementary literature review is given in Chapter 6).

A second phase of research (henceforth Phase Two) was conducted with a second cohort of Trainees (henceforth Cohort Two). Seven participants took part, each furnishing audio-recorded lessons with language learners at two levels, together with related lesson plans and reflective assignments. The aim of this research phase was to come to a deeper understanding of the nature of *instructional language* in stages involving the setting up of teacher-independent activities for language learning. The same seven operations as for Cohort One were carried out on this second cohort, together with nine further operations. These investigations were designed to explore *affective* as well as *structural* dimensions of *instructional language* (the findings relevant to the audio-recorded data from Cohort Two are given in Chapter 7, and to the related written assignments in Chapter 8).

In the final phase of my study (henceforth Phase Three), interpretive research was carried out, using a third cohort of Trainees (henceforth Cohort Three). This phase involved a workshop in which the findings from the first

two research phases were shared with the participants from Cohort Three. They were used by participants in Cohort Three as a basis for written assignments, and these were later scrutinised.

At the end of the final phase of my study, three categories of *instructional language* were identified, and their significance in the setting up of language learning activities was revealed (the findings relevant to Cohort Three are given in Chapter 8, and practical suggestions for using the overall results of the study in Teacher Education are given in Chapter 9).

Having previewed the framework within which I shall be reporting on my study, I now proceed to Chapter 2, where I set my research in context by discussing the relevance of two prevalent research paradigms: the scientific, or *quantitative*; and the pluralistic, or *qualitative*.

Figure 1.8.2 Metaphor Map (General)

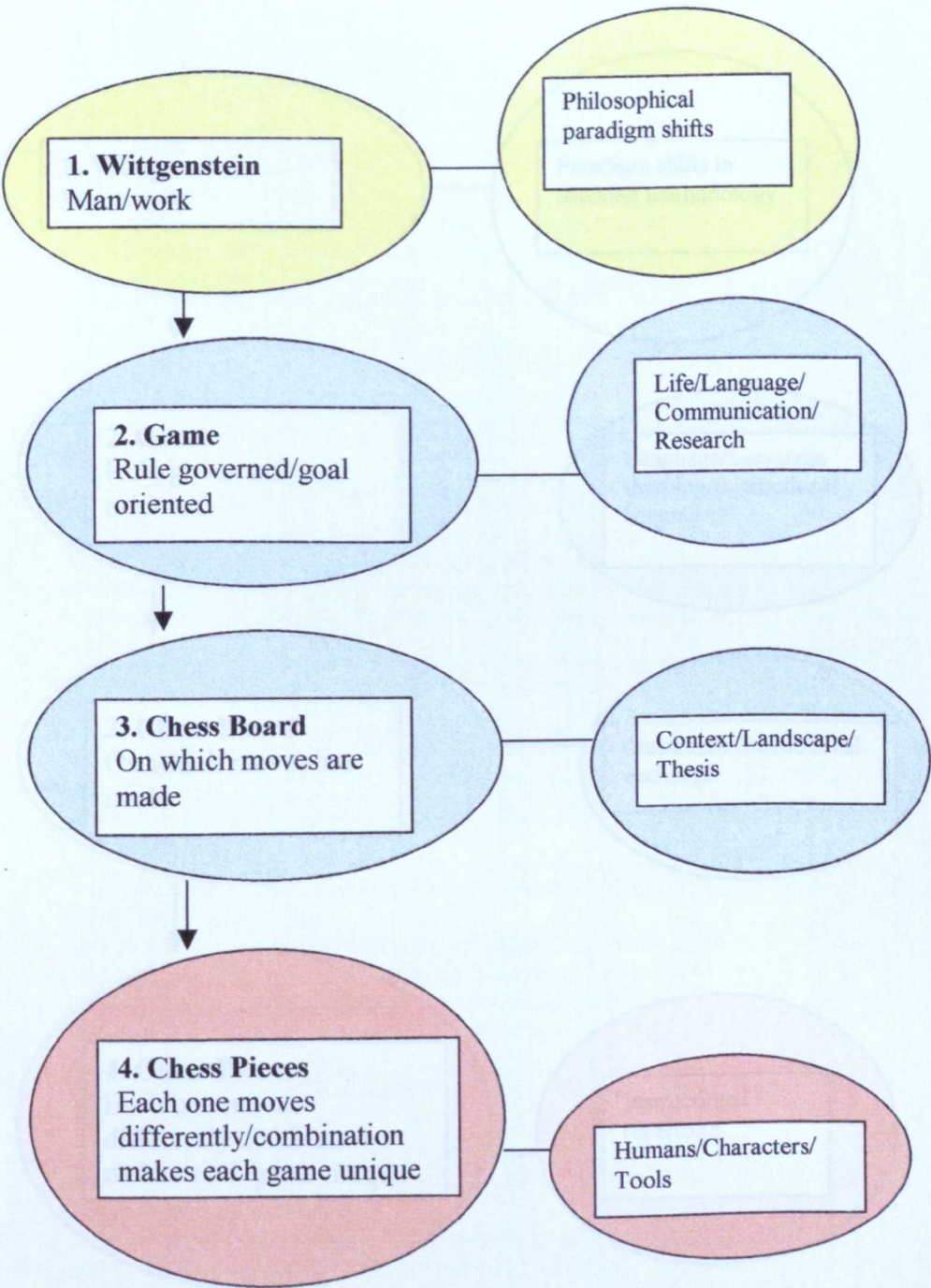


Figure 1.8.3 Metaphor Map (Thesis Specific)

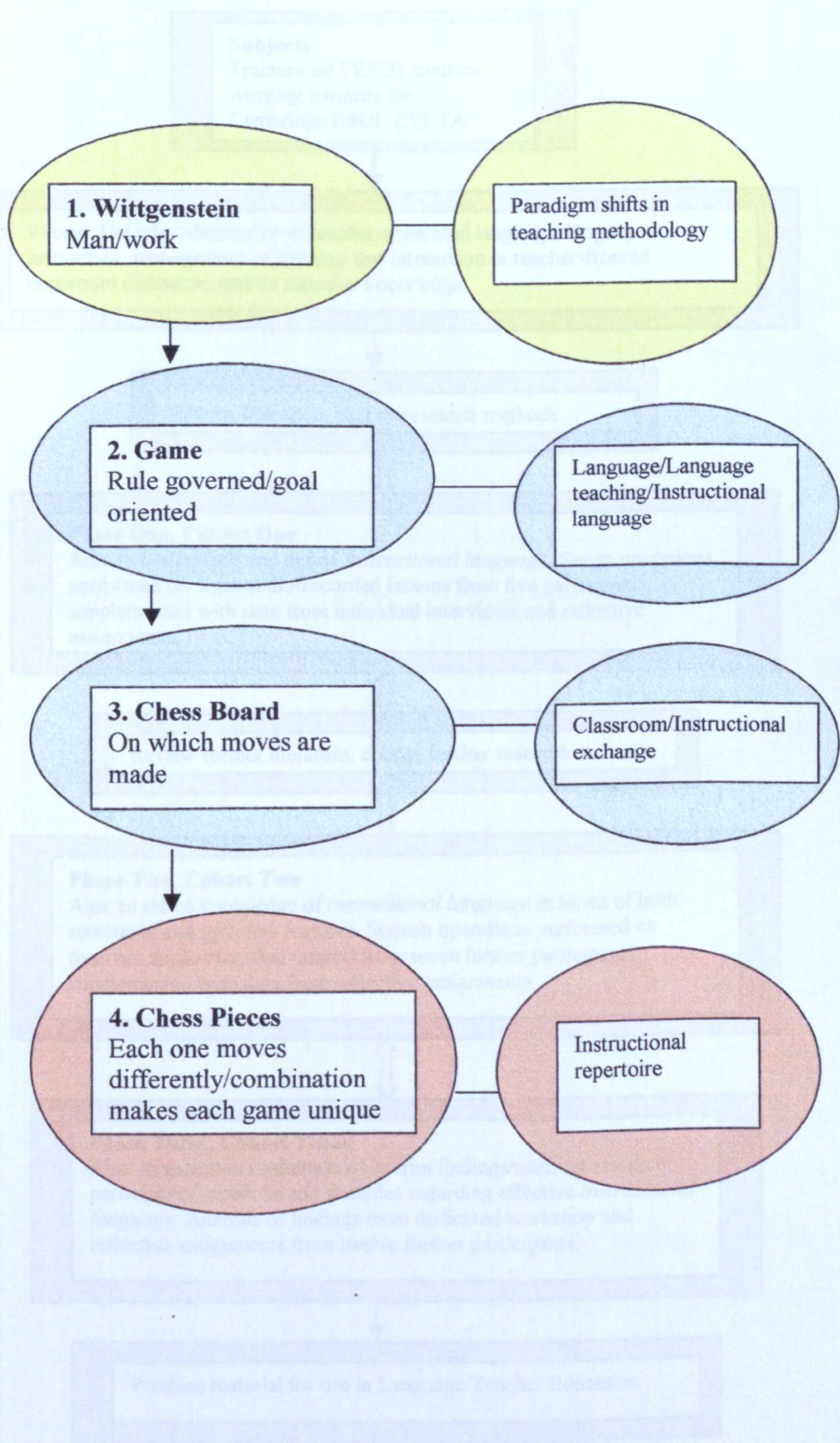
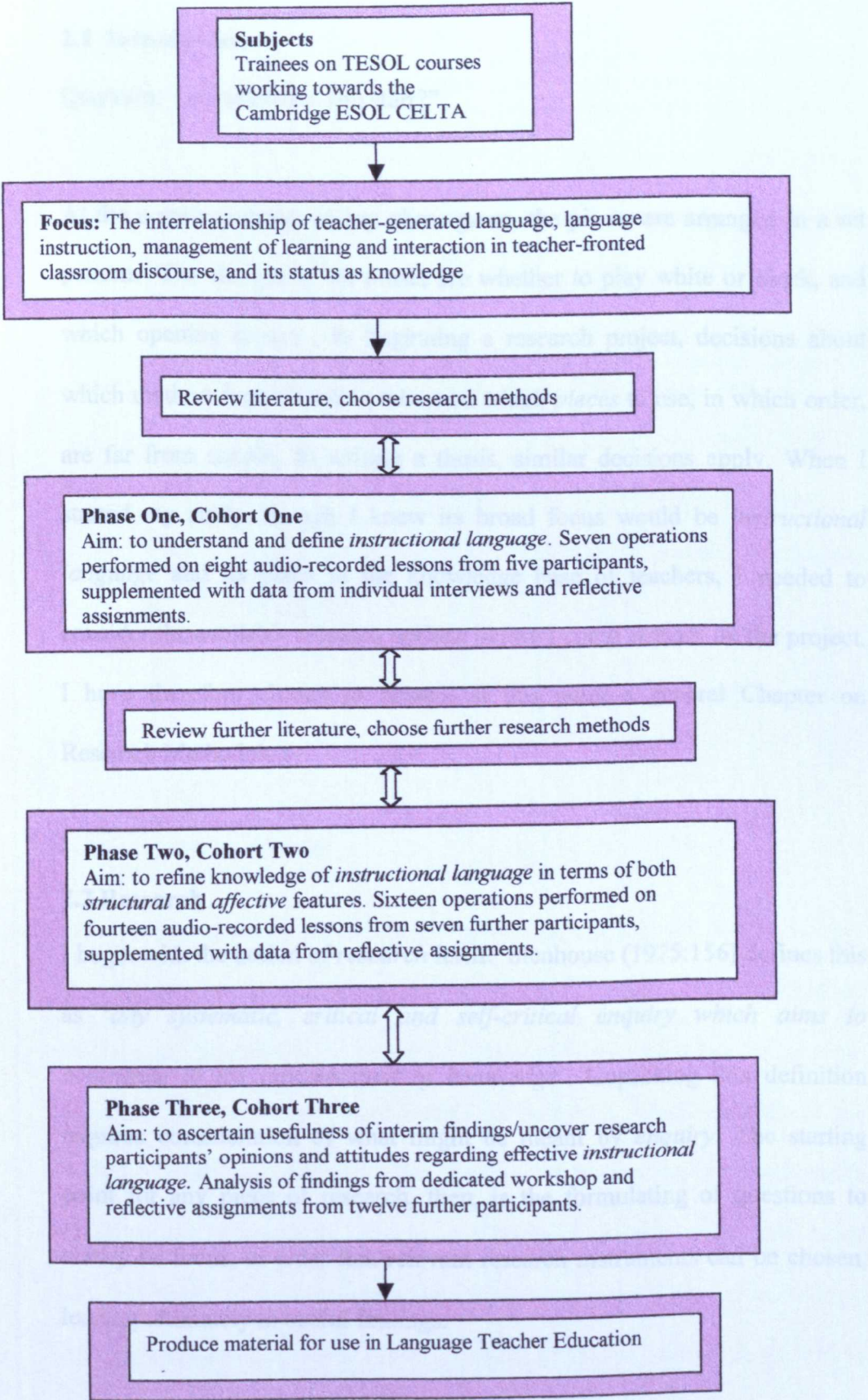


Figure 1.9.1 Summary Research Framework



CHAPTER 2: THE STARTING POSITIONS

2.1 Introduction

Question: “So where do you start?”

At the commencement of any chess game, the pieces are arranged in a set pattern. The choices at the outset are whether to play white or black, and which opening to use. In beginning a research project, decisions about which methodological *side* to take, and which *pieces* to use, in which order, are far from simple. In writing a thesis, similar decisions apply. When I started my study, though I knew its broad focus would be *instructional language* and its place in the knowledge base of teachers, I needed to consider the available research options before I could embark on the project. I have therefore chosen to present at this point a general Chapter on Research Methodology.

2.2 Research

I begin with the notion of *research* itself. Stenhouse (1975:156) defines this as ‘*any systematic, critical and self-critical enquiry which aims to contribute to the advancement of knowledge*’. Unpacking this definition requires consideration of what might be meant by *enquiry*. The starting point for any piece of research, then, is the formulating of questions to clarify its focus, in order that relevant research instruments can be chosen, leading ultimately to useful findings.

Questions are at the heart of philosophy: Bertrand Russell, Wittgenstein's mentor, ended his *Problems of Philosophy* by writing:

Philosophy is to be studied, not for the sake of any definite answers to its questions, since no definite answers can, as a rule, be known to be true, but rather for the sake of the questions themselves; because these questions enlarge our conception of what is possible.

(Russell, 1912,1991, p.94)

Wittgenstein, too, put questions at the heart of his teaching, as Malcolm (2001) testifies:

The exposition usually led to a question, to which the audience were supposed to suggest an answer. The answers in turn became starting points ...leading to new questions.

(Malcolm, 2001, p.15)

Following Wittgenstein's example, I begin with the following questions:

- What kinds of questions is it appropriate for a Teacher/Researcher like myself to ask?
- What is the nature of the knowledge to be gained from finding answers to such questions?

2.3 Knowledge Creation

Educational Research situates itself within the tradition of Social Science Research, i.e. one that has behaviour as its domain: Blaikie (1993:4) defines its role as '*exploring, describing, understanding, explaining, predicting, changing or evaluating*' some social phenomenon. Most research in the Social Sciences is *empirical*: this means that it uses broadly *observable* evidence and information, or *data*. In Chapter 1, Section 1.1, I introduced the dichotomy of *self* and *other* in my discussion of types of *knowledge*. Speaking of *other*, Richards (1998:65) has said that if teaching is viewed as

a science, investigative methods should be the source of valid principles of teaching, whilst, if teaching is viewed as accumulated craft knowledge, the study of the practices of expert practitioners should be used as data for a theory of teaching. Taking the *self* position, Stenhouse's (1975:143) notion of Teacher/Researcher, for whom '*each classroom is a laboratory, each teacher a member of the scientific community*' is a relevant one, and so is Elliott's (1991a) view that Teacher/Researchers need not pursue a goal of producing *new knowledge* that gets nearer *truth*, but instead should aim to *improve practice*. In Education, research into classroom practice has been referred to generally as *classroom research* (Van Lier, 1994, 1999), or more specifically as *action research* (Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Winter, 1989; Elliott, 1991b; Altrichter et al, 1993; Bresler, 1995; Kember, 2000): a kind of inquiry that is designed by teachers for a particular classroom context, and concerned with changes relevant to teaching. Elliott (1991b:69) defines Action Research as '*the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it*'. Thus, Educationalists have widened the notion of research to include the improvement of practice as well as the production of knowledge (Foster, 1999, in Pring, 2001: 137). (The personal position I have taken on my research is set out in detail in Chapter 4, Sections 4.7 and 4.8).

Hargreaves (1998:21) writes about two ways of creating knowledge, labelled *Mode 1* and *Mode 2* (after Gibbons et al., 1994). *Mode 1* is described as '*university based, pure, disciplinary, homogeneous, expert led, supply driven, hierarchical, and peer reviewed*'. *Mode 2* on the other hand is not created in universities and then applied outside, but actually '*evolves*

within the context of its application, out in the real world. Hargreaves feels that teachers trust other teachers' views of what goes on in classrooms, and he believes strongly that Educational Research should be evidence based. He suggests the following practical ways of creating knowledge:

- *Identify a set of core practices relating to teacher effectiveness;*
- *Investigate which of these classroom practices work better than others;*
- *Specify the conditions under which the practices work better than others;*
- *Clarify the modifications needed for teachers to adapt the practices to particular circumstances.*

(Hargreaves, 1998, p.34)

My own research is situated within the Mode 2 frame, as it seeks to identify knowledge in terms of a set of core practices that can be disseminated and tried out in other similar teaching situations.

2.4 Reality

If research, by the definition I have given, is for the *advancement of knowledge*, then it is customary in such a context to talk about *epistemology* and *ontology*. The former is the term used to refer to how we come to know about reality. The latter is the term used to express a stage of thinking that has to come before epistemology; namely, of knowing what reality actually consists of (Barnhart, 1988). Differing views on the nature of reality are reflections of different research traditions and different practices. Guba and Lincoln (1989:12), for example, talk about a *first generation* view of research where the ontology relates to an objective reality '*driven by immutable natural laws*' and to a corresponding epistemology that sees a

separation between observer and observed, such that the observer can be objective and stand apart from what is being researched. Action research is one of the approaches which, according to Griffiths (1995:79), challenge this type of epistemology, by recognising that knowledge production is social in character: reality is not objective but is constructed in specific contexts. Accordingly, research findings are not classed as facts, but are *constructions* involving both observer and observed (Lopez and Potter, 2001). These two broad differences in the way of conceiving reality have given rise to two paradigms for research methodology: the *quantitative* and the *qualitative* (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). As Punch (1998:2) relates, the traditional dominance of quantitative methods in empirical research came to be challenged during a prolonged quantitative-qualitative debate, often referred to as the *paradigm wars*. In my own study, I have refigured this opposition into a *both ... and* frame, by modifying and combining methods to address the particular problem to be studied.

The follower of Wittgenstein and of Logical Positivism, A.J. Ayer (1956), lists some of the sorts of questions that philosophers ask:

- *Is it necessary to distinguish between the sorts of things that can be known directly and those that can be known only indirectly? And, if so, what are the relationships between them?*
- *In what ways can we justify our claims to knowledge?*
- *In what do the processes of justifying them consist?*
- *Can it be assumed that without a basis of certainty all our claims to knowledge must be suspect?*
- *Is one conceded the right to be sure when one is judged to have taken every reasonable step towards making sure? And is this still logically consistent with one's being in error?*

(Ayer, 1956, pp.8-10;41-43.)

Ayer's questions have relevance to any research study, in terms of what is legitimate knowledge to pursue, how it can be used, what kinds of evidence to gather and by what means, and what claims to make about the status of the knowledge gained. How I answer these questions depends on where I choose to position myself in terms of the quantitative/qualitative divide. I shall use as convenient labels *positivism* and *postmodernism* as umbrella terms within which to discuss the quantitative and qualitative paradigms, respectively.

2.5 Quantity

Pring (2000:91) takes *positivism*, after August Comte, to denote '*what is clear, factual and open to observation*'. Positivism has been described as a '*slippery and emotive term*' (Silverman, 2001) whose use has been extended from the Pure Sciences to the Social Sciences, implying that one can study animate objects in the same way as inanimate ones. In the objective, quantitative type of study, researchers use numbers, generated by counting or scaling, to measure the variables concerned. Bryman (1988) gives examples of typical research methods for the quantitative paradigm: these include surveying large random samples of people using fixed choice questionnaires; analysing the content of texts using categories decided in advance; carrying out experiments; and analysing official statistics. In experimental research, phenomena are typically studied in controlled environments such as laboratories, so that variables can be manipulated. In this tradition, only public, outer, observable phenomena are studied. Any

hypotheses are formulated in advance, and tested empirically. The advantages of quantitative approaches are said to be that they generate large amounts of data, measure them precisely, and are representative of the population as a whole. The data can moreover be analysed relatively quickly, according to pre-planned categories.

2.6 Quality

Pring (2000:91) discusses qualitative approaches using the term, *postmodernism*, with reference to its founder, Jean-Francois Lyotard (1984), who questioned the notion of a complete and scientific explanation of reality. As Hargreaves (1994:40) points out, *postmodernism* is an extreme position, which in a narrow interpretation suggests that '*verifiable evidence and knowable truth do not exist*'. Since such a view rejects any foundational knowledge, Hargreaves therefore prefers the term, *postmodernity*. However, I have retained *postmodernism* as my preferred term, since it is commonly used in the research literature where multiple truths and a variety of interpretative positions are involved. Researchers in this tradition prefer to discover what is *useful* rather than true, and work with verbal or visual, rather than numerical, data.

Silverman (2001) gives four broad categorisations of methods that fit into the qualitative paradigm. I list them here, since I use them all in my study:

- *detailed observation and description;*
- *textual analysis using categories that emerge during the analytical process;*

- *relatively unstructured or open ended interviews;*
- *analysis of transcribed audio or videotaped recordings.*

(Silverman, 2001, p.11)

Methods within the qualitative paradigm treat describing and understanding as legitimate purposes for research, and allow for theories that evolve after data collection, during the process of sifting and analysing. A major concern is to explore *naturalistic* data (Allwright and Bailey,1991; Kincheloe, 1991; Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Hammersley, 1992; Miles and Huberman,1994; Burns,1999): this means that qualitative studies typically treat a small number of cases, in depth, with all variables intact, in the contexts in which they normally occur. Several methods may be used, or several viewpoints may be sought, as secondary data, to illuminate the primary data. My own research fits into this description.

2.7 Dichotomies and Continua

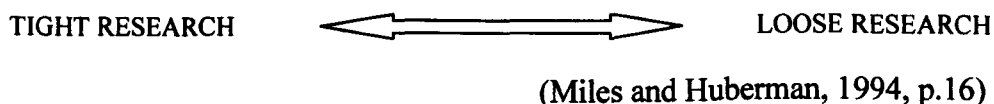
Differences between the research paradigms are given in Figure 2.7.1. In considering such differences, Bateson (1972, 1979) conveys in essence the difficulty inherent in Social Science research. Using the analogy of Alice, who, in *Wonderland*, plays a game of croquet with a hedgehog ball and a flamingo mallet, both of them sources of energy, he shows the unpredictable consequences of interaction for living systems: these cannot function according to mechanical rules, but do so as a result of what Bateson calls *collateral energy*. Classrooms are full of collateral energy and it follows that they need alternative investigative methods to those of pure science.

Figure 2.7.1 Summary of research paradigm differences

QUANTITATIVE PARADIGM	QUALITATIVE PARADIGM
Seeks objective view	Holds that views are always subjective
Uses numerical data	Uses data in words or images
Seeks one, unified reality	Seeks one or more multiple realities
Seeks truth, or at least proven tendency	Seeks usefulness
Legitimizes only what is observable	Legitimizes interpretation and description
Studies public, outer reality	May seek to reveal private, inner reality
Formulates prior hypotheses	Hypotheses emerge from data analysis
Involves research out of context	Involves research in naturalistic settings
Uses large randomised samples	Studies small numbers of cases

There is moreover a danger that, in considering these paradigms as fixed, a method might be chosen to fit the paradigm, rather than to fit the research goal. This is a state of affairs that Janesick (1994) calls *methodolatry*. Rather than seeing them in *black and white* terms, then, quantitative and qualitative can be seen as two ends of a continuum from ‘*tight*’ to ‘*loose*’ (Miles and Huberman, 1994) as shown in Figure 2.7.2:

Figure 2.7.2 Tight and Loose Research



At the tight end is research where the hypothesis is specified in advance, the design tightly structured, and categories pre-planned. At the loose end is research where advance planning is reduced to a vaguely defined problem or

puzzle, where the design is loosely structured, and where categories emerge from the data itself. The latter fits my own case.

In discussing the differences between the two paradigms, Wolcott (1990) distinguishes between *theory first* and *theory after* research. I have an ambiguous stance towards theory generation, as my intention is to describe rather than theorise. I shall come to this point again in Chapter 4 (Sections 4.7 and 4.8), when I discuss my own *criticality* and *identity* within this study. Methodologically, though, in *theory first* research, the theory is there at the outset, a hypothesis is formed from it, and a study is set up to test the hypothesis; in *theory after* research, the theory is generated from the systematic analysis of the data collected. The latter type of research was advocated by Glaser and Strauss (Glaser and Strauss, 1965, 1967, 1968; Glaser, 1978, 1992, 1993, 1994; Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990; 1997). Grounded Theory, as this is called, relates to a methodology both for research and for data analysis. The basic steps in this approach are the ones I have adopted in my own research. They are (my summary):

- Pose some initial research problems;
- Collect a first, small, set of data;
- Analyse the data;
- Collect a second set of data, guided by directions suggested through analysis;
- Analyse more data, until *saturation*, i.e. until new data only confirms existing knowledge.

In Grounded Theory, literature is often seen as further data to be fed into the analysis, as research directions become clear. For this reason, some of the relevant literature may need to be reviewed quite late in the research process, as in my case (see Chapter 6).

Bearing all the foregoing in mind, and considering my own context of investigating aspects of teacher-generated *instructional language*, my research sits within the qualitative paradigm, amongst whose common features Miles and Huberman (1994) list:

- *An intense and/or prolonged contact with a typically 'banal' 'field' or life situation;*
- *A research role designed to gain a 'holistic' overview of the explicit and implicit rules of the context under study;*
- *A design with researcher as the main 'measurement device' at the outset;*
- *An analysis of words, organised to permit the researcher to contrast, compare, analyse and bestow patterns upon them.*

(Miles and Huberman, 1994, pp.6-7, my adaptation)

2.8 Rigour and Case

I plan to study a TESOL course in depth, as my *case* (see Section 2.10). In Stake's (1995) terms, mine is an *instrumental case study*, i.e. I am studying this case in order to gain insight into an issue.

An important factor in making any claim to knowledge is the amount and quality of the evidence a researcher can bring, and whether this has been

collected and analysed rigorously. For example, my definition of *research* (see Section 2.2) included the term, *systematic*. This entails (Merriam-Webster, 2004) ‘*a coherent body of ideas or principles*’, or ‘*a piece of work that is methodical in procedure*’. Quantitative researchers set much store by whether the study is capable of being reproduced by other researchers with similar results (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:46; Punch, 1998:99). Since most qualitative research, like mine, relies on case study and is context dependent, reliability in these terms would be difficult to achieve. *Validity* concerns such matters as whether the interpretation of the data is adequate, whether the research outcome is a true reflection of what was studied, and whether the account of the research is complete and thorough (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Punch, 1998). Ellis (1997:93) sums up the problem of creating a balance between reliability and validity in Educational Research by stating that the more variables are controlled and studied scientifically, the more removed they are from their natural classroom contexts, and consequently the less valid or relevant is the research to teachers’ lives. I have chosen to investigate phenomena that I encounter daily in my work as a Language Teacher Educator, in the natural context in which they occur.

2.9 Generalisability

Generalisability is concerned with ‘*the extent to which the results of a study can be applied to other settings*’ (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). Some researchers (e.g. Low, in Cameron and Low, 1999:58) hold the view that only quantitative research can claim to be generalisable, because of its large datasets, and because of the statistics that can be generated from them.

Qualitative research, by its intimate nature, cannot claim generality outside its local context: its results are at best '*grossly observable*' or '*strikingly apparent*' (Sacks et al, 1974; Drew and Holt, 1988). I am aware of the limitations of my own research as only '*one of a number of possible representations*' of social reality (Bryman, 2001:276). Moreover, in case studies, limitations result from the fact that data cannot normally be randomly selected: this is so in my situation, where a sample of convenience was used. The issue of generalisability in qualitative research has been addressed by Denzin (1970; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000), who coined the term *triangulation* to denote multiple data collection methods that provide various perspectives on a single case. I have used *investigator triangulation*, i.e. more than one observer; and *methodological triangulation*, i.e. the same method to investigate different situations or different methods to examine the same situation (from Denzin's typology, cited in Cohen and Manion, 1994:234-236). Triangulation may additionally involve taking research findings back to the participants of the study for further comment. I have incorporated triangulation into my research study by using a variety of data sources and research tools, and by disseminating findings for comment. (See Chapter 4 for further discussion of issues of validity, reliability and practicality in my case).

2.10 Making a Choice

Critics of qualitative research often accuse it of being anecdotal (Bryman, 1988:77) or based on common sense (Silverman 2001:280). However, the use of case studies has been justified by referring to their importance for

training business, medicine and law professionals (Punch, 1998:155, 192). As Pring (2000:43) notes, all situations are unique in some aspects but not in others: in my situation, the case comprises participants following an initial ESOL (CELTA) Teacher Education Course and is therefore both unique and typical of other CELTA courses worldwide.

A mixing of both my Research Paradigm 1 (quantitative) and Research Paradigm 2 (qualitative) methods can address problems of reliability and validity (Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Robson, 1993; Cohen and Manion, 1997;Wallace, 1998). In Chapter 1 (Section 1.4), I mentioned the usefulness of the NLP technique of *reframing* from an *either ... or* to a *both ... and* perspective. In my research I have done this by combining quantitative and qualitative methods. With regard to *reframing* in research terms, a relevant exercise has been carried out by Block (1999), who refers to quantitative and qualitative in terms of *monotheistic* and *polytheistic* paradigms. Block states that social science is often presented in a deprecating way (see Fig.2.10.1). The suggestion is that these ideas can be reworked into a polytheistic frame (Fig. 2.10.2).

Figure 2.10.1 Monotheistic Frame

SITUATION	MONOTHEISTIC FRAME
Multiple theories coexist	This is a sign of immaturity: true sciences do not function in this way
Multiple criteria for evaluating theories coexist	This is irrational and leads to anarchy: there must be criteria for deciding that one theory is more valid than another
Few replication studies are possible, as studies are done in local contexts	This does not move the field any closer to the truth, since no facts or proofs can be accumulated

(Block, 1999, p.144, my adaptation)

Figure 2.10.2 Polytheistic Frame

SITUATION	POLYTHEISTIC FRAME
Multiple theories coexist	Multiple perspectives are equally valid and not mutually exclusive
Multiple criteria for evaluating theories coexist	Categories such as true/false, correct/incorrect, black/white do not exist
Few replication studies are possible, as studies are done in local contexts	Diversity, plurality, complexity, context cannot be made uniform

(Block, 1999, pp. 145-148, my adaptation and extension)

I too incline to a frame that is tolerant of alternative opinions and perspectives on reality. My own study will be based on a case in my place of work, and will use textual analysis, lesson observation, and interview-based research. All these fall within the qualitative paradigm. However, I also find it appropriate to use numerical data from coded categorisations of observational and documentary data (Punch, 1998:153). I shall give fuller details of the purpose, design and use of these instruments in Chapter 4. For now, I include a tabulated summary of the intended data sources in my case (Fig. 2.10.3):

Figure 2.10.3 Summary of Intended Data Sources

Primary Data	Lesson observation and description
	Transcribed audio recordings of lessons
Secondary Data	Lesson plans and lesson feedback sheets related to primary data
	Interviews
	Assignment extracts relating to primary data

2.11 Conclusion

In this Chapter, I have reframed a further dichotomy: *quantitative/qualitative*. I have categorised my own work as a Case Study within the Action Research tradition, lying within a broadly qualitative paradigm, but capable of producing some quantifiable data. The primary source is observational, with triangulation in the form of secondary sources from relevant documentation, and also by dissemination of findings to a new cohort of subjects. I have explored the notions embedded in Stenhouse's (1975) definition of research, and discussed the interconnected roles of theory and practice in creating knowledge appropriate to Teacher Education.

There is one final piece of unpacking to do in respect of Stenhouse's definition, namely to explore the meaning of the term *critical* and to see how it may apply to my position and my research. Since *criticality* is a problematic concept for me, I shall postpone it until I come to consider in detail the nature and purpose of my proposed Case Study, discuss its validation in terms of triangulation and sampling, and investigate the notion of *identity* with reference to my own stance as Teacher, Trainer and Researcher (see Chapter 4).

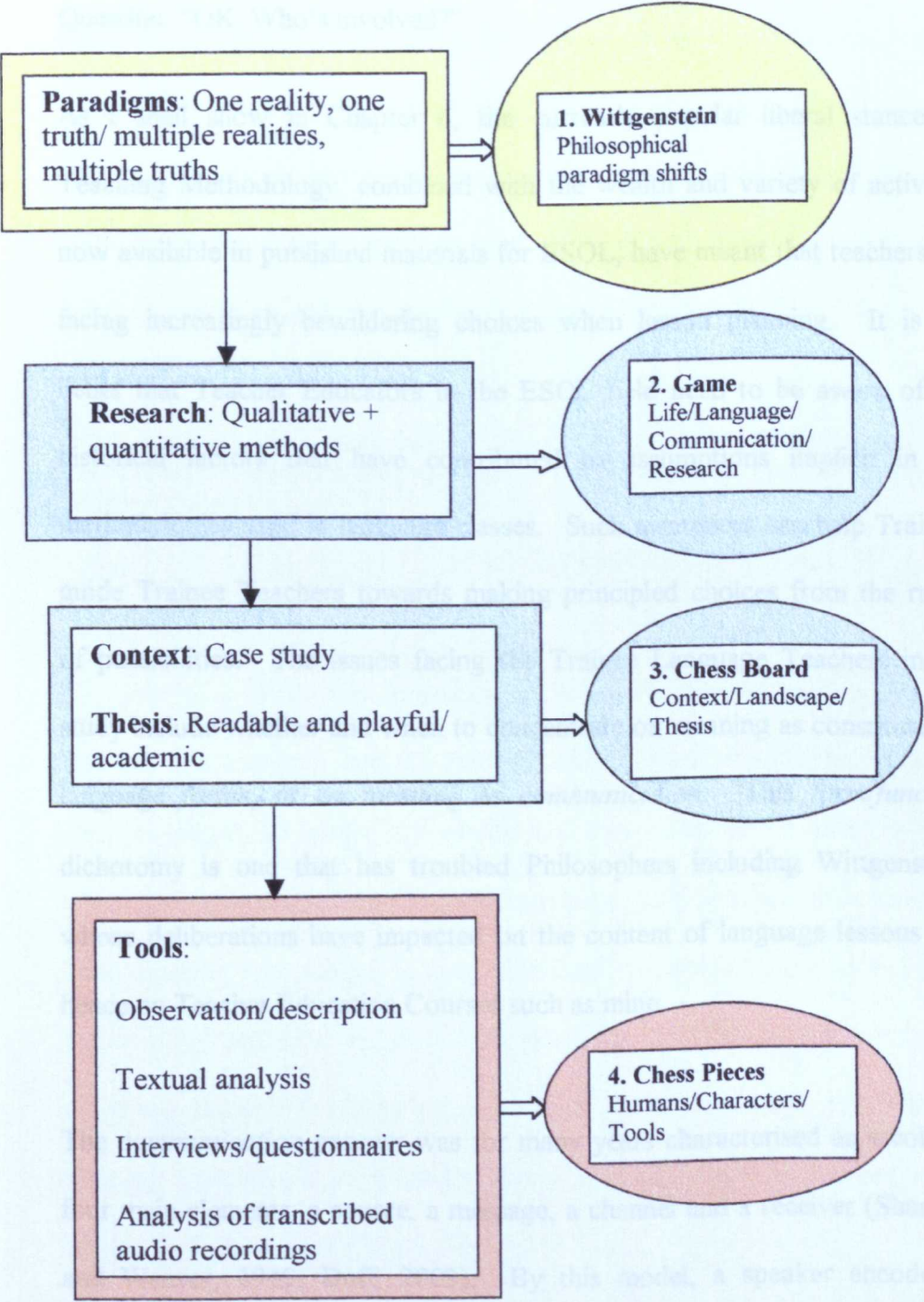
I conclude this Chapter by revisiting and extending my Metaphor Map (Fig.2.11.2), glossed and tabulated as Fig. 2.11.1. In doing so, I have been mindful of the questions from Hargreaves and Ayer (see Sections 2.3 and 2.4 above).

Figure 2.11.1 Chapter Two Metaphor Summary

1. WITTGENSTEIN
<p>Wittgenstein is the embodiment of the <i>paradigm shift</i> from positivist to postmodern, by virtue of the theory he set out in the TL and the position he later took in the PI. In the former work, truth is not visible but has to be uncovered, whereas in the PI (PI, 109): '<i>the problems are solved, not by giving new information, but by arranging what we have always known.(durch Zusammenstellung des langst Bekannten)</i>' There is talk of '<i>a perspicuous representation (ubersichtliche Darstellung)</i>' allowing us to '<i>see connections (Zusammenhange sehen)</i>' (PI,122). These ideas have resonance in the opposition between a research paradigm that is theory driven and one that can admit a descriptive type of study. I start my research process with an inclination to take a <i>grey</i>, rather than <i>black</i> or <i>white</i> position, so that methods can be combined, as dictated by research needs.</p>
2. GAME
<p><i>Language games</i> and <i>communication games</i> are central concepts in my research. As far as the <i>research game</i> goes, quantitative and qualitative paradigms have their own sets of <i>rules</i>, but it is occasionally possible to play one using rules from the other, e.g., in my case, to analyse lesson transcripts by drawing out categories, coding them and then counting them numerically. My data is partly in the form of directly observable and verifiable facts, e.g. from audio-recorded lessons, thus leaning towards the <i>quantitative</i> end of the continuum. However lessons have been observed in their natural context, from samples of convenience, and will be illuminated by interpretive data from trainee teachers and their tutors, at the <i>qualitative</i> end of the continuum. In answer to Ayer's questions, I shall be dealing with what is known directly, by observation, as well as with data that has to do with indirect knowledge. The relationship between these data sets is that they concern the same event. I can justify my claim to knowledge via triangulation. I do not claim that certainty exists, though I will seek to represent the reality of my case as I perceive it.</p>
3. CHESS BOARD
<p>The context or <i>landscape</i> of my game is a classroom-based case. In the context of my <i>thesis</i> there is the issue of choosing an appropriate voice. This is problematic for me, since I am writing for several audiences: supervisors, colleagues, trainee teachers, and also for myself. I would like my narrative to be characterised by readability and playfulness. Cook (2000:3) documents the fact that play, so common in childhood, is assumed, by adulthood, to have been '<i>replaced by the more serious and necessary aspects of adult affairs.</i>' I will need to activate a <i>both ...and</i> frame that provides an acceptable compromise.</p>
4. CHESS PIECES
<p>The <i>tools</i> I have chosen from the available categories will be used to perform sixteen operations, as I shall show in Chapters 5 and 7.</p>

In order to clarify for my reader the focus of my study, however, I now need to investigate in the literature those concepts that are of key importance to the kind of knowledge I wish to gain. I begin my exploration in Chapter 3, where I discuss aspects of Philosophy of Language, Communications, Classroom Interaction and Affect.

Fig. 2.11.2. Metaphor Map (Research)



CHAPTER 3: THE PLAYERS

3.1 Introduction

Question: “OK. Who’s involved?”

As I shall show in Chapter 6, the currently popular liberal stance on Teaching Methodology, combined with the wealth and variety of activities now available in published materials for ESOL, have meant that teachers are facing increasingly bewildering choices when lesson planning. It is my belief that Teacher Educators in the ESOL field need to be aware of the historical factors that have contributed to assumptions implicit in the methodologies used in language classes. Such awareness can help Trainers guide Trainee Teachers towards making principled choices from the range of possibilities. The issues facing the Trainee Language Teachers in my study include whether and when to concentrate on meaning as constituted in language *forms*, or on meaning as *communication*. This *form/function* dichotomy is one that has troubled Philosophers including Wittgenstein, whose deliberations have impacted on the content of language lessons and hence on Teacher Education Courses such as mine.

The *communication process* was for many years characterised as involving four main elements: a source, a message, a channel and a receiver (Shannon and Weaver, 1949; Duff, 2003). By this model, a speaker encoded a message, and transmitted it to a hearer, who decoded it. However, the linearity implicit in this model came to be criticised (Singh, 1984), and efforts were made to capture more effectively the dynamic nature of the

communication process (e.g. Dance's helical model, 1970). Although, as Mitchell and Myles admit (1996:122,142), there is currently little consensus on its role in learning, it is difficult to disagree with Dance's (1997:251) observation that *'the fundamental activity of communication, that without which there simply is no communication, is interaction'*. Bakhtin (1981; 1986) describes communication as a *chain*, in which language is *dialogic*, with each utterance embedded in a cultural and historic context. For Jaworski and Coupland, communication fits into a *game* frame:

Communication is a ritualised process which allows the participants to construct and project desirable versions of their identities, in a succession of performances targeted at specific audiences.

(Jaworski and Coupland, 1999, p.408)

The key *players* in the *language classroom communication game* are Teacher and students, and my research raises issues around the nature of *what* is taught, *to whom*, *by whom*, and *how*. The last is dealt with in Chapter 6, whilst the other three concern me here: the first, of overriding importance to the players, is *language* itself, to which I now turn. I have made it my intention to probe the relevance of Wittgenstein's work to today's Language Teaching practices, and therefore I begin this Chapter with an examination of extracts from his writings that I consider to be important in this regard.

3.2 Language and Wittgenstein's Tractatus Logico-philosophicus

According to Stroll (2002), the period between 1879 and 1913 was one of the most inventive and exciting in the history of Philosophy. Dodgson had

already written his *Alice* books in 1865 and 1872, but this period included the publication of his *Symbolic Logic Part I* (1896), his *Game of Logic* (1897), and his development of *truth tables* for solving problems of logic. Frege set out his ideas on mathematical logic in the *Begriffsschrift* of 1879, and the work was continued by Russell in *Principia Mathematica*, completed in 1913, just as Wittgenstein arrived in England. *Truth, certainty, identity and logic* exercised the minds of Philosophers in this period, and it was in this climate that the young Wittgenstein began writing his first published work, the TL. Meanwhile, between 1906 and 1911, Ferdinand de Saussure was in Geneva, giving the lectures from which the new science of Linguistics would arise. I have explored, in Chapter 2 (Sections 2.4 to 2.6), the relevance of *truth* and *certainty* to my research. Here, I discuss *identity* and *logic*, beginning with the notion of *logic* and its influence on how language has been viewed.

Philosophers have long been interested in the relationship between language, thought and reality, for which Frege's (1892) *Über Sinn und Bedeutung* (normally translated as *On Sense and Reference*) was a seminal work. Wittgenstein had read Frege, and continued the discussion, using terms (italicised in the following) now familiar to Applied Linguists. Wittgenstein wrote in the TL (4.22, 3.3, 3.31) that the simplest *proposition* (*Satz*) consists of a connection of *names* (*Name*), that a name only has *meaning* (*Bedeutung*) in the context of a proposition, and that every part of a proposition that characterizes its *sense* (*Sinn*) is an *expression* (*Ausdruck*). This expression has a *form* (*Form*) and a *content* (*Inhalt*):

Der Elementarsatz besteht aus Namen. Er ist ein Zusammenhang, eine Verkettung, von Namen....Nur der Satz hat Sinn; nur im Zusammenhange des Satzes hat ein Name Bedeutung. Jeden Teil des Satzes, der seinen Sinn charakterisiert, nenne ich einen Ausdruck. ... Der Ausdruck kennzeichnet eine Form und einen Inhalt.

The elementary proposition consists of names. It is a connexion, a concatenation, of names... Only the proposition has sense; only in the context of a proposition has a name meaning. Every part of a proposition which characterises its sense I call an expression (a symbol)...An expression characterises a form and a content.

Russell, in his introduction to Wittgenstein's TL (1922), coins the term *logical atomism* to describe the theory that Wittgenstein propounded there:

Mr Wittgenstein is concerned with the conditions for a logically perfect language. ... In a logically perfect language nothing that is not simple will have a simple symbol. The symbol for the whole will be a 'complex' containing the symbols for the parts. ... The world is fully described if all atomic facts are known, together with the fact that these are all of them.

(Russell, 1922,1981, pp.8-12)

This theory is relevant to a view of language that fits into what I am calling *Paradigm 1*, the language of *saying*, where discrete items are seen as building blocks that will ultimately combine together into the entirety of what constitutes a language. Paradigm 1 prioritises form and structure. It also extends to one approach to the training of Language Teachers, where discrete competences, taken together, make up the totality that is overall Teaching Competence. Such a set of competences is used in the recently published Department for Education and Skills/Further Education National Training Organisation Specifications for teachers of ESOL working in Britain (DfES,/FENTO 2002), with which the CELTA Assessment Criteria are harmonised (Cambridge ESOL, 2004) (see Appendices A and B).

The TL (4.002, 6.3) presents the idea that ordinary colloquial language (*Umgangssprache*) is defective, as it masks the true nature of reality; the

surface features of everyday language must be stripped away, to reveal the underlying logic of language (*Sprachlogik*). Language disguises thought (*Die Sprache verkleidet den Gedanken*), just as a body is hidden by the outer form of clothes (*der ausseren Form des Kleides*). Wittgenstein created a formal language in which complex propositions could be made from simple ones, by using logical connectives such as *and*, or *if*. For the early Wittgenstein, logic is regularity (*Gesetzmässigkeit*) and everything else is accident (*Zufall*):

Die Umgangssprache ist ein Teil des menschlichen Organismus und nicht weniger kompliziert als dieser. Es ist menschenunmöglich, die Sprachlogik aus ihr unmittelbar zu entnehmen. Die Sprache verkleidet den Gedanken. Und zwar so, dass man nach der ausseren Form des Kleides, nicht auf die Form des bekleideten Gedankens schliessen kann. ... Die Erforschung der Logik bedeutet die Erforschung aller Gesetzmässigkeit. Und ausserhalb der Logik ist alles Zufall.

Colloquial language is a part of the human organism and is not less complicated than it. From it it is humanly impossible to gather immediately the logic of language. Language disguises the thought; so that from the external form of the clothes one cannot infer the form of the thought they clothe... Logical research means the investigation of all regularity. And outside logic all is accident.

These notions again fit with the emphasis on formal language structures that characterizes my Paradigm 1. The legacy of this prioritising of formal grammatical structure permeated the theory and practice of TESOL for much of the 20th century (Chomsky 1959, 1957, 1965). Influential notions included Chomsky's *deep/surface structure* and *competence/performance* dichotomies: deep structure being the core form of a sentence, once transformations have been performed on its surface structure; competence being the underlying language knowledge of an individual, regardless of the individual's language performance at any given instance.

Paradigm 1, then, has to do with what we *say*, with how we formulate and put words together to make meaning. This is the paradigm to which I assign my analysis when it is concerned with identifying forms and seeing patterns of distribution in the language Trainee Teachers use. Logic and system continue to be important in the work of later Philosophers and Linguists, such as Halliday, Grice and Brazil. Halliday (1961, 1973, 1985) produced a linear or *systemic* grammar, based on what lies open to view rather than on what might be hidden beneath the surface. Grice (1975) developed communication *rules*, called *maxims*, based on the notion of a *co-operative principle* by which participants in a conversation collaborate to achieve a mutual goal. Brazil (1995) devised a grammar of spoken English, to include rules for phonological choices. These theorists were interested in form, but also took account of Wittgenstein's later work, which was responsible for ushering in a new paradigm relating to language in *use*: this began to make itself felt in language teaching in Britain in the mid 1970's.

3.3 Language and Wittgenstein's Philosophical Investigations

The method advocated in the PI, that awareness-raising and rule-formation are best based on the study of real examples of language in use, is fundamental to the *discourse approach* that I adopt in this thesis (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3 for a definition and discussion of this approach). In the PI, Wittgenstein exhorts us to look closely at what people do and say in their everyday life. Here, Wittgenstein states that there is no necessity to search for the essence of language: to understand a word, one has only to *look at its use (seine Anwendung ansehen)*. But the difficulty is to remove

the *prejudice* (*das Vorurteil*) that stands in the way of doing this successfully (PI, 340):

Wie ein Wort funktioniert, kann man nicht erraten. Man muss seine Anwendung ansehen und daraus lernen. Die Schwierigkeit aber ist, das Vorurteil zu beseitigen, das diesem Lernen entgegensteht.

One cannot guess how a word functions. One has to look at its use and learn from that. But the difficulty is to remove the prejudice which stands in the way of doing this.

Here in the PI, Wittgenstein recognises that there is no one-to-one correspondence between form and function. Mere *naming* (*das Benennen*) is only like attaching a *label* (*ein Namensschildchen*) to something (PI, 26). Naming is therefore not a move in the language-game any more than putting a *piece* (*Schachfigur*) in its place on the board is a move in *chess* (*Schachspiel*). We may say that nothing (*nichts*) has been done when a thing has merely been named: it has no name at all except in the context of a language-game (PI, 49). The meaning of a word is its *use* (*Gebrauch*) in the language (PI, 43):

Wie gesagt – das Benennen ist etwas Ähnliches, wie, einem Ding ein Namensschildchen anheften. ...Das Benennen ist noch gar kein Zug im Sprachspiel, – so wenig, wie das Aufstellen einer Schachfigur ein Zug im Schachspiel. Man kann sagen: Mit dem Benennen eines Dings ist noch nichts getan. Es hat auch keinen Namen, ausser im Spiel. ...Die Bedeutung eines Wortes ist sein Gebrauch in der Sprache.

To repeat – naming is something like attaching a label to a thing... Naming is so far not a move in the language game – any more than putting a piece in its place on the board is a move in chess. We may say nothing has so far been done when a thing has been named. It has not even got a name except in the language game...The meaning of a word is its use in the language.

The emphasis in the PI on function as well as form, on language as *doing* as well as *saying*, was influential in Philosophy (e.g. Austin 1962, Searle 1969). Using the analogy of a chess game being played according to different conventional forms in different countries, Searle posited that rules

for understanding a speaker's intention were inherent in language use everywhere:

I achieve the intended effect on the hearer by getting him to recognize my intention to achieve that effect, and as soon as the hearer recognises what it is my intention to achieve, it is in general achieved.

(Searle, 1969, p.43)

This perspective of language as *behaviour* was carried over to the field of TESOL, drawing on Hymes' (1972) observation that language users need *communicative*, not just *linguistic competence*, and on Wilkins' (1976) description of language in functional rather than formal terms. The way was opened for teaching approaches that were concerned with language as communication, known under the umbrella acronym CLT (see Chapter 6, Section 6.1).

What I am calling *Paradigm 2*, then, is a view of language as *saying and doing*, which prioritises language as behaviour. In my research overall, Paradigm 2 extends to Teacher Education, and is represented by a) the analysis of lesson transcripts in terms of functions that Teachers/Trainees perform through language; and b) by consideration of how separate utterances fit into the larger picture of interaction, in whole lessons. The PI acknowledges such a larger picture, and suggests that meaning is bound up with the wider context; that language forms cannot be properly understood except in relation to what goes on around them (PI 6). In carrying out the research reported in this thesis, I have been mindful of the part that context plays in what has taken place in the classes I have studied. Many researchers (e.g. Holliday, 1994; Bailey and Nunan, 1996; Coleman, 1996; McKay, 2002; Hadley, 2003a, 2003b; Phan, 2004) have noted negative

consequences of attempts to transfer teaching techniques and approaches learned in one context to another. Hadley (2003a:7), for example, argues from a position of personal experience of Japanese and North American teaching contexts, which she contrasts in terms of the notion of *power distance*, defined by Hofstede (1997:135) as '*the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally*'. In the Japanese high power distance (HPD) culture, her expected teacher role is one of '*authoritative and caring parent*'; in the North American low power distance (LPD) culture, she sees herself in the '*self-disclosing*' role of '*resourceful friend*'. The content, methods and interaction patterns planned and executed by the Trainee Teachers in my study have been chosen for adult students on a General English Language Course in the UK, and therefore may not be generalisable to other contexts.

3.4 Paradigms Exemplified

In the foregoing sections of this Chapter, I have discussed extracts from Wittgenstein that have relevance to my work and to Language Teaching in general. In my research, I explore the relationship between the paradigms represented by these two views of language, as manifested through the language uttered by my research subjects. The paradigms are exemplified in the extract from Willis (1992) given as Figure 3.4.1.

Figure 3.4.1 Willis' Inner and Outer Levels

OUTER	INNER DEPENDENT	INNER INDEPENDENT
<p>T: Ask erm Socoop, Socoop, Can you ask him? V : Er yes, er yes.</p> <p>T: Um hm. S : (pause) (proudly) I am er father of four children. T: Yes. (rising tone) T: Listen to her question, though. Say again, Say it again. V:</p> <p>T: Um hm. S : (No response) T: S:</p> <p>T: Um hm. S : (No response) T: S: T: Mmm</p>	<p>Being erm a father, Being a father.</p> <p>Yes I</p> <p>Yes I do. Yes I do. I like being a father.</p>	<p>Do you like er being a father?</p> <p>Yes, I</p> <p>Do you like er being a father?</p> <p>Do you like being a father? Do you like being a father? Yes I like being to be</p> <p>Yes I like ...being</p>

(Willis, 1992, p.172)

In the transcript, the turns are taken by the teacher, T, and two students, S and V. In Willis' terminology, an *outer discourse level* provides the framework of a lesson, and is characterised by language used to '*socialize, organise, explain and check, and generally to enable pedagogic activities to go on*'. An *inner discourse level* consists of the target forms of the language that the teacher has selected as learning goals. Once presented as target forms, '*they are devoid of their normal communicative value and are seen as samples of language*'. Within this inner discourse level, the language used can take the form of paired dialogue between students, but Willis

characterises this as being *pseudo-communication*, as opposed to the more *natural* communication (McCarthy, 1991:145) that occurs on the outer level.

A noteworthy circumstance in this extract is that Student S answers Student V's question on the outer level, responding to it as genuine communication situated within a wider context than this lesson, but the Teacher insists on returning to pseudo-interaction, in order to concentrate on the language point being taught. The Teacher is here operating within what I am calling Paradigm 1, whilst Student S is operating within Paradigm 2.

I now turn my attention to the *to whom* and *by whom* dimensions of my study, namely, *teacher* and *learners* as players in the game. In doing so, I leave consideration of the nature of language itself, in order to explore the role of talk in language acquisition.

3.5 Language, Learning and Thought

In Philosophy, beginning with Frege (1949;1960;1977), the sentence was held to be the unit containing the expression of a complete thought. Frege's position was that language is a system for expressing thought, and Chomsky (1976:56-7) is on record as endorsing this view. Whatever the relationship between thought and language, though, there remains the issue of how an individual's thoughts are communicated. For Frege, the sentence cannot be merely privately understood, but must be publicly accessible to all, and therefore there must be a core meaning, irrespective of the speaker.

Wittgenstein discusses in his works the relationship between *public* and *private* language: in PI 351, for example, he says that *pain is pain* (*Schmerzgefühl ist Schmerzgefühl*), irrespective of who has it, and however one comes to know whether one has a pain or not. Wittgenstein recognises that private language and private meaning exist, but does not regard them as significant in the language game. For Wittgenstein, *talking* and *thinking* (*Reden und Denken*) are not concepts of the same kind (*gleichartige*), although they are *closely related* (*im engsten Zusammenhang*):

'Reden' (ob laut oder im Stillen) und 'Denken' sind nicht gleichartige Begriffe; wenn auch im engsten Zusammenhang.

'Talking' (whether out loud or silently) and 'thinking' are not concepts of the same kind; even though they are in closest connexion.

(Wittgenstein PI II, 1953, 2001, p.185)

Wittgenstein's position is that attention to what occurs privately to an individual merely produces confusion. We cannot know what inner moves anyone performs. Since everything *lies open to view* (*offen daliegt*) there is nothing to explain: what is hidden is of no interest to us (PI 126):

Die Philosophie stellt eben alles bloss hin, und erklärt und folgert nichts. – Da alles offen daliegt, ist auch nichts zu erklären. Denn, was etwa verborgen ist, interessiert uns nicht.

Philosophy simply puts everything before us, and neither explains nor deduces anything. – Since everything lies open to view there is nothing to explain. For what is hidden, for example, is of no interest to us.

NLP (Dilts, 1996, 1998, 1999) takes a similar position to Wittgenstein on a speaker's utterance and its effects: the meaning of a message to the receiver is what that individual receives, irrespective of the intent of the sender. Nevertheless, in NLP, thinking can be changed as a result of the language

used to formulate the thought, since it is not only in speech but in thought that language is used (Schumacher, 2003).

The contribution of Malinowski (1923, 1999) to the debate on language and thought is that language functions other than as a means of transmission of thought: words can fulfil a purely social function in which intellectual reflection has no part. *Phatic communion*, as he termed this type of speech, is important in creating and maintaining relationships and, though it happens more frequently amongst friends than teachers and students, it can occur in institutional settings. Laver (1974), for example, recognises its use in social ritual, such as might occur at beginnings and ends of lessons.

Goffman's notion of *face* (1967;1974;1981) is also relevant in this connection: the *positive* face that seeks appreciation from others and the *negative* face that seeks to be left alone. In a classroom situation, teachers may *give* face, or they may *threaten* the face of their students.

A further pertinent perspective is Vygotsky's view that private or *inner speech* is essential for thought (Vygotsky 1939, 1962, 1978, 1987), and that this inner language is first socially constructed, then internalised. The implication for teachers is that our social interaction with our learners is not only important in itself, but can raise our students' consciousness of thought processes, thus helping them perform to a standard that they cannot reach alone. If learning to talk is important for learning to think, it follows that teachers need to foster interaction in their classrooms. Mercer (1995), in a

study of native speaker English children in instructional settings, has shown how teachers can provide such support, or *scaffolding* (Bruner, 1978), to encourage learner talk. In Mercer's data (Mercer, 2000), this is achieved through the teacher's use of features such as prompting and elicitation, confirmation, and questioning. Mercer's central thesis is that language is a tool for what he calls *interthinking*, i.e. thinking together, '*collectively making sense of experience and solving problems*' (Mercer, 2000:1). In ESOL classrooms, teachers must help their students not only to think, but to do so in a foreign language.

The *Public/Private* (or *Self/Other*) dichotomy is at the crux of the tension inherent in my own overall research goals: I want to discover public *rules* that will be a useful common code for Language Teachers, but so that future Teachers can develop these in ways that suit them as individuals. Additionally, I seek to allow Trainee Teachers the opportunity to make public the private thoughts behind the language they use in class.

3.6 Language, Learning and Interaction

In Britain, beginning with the pioneering work, *Language, the Learner and the School* (Barnes et al., 1969), the importance of language to learning was highlighted. The centrality of talk in learning also came to be recognised (Norman, 1992), so that, in British educational contexts, including ESOL, students in classes are now recognised as '*interactive learning communities*', rather than '*a captive audience for instruction*' (Britton, 1998:253).

Studies into classroom interaction have confirmed clear expectations in lessons about how many and which types of *turns* teacher and students may take (Edwards and Westgate, 1994). The Sinclair and Coulthard model (1975) for typical teacher-student *exchanges*, i.e. teacher *initiation*, followed by student *response*, followed by a (normally evaluative) teacher *follow-up* move (the IRF model), is still prevalent in formal classroom settings (see Fig. 3.4.1), although increasing use of group and pair work has led to more varied patterns of interaction. These variations result from the fact that language functions are linked to roles, which, as Corden (1992) relates, are increasingly being redefined for teachers into non-traditional ones, such as Working Group Member, Chairperson, Source, Guide, or Facilitator. Heron refers to three *modes of facilitation* (1989:16-17), all three modes being used by skilled facilitators, who move from one to another as needed:

- the *hierarchical*, in which the teacher takes all major decisions;
- the *cooperative*, in which power is shared;
- and the *autonomous*, in which students work alone, without intervention:

Writers on Second Language Teaching Methodology have also noted an increasing number of roles that Language Teachers are called upon to perform: Harmer (2001:58) lists, in addition to those already mentioned, Controller, Organiser, Prompter, Participant, Tutor, Observer, Performer, Teaching Aid, Language Model and Provider of *comprehensible input* (see below, this Section). I am interested to discover how such roles are played out verbally in my data.

In Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the amount and quality of teacher-generated talk, of many kinds and for many purposes, has been an issue of debate. Functions performed through teacher talk include amongst others checking understanding, organising classroom layout, giving instructions, providing encouragement, forming groups (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 221; Winn-Smith, 2001:12). In this connection, Ur (1996:238) gives a *hierarchy of interaction patterns*, along a cline from teacher-dominated, e.g. teacher monologue or choral drilling, to student-active, e.g. interactive student collaboration. Ellis (2003) refers to such interaction patterns as *participatory structures*, ranging from private speech to small group interaction (Fig. 3.6.1):

Figure 3.6.1 Ellis' Participatory Structures

PARTICIPATORY STRUCTURE	PROTOTYPICAL FORM OF INTERACTION
A: Individual	Intrapersonal, e.g. by means of private speech
B: Social	Interpersonal
1. Teacher-class	Teacher – Students
2. Student-class	Student – Teacher and other Students
3. Small group or pair work	Student – Student (Teacher)

(Ellis, 2003, p.263)

Much of relevance to interaction in second language classrooms can also be gained from First Language Acquisition Research, through studies of what has become known as *child directed speech* (CDS) (Gallaway and Richards, 1994; Lieven, 1994; Sokolov and Snow, 1994; Mitchell and Myles, 1998). The impact of child language acquisition studies on the TESOL field was significant in the 1980's and led to Krashen's proposition (1981, 1982, 1985) that learners acquire language when they understand messages. His view was that acquisition was facilitated through messages that are

linguistically adjusted to the language learner's level, i.e. when *input* is *comprehensible*. Cook (1997:121) cites research studies on the amount and nature of teacher talk used in foreign language classrooms, and Chaudron (1988:85) gives a list of modifications made to their normal speech patterns by teachers in language classes, including:

- Slower rate of speech;
- Longer pauses;
- Exaggerated and simplified pronunciation.

Long (1981, 1983a, 1983b, 1996), calls attention to the beneficial role of *interactional adjustments* such as the following (glosses by Pica et al., 1987:74):

- Repetitions;
- Confirmation checks, i.e. moves by which one speaker seeks confirmation of the other's preceding utterance through repetition, with rising intonation, of what was perceived to be all or part of the preceding utterance;
- Comprehension checks, i.e. moves by which one speaker attempts to determine whether the other speaker has understood a preceding message.

Schmidt (1990;1994a;1994b, 1995) argues that modified input is useful in making features of the target language salient and noticeable for learners: he feels that attending to, or *noticing* forms is necessary for input to be converted into intake. For Puchta (1999), salience can be achieved through metalinguistic commentary. I shall be looking for interactional adjustments

and strategies by which the Trainee Teachers in my data seek to make language forms salient for learners (see Chapters 5 and 7).

3.7 Language and Identity

The foregoing discussion, through its consideration of the active participants in language lessons, has expanded the notion of teacher-generated language as *saying* and as *saying and doing* to admit the underpinning contribution of *thinking* to both paradigms. However, as Freeman (1966:94) has noted, it is easy to lose sight of the *teacher* as crucially significant to what goes on in class. I therefore refer next to personal and social factors affecting positive conditions for learning that can be manifested through talk.

In Section 3.3, I introduced the notion of *naming* as being of the utmost importance in Philosophy. As Gardner (2001: 186-7) relates, Carroll's Alice was prone to forgetting her name: to have a name is to have *identity* and value or meaning. The first steps after collecting my data, for example, are to categorise and name the features I discover from my data analysis, and to attach meanings to these names. *Personal* and *social identities* (Wetherell, 1996; Elliott, 2001; Keenan, 2004) are also of relevance to my research, as classrooms are social groups within which these types of identity are played out. Like Giddens (1991), I see identity as a process, not a state, and the classroom as part of this process, where complex relationships between identity, interaction and acquisition are achieved. Classrooms therefore possess a powerful emotional dimension (Goleman, 1995; Pierce, 1995; Willett, 1996) that I wish to investigate in my data.

3.8 Effective Affective Learning

The emotional, or *affective*, dimension of language in Language Teaching is one that is receiving increasing recognition. This has been researched by Dornyei (2001:137-144), for whom creating a personal relationship with students and a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom are basic motivational conditions for learning, and for whom providing regular encouragement is a condition for maintaining motivation, once established.

Affect has been defined (Arnold, 1999:i) as ‘*aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour.*’ Arnold dates interest in affect as arising from Humanistic Psychology in the 1960’s (Rogers, 1969; 1975) and from John Heron’s Human Potential project (Heron, 1989, 1990, 1992). Affect has recently received additional interest arising from Neuroscience, which can now reveal brain processes involved in language use, through the use of imaging techniques. My own interest in affect dates from 1985, when I joined the Society for Effective Affective Learning (SEAL)(SEAL, 2004). Through this professional organisation, whose members are drawn from a variety of fields, including Medicine, Psychotherapy and Business, I learned about a number of alternative ways of thinking, saying and doing, which, over the years, have come to permeate my ways of teaching and training. These include Transactional Analysis (TA) and NLP (see Norman, 2003a for an overview).

3.9 Transactional Analysis and Neuro-Linguistic Programming

TA (Berne 1966, 1967, 1975) is a wide-ranging set of theories and techniques for developing human potential, whose relevance to interaction in language classrooms has only recently been fully recognised (Rees, 2003; Reece and Walker, 2003:285). Its underlying philosophy of self and mutual respect, set out clearly in Harris (1973) needs to be *lived* by whoever practises it. As Hay (1996: 19-20) states, '*an approach can only be as effective as the person using it. The singer is not the song.*' One concept from TA that is relevant to teacher-learner interaction and to my research is *strokes*: a stroke (Hay, 1996: 149-151) is *a unit of recognition of another human being*. Any form of interaction is a stroke: complimentary remarks and acknowledgement of opinions are strokes, for example. Not all Language Teaching professionals are convinced of the role of positive evaluative comment by teachers. A tenet of Gattegno's Silent Way method, for example, is that teachers should refrain from praise, so that their learners may develop their own inner criteria for success (Gattegno, 1972, 1976; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Though I do not share this view, I do acknowledge a role for negative feedback, as revealed by SLA research, for example through error correction techniques (Oliver, 2000). However, I do not see this as incompatible with positive evaluative comment. Strokes will be investigated in my study as they are revealed through the language used by my Teacher Trainee subjects (see also Goffman's notion of *face*, Section 3.5, above).

NLP (Bandler and Grinder, 1975,1976) has its roots in the anthropological and sociological tradition that has been influential in the fields of Communication Studies and Discourse Studies. It, too, has to be *lived*, not merely *used* (Bolstad and Hamblett, 1997, Puchta, 1999). NLP is described by Dilts (1999) thus:

The functioning of our nervous system (neuro) is intimately tied up with our capability for language (linguistic). The strategies (programs) through which we organize and guide our behaviour are made up of neurological and verbal patterns.

(Dilts, 1999, p.6)

NLP Practitioners first work on themselves, intra-personally. In this way, the development from learning about and using the tools towards internalising them and *living* them in teaching can take several years, as in my own case. One of the principles of NLP that has a bearing on my research is, '*the map is not the territory*', i.e. that each individual's version of reality is different from anyone else's (Dilts 1996, 1998, 1999; Revell and Norman, 1997; Schumacher, 2003). NLP has impacted most on the fields of Medicine and Business, but it has recently been recognised in TESOL with the publication of Millrood's paper on the role of NLP in teacher talk (Millrood, 2004). Some of the NLP principles and practices that I shall be looking for in my data are:

- *Rapport*, i.e. creating a positive relationship with others. This can be evidenced verbally by the NLP technique of *getting to yes*, for example by asking a series of questions to which students can only respond positively. In this way, Teachers can move from a *Learner-resist Zone* to *Teacher-learner Congruence*, which in Millrood's terms constitutes a move from '*the R-zone*' to '*the C-zone*' (Millrood,

2004:30). *Calibration*, or recognising individual differences and using them, e.g. saying to a student, '*You have a good ear – you can try learning these words by saying them aloud to yourself*', and *Anchoring*, or reinforcing success, e.g. telling a student, '*I enjoyed reading your essay*' are other NLP tools that relate to rapport. The latter two notions involve praise, which I shall be exploring in my study as part of my investigation into rapport;

- *Reframing*, i.e. changing the borders or constraints that frame experience, in order to change perspective. The notion of *frame* in NLP comes from the field of anthropology (Bateson, 1972). Kendon (1999) writes about notions of *relevant* and *non-relevant action* within a given frame. I shall be looking at what might be relevant or not within the *lesson frames* used by the Trainees in my study;
- *Pacing*, i.e. the process of acknowledging, using and feeding back verbal cues, in order to achieve rapport. An example would be joining in students' conversation at the beginning of a lesson and gradually bringing students round to the lesson focus by taking on others' *voices* for positive affect (see also Lillis, 2001). The classroom is a place where both learners and Teachers in Training can experiment with appropriating other voices, prior to finding a voice of their own (Wertsch et al, 1995; Scollon et al, 1998).
- *Meta communication*, i.e. a statement that sets a framework in the form of rules or expectations, e.g. '*I'm going to be talking about ...*', or '*this is what I want you to do...*'. Meta communication figures highly in the communication patterns Dilts (1996) observed in his

research on effective leaders. *Meta modelling* is a related notion of offering *strategies* by which goals can be achieved, and will be suggested as a suitable Teacher Training tool in Chapter 8.

I have referred earlier (in Chapter 1, Section 1.2) to Wittgenstein's love of jokes and to Carroll's linguistic playfulness. It has been suggested (Des Fountain, 1994; Cook, 1997; Carter and McCarthy, 2003; Ellis, 2003) that creativity and playfulness are currently underexploited in language classes. NLP has *playfulness* as one of the three components that are essential for balanced functioning (Dilts and Gilligan, 2003). In TA, brainstorming is a form of play, and joint laughter is considered a strong contributor of strokes (Hay, 1996). Both are evident in my data. Playful repartee between teacher and students may be difficult for Initial Teacher Trainees to achieve, especially during observed Teaching Practice. Nevertheless instances of playfulness, as evidenced through teacher-generated language in my classroom data, are noted in Chapters 8 and 9. Playfulness is an aspect of personal knowledge that is part of a teacher's *being* (Arnold and Douglas Brown, 1999; Griggs, 1996; Taylor, 2000, 2004a; van Lier, 1999). The teachability of *being* is something I shall come back to in Chapter 8 (Section 8.8).

3.10 Conclusion

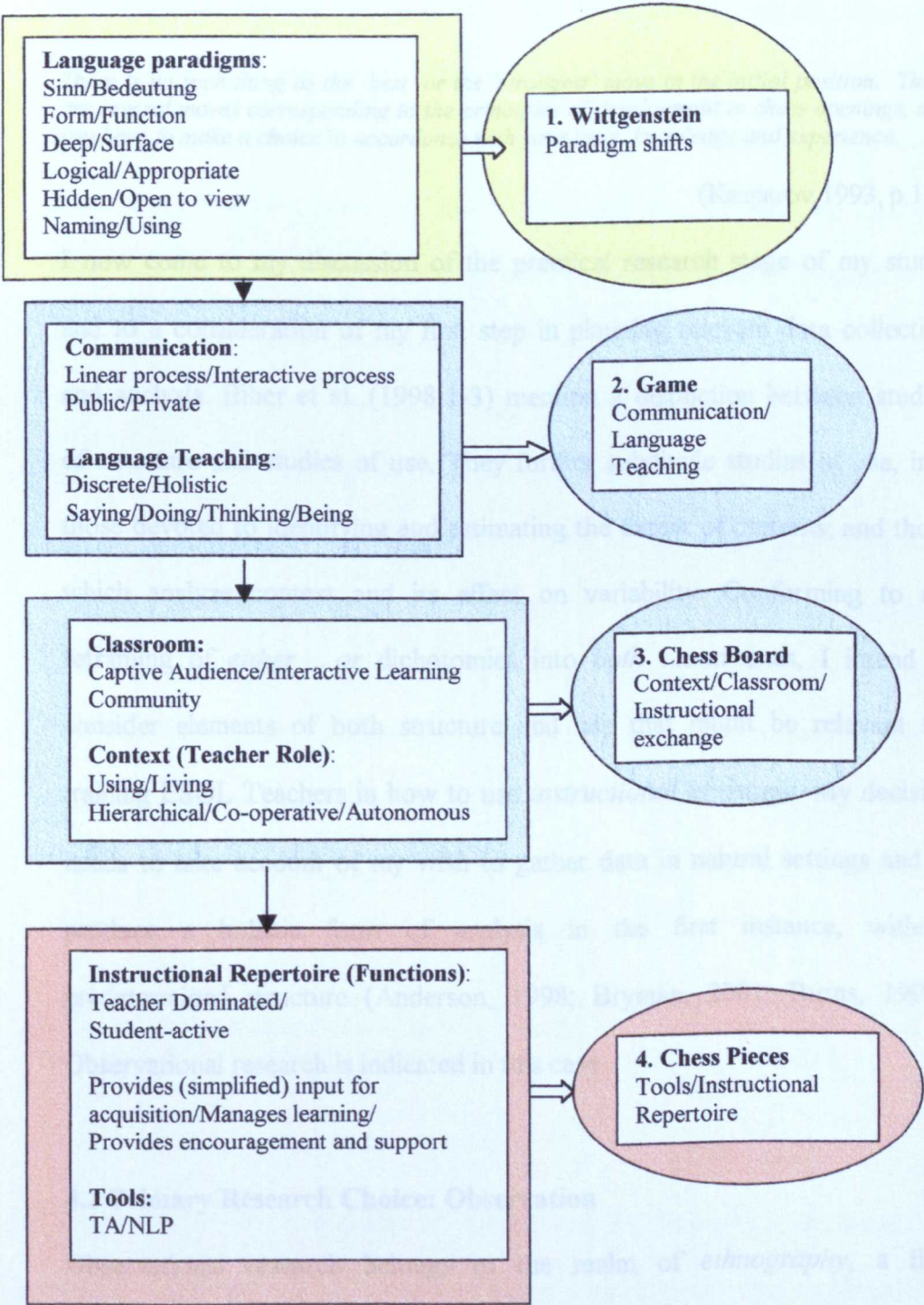
In concluding this Chapter, I return to and update my Metaphor Map (Fig.3.10.2), to add notions relating to teachers and students as *players* with language in the language classroom *game*. The map is glossed below (Fig. 3.10.1):

Figure 3.10.1 Chapter 3 Metaphor Summary

1. WITTGENSTEIN
I have explored (in Sections 3.2 and 3.3) the relevance of Wittgenstein to views of language in terms of two paradigms. I am calling Paradigm 1 <i>the language of saying</i> . This is a view of language as a whole that is made up of parts, has a focus on forms, on discrete items, and on structure. It conforms to the view of language that was set out in the TL, where names (<i>Name</i>) have meaning (<i>Bedeutung</i>) in the context of a sentence (<i>Satz</i>), and every part of a sentence that makes up its sense (<i>Sinn</i>) is an expression (<i>Ausdruck</i>). Every expression has form (<i>Form</i>) and content (<i>Inhalt</i>). Since thought is disguised by surface features of colloquial language, these must be stripped away to reveal the underlying, rule-governed, logical nature of language. I am contrasting this with Paradigm 2, which I am calling <i>the language of saying and doing</i> . This is a view of language as a vehicle for performing functions appropriately to context and audience. It is the view set out in the PI, where form is not considered separately from function, where a name has no meaning except in the context of use (<i>Gebrauch</i>), and where it is not necessary to look beyond the surface, since everything is open to view.
2. GAME
As I explain in Chapter 4, my own research will investigate my subjects' hidden (private) views on teaching, as well as what is open to view (public) from their teaching practice. Notions of <i>teacher thinking</i> and <i>teacher being</i> , as underpinning foundations to Paradigms 1 and 2, have been placed on the map at the level of <i>game</i> (see Sections 3.5 and 3.7).
3. CHESS BOARD
At the level of <i>chess board</i> , varying views of the nature of the language classroom and of the role of the teacher within it have been explored, including the difference between merely <i>using</i> , as opposed to <i>living</i> , a teaching methodology (Sections 3.6 to 3.9).
4. CHESS PIECES
At the level of <i>chess pieces</i> , functions related to the repertoire of teacher-generated <i>instructional language</i> have been proposed, and specific interactional and affective techniques for teaching have been identified (in Sections 3.8 and 3.9).

In Chapter 4, I describe my research context, introduce my subjects, set out the parameters for the practical phases of my study, and discuss the specific research tools and procedures chosen for my investigations.

Fig. 3.10.2. Metaphor Map (Language)



CHAPTER 4: THE STRATEGY

4.1 Introduction

Question: "And what's the plan?"

There is no such thing as the 'best' or the 'strongest' move in the initial position. There are several moves corresponding to the principles of development in chess openings, and you have to make a choice in accordance with your taste, knowledge and experience.

(Kasparov,1993, p.11.)

I now come to my discussion of the practical research stage of my study, and to a consideration of my first step in planning relevant data collection and analysis. Biber et al. (1998:1-3) mention a distinction between studies of structure and studies of use. They further subdivide studies of use, into those devoted to identifying and estimating the extent of patterns; and those which analyze context and its effect on variability. Conforming to my reframing of *either ...or* dichotomies into *both ...and* ones, I intend to consider elements of both structure and use that might be relevant for training ESOL Teachers in how to use *instructional language*. My decision needs to take account of my wish to gather data in natural settings and to produce a holistic form of analysis in the first instance, without predetermined structure (Anderson, 1998; Bryman, 2001; Burns, 1999). Observational research is indicated in this case.

4.2 Primary Research Choice: Observation

Observational research belongs to the realm of *ethnography*, a field originated by anthropologists observing cultures in natural contexts. Ethnography, as Jaworski and Coupland (1999:139) have it, is '*a commitment to observing real-life events as they unfold*', though it is now

recognized that pure observation, untempered by interpretation, is impossible to achieve (Clifford and Marcus, 1986). Observation can be done in real time by using a grid or tally (e.g. Simon and Boyer, 1967, 1975; Flanders, 1970; Galton, 1978a, 1978b), but, for extended analysis, video or audio recording is preferable. Audio-recordings have advantages, in that they are less intrusive than video-recordings; they are a public record; and they can be replayed, reviewed and reinterpreted as often as time allows. The clear disadvantage is that they do not capture the visual dimension and thus can be thought incomplete, but, as Sacks (1992) points out, completeness may never be achievable, whatever the method of recording data. Ochs (1979,1999) also discusses the merits and demerits of audio recording. She states that, in most studies of adult-adult speech behaviour, message content is considered, even by participants, to be conveyed through language. Though audio-recording does filter out visual cues, she argues that a filtering process occurs in any case at the transcription and analysis stage.

4.3 Primary Research Analysis: Discourse

It will be possible to say: in language we have different kinds of word. But how we group words into kinds will depend on the aim of the classification, - and on our own inclination. Think of the different points of view from which one can classify tools or chess-men.

(Wittgenstein, PI,17)

Having affirmed the importance of Wittgenstein's philosophy to the work of language teachers, I am keen to investigate observational data in terms of the two paradigms represented by the TL and PI. This entails a layered methodology that can encompass investigation into both form and function,

and attend to professional, social and individual dimensions of teacher talk. The indication is thus for *discourse analysis* (Harris, 1952), encapsulated by Coulthard (personal communication) into the question, '*Why this now?*', i.e. the approach seeks to explain why a particular speaker says particular words at a particular point in the unfolding communicative process. This requires both openness of mind and close analysis (see PI 340).

Discourse Analysis has been described (Jaworski and Coupland, 1999) as '*a sort of forensic activity*'. The study of discourse can take many forms, depending on whether discourse is taken to mean language above sentence level, a way of using language in context, or a way of representing reality: these interpretations correspond respectively to the fields of Discourse Analysis (DA), Conversation Analysis (CA) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA).

In 1976, Sinclair and Coulthard created for the DA tradition their structural model of organization in classroom discourse, which had five levels: *lesson*, *transaction*, *exchange*, *move* and *act* (Appendix C gives a summary, and a complete list of *acts* from this model). These authors identified a typical pattern that is recognisable as belonging to an event known as *lesson*, for example (own example):

Teacher: 'The sun was shining on the sea'. What tense is that?

Student: Past continuous.

Teacher: Good.

This example shows the common IRF exchange structure pattern (Initiation, Response, Follow up, see Chapter 3, Section 3.6). Other notable features of classroom discourse identified in this model are the small number of lexical items, such as *so*, *now*, *right*, that act as *discourse markers* between one exchange and another (termed *framing moves*), and the typical moves which follow such markers, e.g. '*Today we're going to do some listening*' (termed *focusing moves*) (see Appendix C). Discourse markers like these (Schiffrin, 1982, 1999; 1994) are vocabulary items that structure discourse and at the same time signal to hearers that structuring is taking place. Such items are of importance in teacher talk, and will be investigated in my data. Spoken language has been characterised (Carter and McCarthy, 1997:17-18) as *transactional*, i.e. '*used in the process of conducting business and generally getting things done*', or *interactional*, i.e. '*primarily personal and social in orientation*'. These divisions can be blurred in classroom contexts, as I shall seek to show.

Both DA and CA owe their origins, through Wittgenstein, to Austin (1962), who (see Chapter 3) was concerned with language as behaviour, though CA practitioners have more interest in analysing communicative patterns in sociolinguistic and sociocultural terms, '*as part of cultural knowledge and behaviour*' (Schiffrin, 1994:135). The main emphasis in CA is on relationships as they are manifested through interaction. CA has typically, though not exclusively, dealt with general conversation amongst equals, where there is more fluidity in turn taking than in status marked settings. As

Cameron (2001) has noted, where institutional talk is analysed in the CA tradition, it tends:

to be organised around the question 'What considerations apply that make talk in this institutional context different from ordinary talk?'

(Cameron, 2001, p.100)

Considering the CA perspective reminds me that English Teachers need to be proficient not only in talking, but in listening too: they need to cultivate what Carter and McCarthy (2003) have called *interactional competence* as hearers as well as speakers. Insights from research in both DA and CA traditions will be used in analysing my findings (see Chapters 5 and 7).

The branch of Discourse Study known as Critical Discourse Analysis (e.g. Van Leeuwen, 1993; Fairclough 2001) is not one I shall be using here, since it is firmly in the interpretative, rather than the descriptive realm of research. Nevertheless, as Edwards and Westgate (1994) note, any research carries an implicit view of what is significant, even a descriptive study such as mine. For Heritage (1984; Atkinson and Heritage, 1984), only observable interaction is legitimate focus for classroom-based research, whereas Seedhouse (1996) thinks it a necessity to consider the views of teacher or learner participants. The tension between these points of view is contained in Part Two of Wittgenstein's PI, where he discusses the fact that a person's observable capacity (*Fähigkeit*) to play chess is separate from any inner process (*innerer Vorgang*) or inner states (*inneren Zustände*). The feeling (*das Gefühl*) is not the capacity (*nicht die Fähigkeit*):

Was wurden wir denn Einem entgegen, der uns mitteilte, bei ihm sei das Verstehen ein innerer Vorgang? – Was wurden wir ihm entgegen, wenn er sagte, bei ihm sei das Schachspielenkonnen ein innerer Vorgang? – Dass nicht, was in ihm vorgeht, uns interessiert, wenn wir wissen wollen, ob er Schach spielen kann. – Und wenn er nun darauf antwortet, es interessiere uns eben doch: – nämlich, ob er Schach spielen könne, – da mussten wir ihn auf die Kriterien aufmerksam machen, die uns seine Fähigkeit beweisen wurden, und anderseits auf die Kriterien der ‘inneren Zustände’. Auch wenn Einer nur dann, und nur so lange, eine bestimmte Fähigkeit hatte, als er etwas bestimmtes fühlt, wäre das Gefühl nicht die Fähigkeit.

How should we counter someone who told us that with him understanding was an inner process? How should we counter him if he said that with him knowing how to play chess was an inner process? We should say that when we want to know if he can play chess we aren't interested in anything that goes on inside him. And if he replies that this is in fact just what we are interested in, that is, we are interested in whether he can play chess – then we shall have to draw his attention to the criteria which would demonstrate his capacity, and on the other hand to the criteria for the ‘inner states’. The feeling is not the capacity.

(Wittgenstein, 2001, p.155)

In my case, I am concentrating more on surface, observable, behaviour than on what may underpin it. I do have an interest in what my participants think and feel, and have planned to use this in analyzing secondary data, but, as a Trainer, my primary concern is with what goes on in the ESOL classroom, so my main interest is in knowledge translated into practice. In common with Maynard (1989), I put more emphasis on what is observable (bearing in mind researcher bias):

The question that ethnographers have traditionally asked – ‘How do participants see things?’ – has meant in practice the presumption that reality lies outside the words spoken in a particular time and place. The alternative question – ‘How do participants do things?’ – suggests that the microsocial order can be appreciated more fully by studying how speech and other face to face behaviours constitute reality within actual mundane situations.

(Maynard, 1989, p.144, cited in Silverman, 2001, p.76)

Of the many definitions of *discourse* available (e.g. Brown and Yule, 1983; Coulthard, 1977, 1981; McCarthy, 1991, 1999), my preference is for that of Caron, whose elements relate neatly to my specific research concerns:

A discourse is not a simple set of utterances, but possesses a unity which can be characterised in three ways. Considered in its entirety, discourse comprises an

organisation: it is composed of a set of hierarchical and ordered elements; we can extract its plan, make a summary of it, give it a title, etc. As a process which progresses across time, discourse has a coherence: each new utterance is related in some way to those preceding and following it, thus allowing integration to a continuous process. Finally, as an activity, discourse is goal oriented: it aims to achieve a particular goal, to have a particular effect on the listener.

(Caron, 1992, p.123 and p.29)

I wish to preserve a sense of context in my study, which relates to Caron's idea of *unity*. Referring to other key terms in Caron's definition, the Discourse Analysis (DA) tradition foregrounds *organisation* of language above the sentence level, whereas the Conversation Analysis (CA) tradition is concerned with sequencing in interaction, the activity of turn taking and turn passing, and the unfolding of speaker-hearer relationships. My work is focused on the language of the classroom, and thus with *goal*-orientated talk, and it is also concerned with the *effect* (and *affect*) that teacher talk has on learning.

A related notion to discourse is that of *genre*, which Swales defines thus:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style.

(Swales, 1990, p.58)

Among *speech genres* (Bakhtin, 1986), Carter and McCarthy (1997) identify a *language, learning and interaction* category for language in institutionalized settings. A current area of interest in discourse studies is *hybridity* (Jaworski and Coupland, 1999), where a mixture of genres, voices, styles and registers may be used in a single communicative event: this will

be investigated in my classroom data, especially in terms of formality/informality (see Chapter 7, Section 7.13).

4.4 Primary Research Analysis: Interpretation, Transcription, Display

In this study, as well as Researcher, I also act as Transcriber, in the interests of familiarization with the data to be analysed (Bloor et al., 2001). As Heritage (1984) states, the production of transcripts is a research activity in itself. In choosing what level of detail to employ, I have been mindful of the need for simplicity and clarity, to enable readers to interpret my data in the way intended. Transcripts in the DA tradition are typically tabulated to include the original interaction, in traditional orthography, alongside coded exchange elements and associated functions (see Fig. 4.4.1).

Figure 4.4.1 DA Transcription

Key: P = Pupil, T = Teacher, el = elicitation, rep = reply, acc = accept, e = evaluate

P-Elicit	What were Popes?	el
T-Reply	Still have Popes. The Pope's the head of the Catholic Church.	rep
P-Feedback	Mm oh	acc
T-Elicit	Where does he live?	el
P-Reply	Rome	rep
T-Feedback	Rome yes	e
T-Elicit	Do you know which part of Rome ...	el

(Coulthard, 1995, p.33)

Transcriptions in the CA tradition contain a wealth of conventions, relating to finer points of interaction, which are interspersed into traditional orthography and need to be interpreted by the reader, as Fig. 4.4.2 shows.

Figure 4.4.2 CA Transcription

Key:		
(0.5) The number in brackets indicates a time gap in tenths of a second.		
(.) A dot enclosed in a bracket indicates a pause of less than two-tenths of a second.		
= The equals sign indicates 'latching' between utterances.		
[] Square brackets between adjacent lines indicate the onset and end of overlapping talk.		
.hh A dot before an 'h' indicates speaker in-breath. The more h's, the longer the breath.		
hh An 'h' indicates an out-breath. The more h's the longer the breath.		
- A dash indicates the sharp cut-off of the prior word or sound.		
: Colons indicate that the speaker has stretched the preceding sound.		
. A full stop indicates a stopping fall in tone.		
, A comma indicates a 'continuing' intonation.		

1	Caller:	I think we should (.) er reform the la:w on Sundays here, (0.3) w- I think
2		people should have the choice if they want to do shopping on a Sunday, (0.4)
3		also, that (.) i-if shops want to open on a Sunday the- the- they should be
4		given the choice to do so.
5	Host:	Well as I understand it thee: (.) the la:w a:s they're discussing it at the
6		moment would allow shops to open .h for six hou:rs, .hh [e:r] on a=
7	Caller:	Yes
8	Host:	=Sunday,
9	Caller:	That's righ [t.
10	Host:	From:, midda:y.

(Hutchby and Wooffitt, 1998, p.105)

The level of detail used in both these types of display is cumbersome, both for my research purposes and for the time scale within which I seek to interpret my data. Following Ochs’ (1979,1999) advice that transcription needs to suit the needs of the Researcher, therefore, an iterative *transcribe-code-interpret* cycle (Lapadat and Lindsay, 1999) was chosen, as a systematic procedure that enabled new features to emerge at each cycle; the transcription was then devised to display the features deemed to be

important for the type of analysis at each stage, using tabulated formats similar to, but simpler than, the one used in DA (see Chapter 7, Fig. 7.6.1).

4.5 Secondary Research Choices: Recall and Interview

Triangulation (Anderson, 1998:131) via different methods of data collection and different types of data affords perspectives from further cohorts of Trainees, in addition to the original subjects. Data obtained where there is a time gap between the reported event and the event itself is described as *retrospective*, and data involving participants' thoughts about practices is termed *introspective* (Nunan, 1992). In collecting my data, I have been guided by Schulman (1986:23), who states that introspective data is necessary for an understanding of the choices teachers make. In my study, therefore, all data apart from the audio-recorded lessons is both retrospective and introspective, and stems from the participants themselves.

Gass and Mackey (2000) review current literature on introspective methods (e.g. Cohen, 1998; Shavelson, Webb and Burstein, 1986), from which the term *Stimulated Recall* seems to fit my own case. Gass and Mackey (2000:25) explain the function of stimulated recall as '*exploring thought processes or strategies by asking subjects to reflect on their thoughts after they have carried out a task*'. The method is characterised by support from an audio or video prompt, and can vary in terms of time lapse, mode, focus, and degree of support. The dimensions and formats involved in my own stimulated recall data are tabulated below (Fig. 4.5.1):

Figure 4.5.1 Recall Dimensions and Formats

FORMAT	TIME	MODE	FOCUS	SUPPORT
Lesson Feedback	All Cohorts: Immediately after class	All Cohorts: Oral and Written	All Cohorts: Linguistic, Cognitive and Affective	All Cohorts: Lesson Plan, Lesson Feedback Form, Oral support from Peers and Tutor
Assignment	Cohort 1: 2 semesters to complete Cohorts 2 and 3: 2-3 weeks to complete	Cohort 1: Oral and Written Cohorts 2 and 3: Written only	All Cohorts: Linguistic, Cognitive and Affective	Cohorts 1 and 2: Audiorecording, General Tutor-led Input as Preparation for Assignment, Peer support Cohort 3: Audiorecording, Specific Tutor-led Metamodel-related Workshop as Preparation for Assignment, Peer support

An open ended discussion between myself as Tutor and a cohort of Trainees can be classified variously as *group interview* (Cohen and Manion, 1997), *group discussion* (Hedges, 1985) or *focus group* (Morgan, 1998). A one-to-one conversation is normally termed *interview*. I have referred to both as *interview*. Howsoever called, interviews allow ‘*the emergence of themes not anticipated by the researcher*’ (Burns, 1999:120) I took heart from Morgan’s (1998:48) statement that ‘*a knowledgeable moderator known to participants can compensate for any lack of training*’. Audio recording again provided a reliable record, and will allow others direct access to the data, should they wish to verify my interpretation (Perakyla, 1997:203; Silverman, 2001:119). McDonough and McDonough (1997:273) identify three types of interview: *structured*, i.e. organised in advance; *semi-structured*, i.e. offering flexibility but in the control of the interviewer, and *unstructured*, i.e. shaped by participants. I chose the semi-structured option (see Appendix G).

4.6 Secondary Research Analysis: Textual

I refer to my method for investigating secondary ethnographic data as *textual analysis*. Fairclough (1991,1999:183-211), treating form as a part of content, places *content analysis* as an umbrella term within which *textual analysis* (Berelson, 1952) is included. However, according to Silverman (2001:151), the term, *content analysis* is more prevalent in quantitative research. Silverman's own preferred term for the qualitative tradition is therefore *textual analysis* (Silverman, 2001:11). I have used this term in Chapter 2 (Section 2.6), and will retain it for the purposes of this thesis. What I am aiming to achieve in my own research involves noticing how the Trainees' realities and identities are manifested in the documents I scrutinise. Like the audio-recorded lessons of my observational data, these written and oral texts are naturally occurring, existing independently of the research I undertake on them. As elsewhere (Taylor, 2001a; 2001b), I have used for guidance Robson's procedure for data analysis and display (Robson, 1993), namely:

- *Categorise data;*
- *Count occurrences of the categories;*
- *Notice recurring patterns;*
- *Group or cluster together similar characteristics;*
- *Create linkages;*
- *Relate specific findings to general propositions.*

(Robson, 1993, p.410, my adaptation)

4.7 Considerations of Criticality and Identity

I refer here to Chapter 2 (Section 2.7), where I put on hold my discussion of the term *criticality*, in view of my difficulties with the concept. There are two aspects of criticality that are pertinent to the work reported in this thesis: on the one hand, there is its sense as a required stance for me as a Researcher at Postgraduate level; on the other, there is its implication for my position relative to my research subjects.

Focusing on the first aspect, the Oxford English Dictionary (2003) defines *critical* as, first, '*given to judging; esp. fault-finding, censorious*' and, second, '*involving or exercising careful judgement or observation*'. The Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2003), has '*inclined to criticise severely and unfavourably*' followed by '*exercising or involving careful judgment or judicious evaluation*'. Thus, the commonly used general term has clear negative connotations, and emphasises *judgement* and *evaluation*. In the field of Education, John Dewey is credited as the father of critical thinking, which he calls '*reflective thinking*', defined as:

Active persistent and careful consideration of a belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds which support it and the further conclusions to which it tends.

(Dewey, 1909, p.9)

There is no mention of judgment or evaluation here, only *consideration*, which is much more benign. Glaser, too, has a measured definition that emphasises thoughtful consideration. Critical thinking is:

An attitude of being disposed to consider in a thoughtful way the problems and subjects that come within the range of one's experience; knowledge of the methods of logical enquiry and reasoning; and some skill in applying those methods.

(Glaser, 1941, p.5)

The NLP concept of *perceptual positions* (Dilts, 1996), is relevant to this discussion: one can view an interaction from *first position*, i.e. through one's own eyes; from *second position*, i.e. through another person's eyes; from *third position*, i.e. exclusive and outside the relationship with the other person; or from *fourth position*, i.e. an inclusive relationship with the whole system, or *field*. These positions are expressed linguistically by *I*, *you*, *they* and *we*, respectively (see also Fairclough, 1991, 1999). *Empathy* entails acceptance and tolerance of differences, and can embrace all perceptual positions. Arnold (1999:19) defines empathy as '*the process of putting yourself into someone else's shoes*', which is a useful skill for Teacher Educators to possess. Bearing in mind the influence of Wittgenstein on my thesis as a whole, and the account I have taken of NLP principles, I have been interested in the view that '*Neuroscience is the new Philosophy*' (Ramachandran, 2003). Ramachandran's Hindu Philosophy sees no essential difference between *self* and *other*. Russell, too, made such a claim for Western philosophical contemplation: for him, acquiring knowledge was a form of pushing boundaries, through union of the *self* and *not-self*:

In [philosophical] contemplation, we start from the not-Self, and through its greatness the boundaries of Self are enlarged

(Russell, 1912, p.92)

4.8 Considerations of Researcher Participation

There is a sense in which I see no significant difference between my own identity and that of my Trainees. My rapport with them is vulnerable when, in my identity as CELTA Trainer, I act additionally as judge and jury, which

is a normal occurrence inherent in every CELTA course I run. There is a further complication for the Trainees in my study, caused by my identity as Researcher, namely, the necessity of subjecting their work to greater scrutiny than would otherwise be the case. It is also true that, although given the choice, my position as TESOL Subject and Module Leader made it difficult for the participants to refuse to involve themselves in the study (Knezevic, 2003). However, a position of Participant Observer is one I customarily take up in my Tutor role, assisting at the planning stage, observing the classes I supervise, and participating in group feedback. Mindful of the need to give classroom practitioners the voice '*to talk, generate new knowledge and create new theories*' (Knezevic, 2003: 20), I have also sought to minimise inequality by co-constructing categories with Trainees, in the final phase of this research study (see Chapter 8, Section 8.5). I am aware of criticisms raised in relation to the Insider Researcher role, regarding its potential for compromising objectivity and ethics (Samph, 1976; Somekh, 1993; Anderson, 1998; Elliott, 2001), but, in the study reported here, my activities in respect of my research participants are no different from those of any CELTA Trainees that I assess. The types of data collected from the Trainees in the study are identical to those supplied by other Trainees on other CELTA courses at my institution. The difference lies solely in my own domain, in the fact that I subject the data they provide in their course portfolios to additional types of analysis, for purposes other than CELTA assessment.

Cameron et al (1992,1999: 141-157) have set out the potential ethical dangers, for exploitation and abuse of subjects, inherent in undertaking research in the Social Sciences. Their ideal is *empowering research*, which they understand as '*research on, for and with*' the research participants. I have heeded their advice to use pseudonyms, to compensate participants (with cash in my case), to use interactive research methods, taking account of participants' agendas (my role as CELTA Tutor requires this) and to feed back and share knowledge gained (this I have done in the final phase of my research). In the interests of '*fairness, accuracy and comprehensiveness*', I have made efforts to follow Elliott's (1991b:63) advice to cross check accounts of events, and where possible to present alternative descriptions or interpretations.

My concern in undertaking research with Trainees working towards their CELTA qualification was that it should impinge as little as possible on their course (Hopkins, 2001), in terms of time, workload, working conditions and relationships with students, colleagues and Tutors. For ethical reasons, I wished to use as my data only what would normally be collected from the Trainees as part of continuous assessment. I asked for the Trainees' co-operation and their consent to my using their coursework for the purposes of my research. A letter was drawn up and circulated for signing by those who wished to, but most Trainees simply gave consent by e-mail (see Appendix D). Further ethical considerations of confidentiality and anonymity (Mason, 1996) have resulted in all names of participants being changed and all

identifiable information on dates and locations being expunged in this thesis.

4.9 Considerations of Research Outcomes

As Rosenberg (2003) has noted, drawing on the work of Mackay (1989), Piper (1996) and others, evaluation of teaching is problematic. In terms of effectiveness in teaching as it relates to my research topic, Richards (1990:38) gives *classroom management, structuring, tasks and grouping* as dimensions along which differences between effective and ineffective instruction have been found. Richards also cites research by Blum (1984) that includes the following in a list of effective classroom practices:

- *students are carefully oriented to lessons*
- *instruction is clear and focused*
- *when students don't understand they are retaught*
- *there are smooth and efficient classroom routines*
- *personal interactions between teachers and students are positive.*

(Blum, 1984, cited in Richards, 1990, p.38)

According to NLP principles (Dilts,1999:143), for a value such as *effective instructional language* to exist, I must build beliefs about what this is, how I know it is being enacted, what causes it, and what it leads to. For beliefs about *effectiveness* and how it is enacted, I have used the local consensus of the Trainees' own views (see Chapter 8). As for the causes, I have aimed to uncover useful information through Discourse Analysis. As to what it leads to, I have no claim to make, as my investigations do not include student responses, except in so far as they feed into subsequent teacher talk. At first

sight, it might seem a simple matter to decide whether Trainees can manage a language learning activity effectively or not, if effectiveness is deemed to be shown when students do what the activity requires. However, there are difficulties with this definition, including the following: if a coursebook is used, the rubric given there may be sufficient in itself, regardless of teacher input; if the students ask for further help, this may not necessarily signify deficiency in understanding the requirements; extra-linguistic factors in the teacher's management skill may be involved in enabling students to carry out the activity successfully.

4.10 Research Subjects and Data Sets

The CELTA qualification (see Chapter 1 and Appendix B) is assessed by a Teaching Practicum and Coursework Assignments. The criteria for the CELTA Teaching Practicum are given in Appendix B. Amongst these, the language-related criteria that concern me in this thesis are given as Fig. 4.10.1. The numbering is that used in Appendix B, following Cambridge ESOL and FENTO guidelines (DfES, 2002, see Appendix A):

Figure 4.10.1 Relevant CELTA Criteria

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">1d establishing good rapport/ensuring learners are fully involved in learning activities2a adjusting own use of language in the classroom according to learner group and context2c providing clear contexts and a communicative focus for language2d providing accurate/appropriate models of oral and written language in the classroom4f including interaction patterns appropriate for lesson materials and activities5f using appropriate means to make instructions for tasks and activities clear to learners5g using questions effectively for purposes of elicitation and checking understanding. |
|---|

The assignment that concerns me most is the *Lessons from the Classroom Assignment*, the scope and assessment of which is given in Appendix B. Each centre is responsible for designing its own assignments to conform with the CELTA scheme's scope and assessment criteria. The rubric used for the Trainees in Cohort One of my study is given as Figure 4.10.2:

Figure 4.10.2 Lessons From the Classroom Assignment Rubric

Major Assignment: Lessons From the Classroom (1000 words)

Using evidence from the observations you undertook of experienced teachers, peers and yourself, summarise what you have learned from these experiences about the interrelationship between classroom language, classroom management, and student output. The summary should provide evidence that you can identify the strengths and weaknesses in your own teaching and that you can use your observations of others to reflect on implications for your further development. As data for your summary, you should make an audio recording of classes you teach, ideally one at each level. Include reference to these recordings in your summary.

At my institution, CELTA courses exist in two modes: one part-time all year round mode, tied into the BA Modern Languages Degree structure; and one full-time intensive four-week commercial summer course. The course content is the same for both modes, but the part time mode is delivered on one afternoon per week over thirty weeks, whereas the full time mode requires attendance on five days per week over four weeks. In each case, Teaching Practice takes place on an apprenticeship model, with groups of three or four students working alongside a Tutor, who both teaches an ESOL class and delivers TESOL seminars (henceforth Input) for the CELTA trainees. Trainees undertake to observe between six and eight hours of experienced Teachers, as well as observing peers during the group Teaching Practice sessions. Appendix E gives a typical Input Timetable and Teaching Practice Timetable for a summer intensive CELTA course at my

institution. The all-year-round part-time version has equivalent content and number of hours, spread over a period of ten months.

4.11 Research Framework

The first cohort of CELTA Trainees were already part-way through their all-year-round course, a second was about to undertake an intensive summer course, and subsequently there would be another all-year-round course and another summer intensive course during the period I had set aside for completion of my Postgraduate study. I aimed to explore three issues:

- *How do teachers use language to manage learning, relate to individuals and foster interaction in the language classroom?*
- *How do teachers define effective language teaching, with reference to instructional language?*
- *Can this be taught?*

4.12 Introduction to Research

I chose to conduct preliminary research on the submitted work of five TESOL Trainees from a cohort of Final Year Undergraduates who had been working towards the dual award of BA Modern Languages with Cambridge ESOL CELTA (henceforth Cohort One). In an effort to reduce the number of variables involved, I chose Trainees of same gender (female) and age (21 years) (see Appendix F). As part of their course, these Trainees made audio recordings to be used as the basis of their *Lessons From the Classroom Assignment*. On completion of their course, the Trainees volunteered to

undertake a short audio-recorded interview, and allowed me to use their assignments for research purposes.

The classes taught by the Trainees in Cohort One were at two levels: Lower Intermediate and Upper Intermediate learners of ESOL. These levels of language proficiency correspond respectively to the Waystage User and Independent User descriptors produced by the Council of Europe (2001, see Figures 4.12.1 and 4.12.2):

Figure 4.12.1 Council of Europe Skill Summaries, Waystage User

WAYSTAGE USER
Listening/Speaking: Can express simple opinions or requirements in a familiar context.
Reading: Can understand straightforward information within known area, such as on products and signs and simple textbooks or reports on familiar matters.
Writing: Can complete forms and write short simple letters or postcards related to personal information.

Figure 4.12.2 Council of Europe Skill Summaries, Independent User

INDEPENDENT USER
Listening/Speaking: Can follow or give a talk on a familiar topic or keep up a conversation on a fairly wide range of topics.
Reading: Can scan texts for relevant information, and understand detailed instructions or advice.
Writing: Can make notes while someone is talking or write a letter including non-standard requests.

(Council of Europe, 2001, p.251)

The Lower Intermediate Class consisted of six Asian learners, natives of Korea, China and Taiwan, and the Upper Intermediate Class consisted of fourteen mixed Asian, European and Arabic learners, from Brazil, China, Iran, Italy, Japan, Korea, and Saudi Arabia.

The purpose of Phase One was to collect naturally occurring data and analyse it with a view to refining my research questions (Mason, 1996). I was interested in looking at *instructional language* through transcription and analysis of the audio-recorded classroom extracts submitted with the assignments. I additionally planned to examine the assignments themselves, to find out the Trainees' own perspectives on the classroom data. For Phase One I was careful not to draw attention to my research focus until one week before the interviews. My reasons for this were: that I wished to find out whether Trainees would spontaneously raise it as an area of concern; and that I wished to minimise contamination of my data (Weber, 1946; Mason, 1996).

4.13 Practicalities of Data Collection

The business of organizing equipment to ensure effective unobtrusive recording of Teaching Practice sessions was easily managed, since the Trainees in my study took responsibility for doing this as part of the preparations for their *Lessons from the Classroom Assignment*. The recording equipment was in each case placed next to the Trainee on the front desk and, since the purpose for recording teacher-generated talk was congruent with mine, the recorded data fitted both Trainee and Researcher needs. My own positioning and behaviour in the classroom was no different from any other CELTA observation session, and I made comments, answered questions or formed a pair with a student, as required: students and Trainees alike were used to my presence in the classroom. I

was not present at all the recorded sessions, since I am only one of four Trainers working on the CELTA courses at my institution. Further classroom data was obtained from a second cohort of Trainees (see Chapter 7). The observational data obtained from the audio-recorded lessons from Cohort One are discussed in Chapter 5, and those obtained from the further cohort are discussed in Chapter 7.

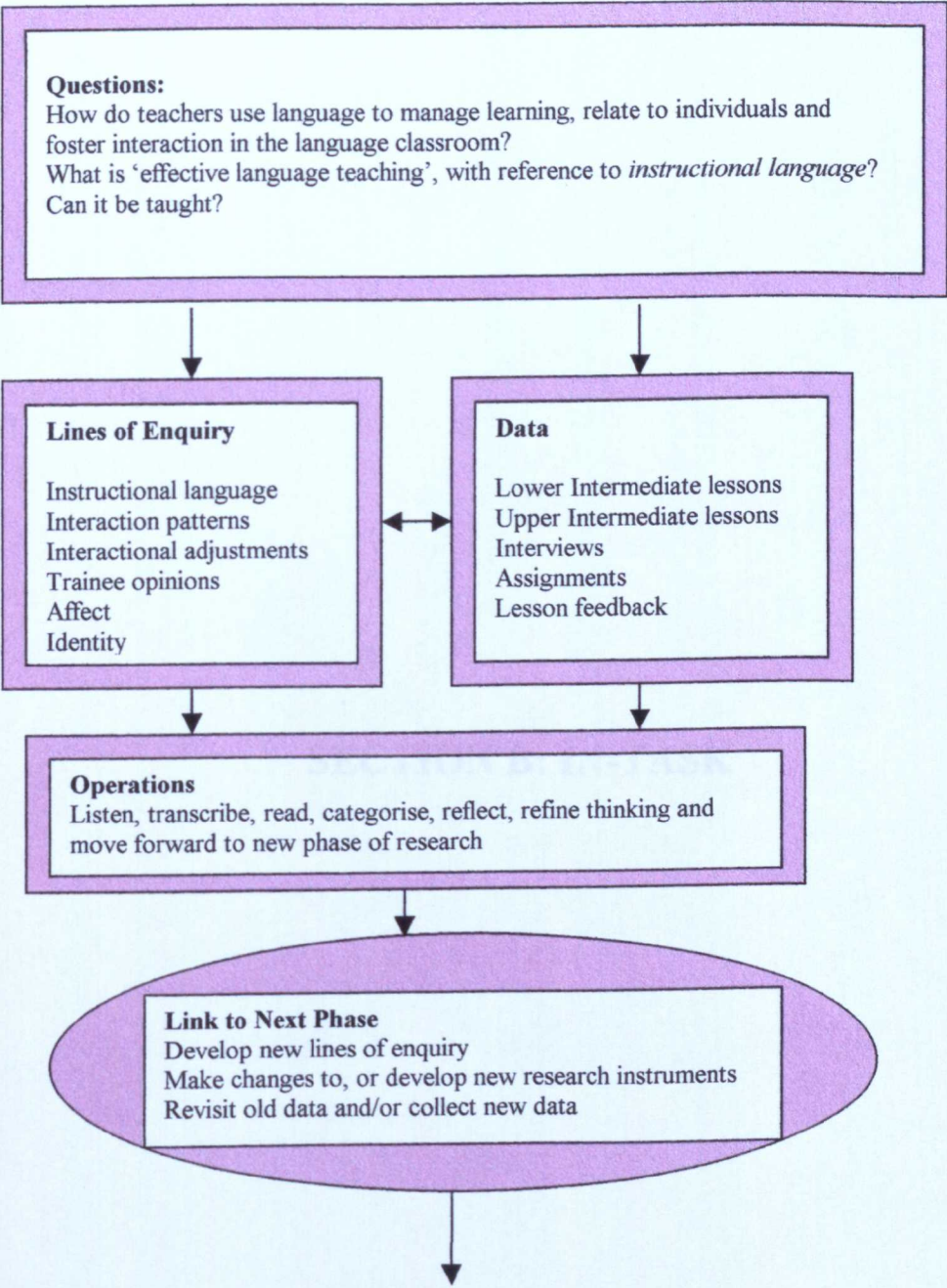
Data relating to assignments posed no problems for collection, since these assignments were assessed course components. The only instruments specifically designed for this study, and therefore not part of the Trainees' normal CELTA course experience, were the individual and group interviews. Individual Interviews with Cohort One Trainees were held in my office. They took place after the Trainees had completed all their assignments for the year, so that the Interviewees could be assured that nothing they said would affect their final year assessment. The Interviewee and I sat on identical types of chair, at equal levels, opposite each other. With the audio-recording equipment placed on a desk to one side, there was no need for note taking and I was able to give the Interviewee my full attention. The interview schedule is given as Appendix G and a sample complete Interview is included as Appendix H. A Group Interview was conducted with a later cohort of Trainees. This took the form of a preliminary discussion task in a workshop-style input session (see Chapter 8, Section 8.5). Interpretive data from these individual and group interviews, as well as from the Trainees' assignments, will be discussed in Chapter 8.

4.14 Conclusion

In this Chapter, I have discussed in broad terms the knowledge I planned to gain through studying teacher-generated language in language classrooms. I have given my reasons for choosing audio-recorded observation, with discourse analysis, as appropriate research tools for studying teachers' *saying* and *doing*. I have discussed the usefulness of interpretive research for exploring Trainees' *thinking* and *being*, through textual analysis and stimulated recall, using interviews and available course documentation. I have taken account of my roles as Co-participant, Tutor, Assessor and Researcher, and expressed my wish to conduct ethically acceptable research *on, for and with* the participants. I have introduced my projected research subjects and data sets, and have described my procedures for collecting information. Figure 4.14.1 gives a visual representation of my intended iterative research framework.

In Chapter 5, I describe the processes I went through when sifting, analysing, and categorising classroom data from Phase One, and I present initial findings.

Figure 4.14.1 Iterative Research Framework



SECTION B: IN-TASK

CHAPTER 5: THE GAMBITS

5.1 Introduction

Question: "Right. So. How do you get going?"

In Chapter 2, I referred to the much discussed notions of *reality truth*, *certainty*, *subjectivity* and *objectivity*. In consideration of my own position as Observer/Researcher, as I plan my course of action, I am mindful of how important these notions were to my Mentors, Wittgenstein and Dodgson.

The young Wittgenstein, at the time of his arrival in England to study with Russell, would have been aware, through Russell, of William James' essay, '*Does 'Consciousness' Exist?*' and its challenge to the hitherto accepted dualism of subject and object (James, 1904, cited in Russell, 1946, 1991: 767). He would have known Russell's view (1946, 1991:20) that Modern Philosophy begins with Descartes, '*whose fundamental certainty is the existence of himself and his thoughts, from which the external world is to be inferred*'. He would also have been acquainted, through Russell, with Locke's theory that knowledge is about the agreement or disagreement of ideas, Berkeley's contention that the act of perceiving cannot be distinguished from the object perceived, and Kant's position that objects of perception are due '*partly to external factors and partly to our own perceptive apparatus*' (Russell, 1946, 1991: 481,685).

Debates around the nature of reality would have previously been well rehearsed in Dodgson's day, and they surface at several points in *Through*

the Looking Glass. This book is a story of dream sequences, and just whose dream it is – Alice’s or the Red King’s - remains an open question, as Gardner (2001:280) points out. For me, in my role as Researcher, there are issues around the nature of the reality I am reporting on, and the legitimacy of the analysis, from the Trainees’ point of view. Later (in Chapter 8), their interpretations will be voiced, quoted directly from what they have written or spoken in assignments and interviews. However, since this Chapter represents my own perspective on the classroom data, I am reminded, as I begin my analysis, of the passage in *Through the Looking Glass* in which Alice takes up the White King’s pencil and writes for him:

The poor King looked puzzled and unhappy, and struggled with the pencil for some time without saying anything; but Alice was too strong for him, and at last he panted out ‘My dear! I really MUST get a thinner pencil. I can’t manage this one a bit: it writes all manner of things that I don’t intend –’ ‘What manner of things?’ said the Queen, looking over the book (in which Alice had put ‘The White Knight is sliding down the poker. He balances very badly’). ‘That’s not a memorandum of YOUR feelings!’

(Carroll, 1952, p.18)

In this Chapter, I explain my procedures for the initial, exploratory steps in my investigations, with reference to classroom data from Phase One of my research. Here, I report on the procedures I undertook in order to discover what might constitute *instructional language*, prior to tackling the narrower issue of which of its features might be relevant to the setting up of activities for language learning. The research procedures reported in this Chapter comprise seven operations, designed to find out:

- the typical balance between teacher-dependent and teacher-independent work in the lessons as a whole (see Sections 5.2 to 5.4);
- the number and length of whole-class, teacher-dependent stages in those lessons (see Sections 5.4 and 5.5) ;

- the amount and nature of interaction between teacher and students in those stages (see Sections 5.4 to 5.7);
- the nature of the language used by the teacher in those stages (see Sections 5.7 and 5.8).

5.2 Operation One, Transcription

In Chapter 4 and in Figure 4.14.1, I stated my intention to begin by analysing extracts of classroom discourse collected from an initial cohort of Trainees (as Phase One of my research), to be supplemented by further data, in an iterative research process. In Cohort One, five Initial Teacher Trainees furnished classroom data (their details are given in Appendix F). Elaine, Jane and Leanne provided audio-recordings of lessons with identical classes at two levels: Lower and Upper Intermediate; Kath made an audio-recording of the Upper group only; and Lavinia provided a recording of the Lower group only. To contextualise the analysis that will be set out in this and following Chapters, I illustrate the sequence of the seven initial operations I performed, using as examples the data provided by the Trainee referred to in this thesis as Jane. I then comment on initial findings as they relate to Jane's lessons, with the intention of using her classes as a benchmark when reporting and discussing my interim and final results. For ease of reference, therefore, I have highlighted the transcripts from Jane's classes in colour, so that they can be quickly found and consulted, as necessary (see Figures 5.2.1 and 5.2.2). The related lesson plans are given in Appendix R.

Initially, as Operation One, transcripts comprising both teacher and student utterances were made. In order to focus on teacher-generated talk, these were later edited to show only the teacher's words. In keeping with my wish to study *instructional language* in the context of whole lessons, and to follow Wittgenstein's philosophy of laying everything open to view, I have given a simple transcript of the entirety of Jane's utterances in her Lower Level Class as Figure 5.2.1, and her Upper Level Class as Figure 5.2.2. The Lower Level Class is devoted to the presentation and practice of prepositions of place. The Upper Level Class is designed to review leisure-related vocabulary and functional exponents for expressing preference, through a central communication task. Where a student speaks, this constitutes a *student turn* in my system of analysis, and is indicated by the code *ST*. It denotes any student utterance recognisable as a word, phrase or sentence, irrespective of purpose. In Figure 5.2.2, the Observing Tutor joins in the general discussion at the start of the lesson: this and any other Tutor turns are indicated by the initial, *T*. Line numbers are given for ease of reference. The original transcripts were timed in intervals of one minute: these timings are not listed here, but have been retained in the originals for use in the operations described in this Chapter. The occurrences in the transcripts of italics and parentheses will be explained during the discussion of the operations that gave rise to these markings (see Section 5.8).

Figure 5.2.1 Transcript of Jane's Lower Level Class (only Teacher's words given)

Line	TEACHER FRONTED INTERACTION
1	Well today everybody we're going to look at prepositions <i>OK</i> ? So can you tell me
2	where is the bottle (<i>ST</i>) where is it where (<i>ST</i>) brilliant where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) on
3	the table <i>OK</i> where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) very good next to where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) say that
4	again (<i>ST</i>) bottle of (<i>ST</i>) water brilliant very good where is em where is the pen
5	(<i>ST</i>) brilliant where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) brilliant where is the water where is the water
6	the bottle of water where is it (<i>ST</i>) can you think of another word you can say on
7	but can we we can say on (<i>ST</i>) on top of (<i>ST</i>) em er we can say a book we can call
8	it a book it's a diary we can say a book <i>OK</i> ? <i>OK</i> So the bottle of water is (<i>ST</i>) very
9	good on top (<i>ST</i>) brilliant well done where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) brilliant where is the
10	book (<i>ST</i>) under the (<i>ST</i>) water (<i>ST</i>) very good you can also we can say what do
11	we say Lawrence it was the bottle was (<i>ST</i>) the bottle is oh sorry the book the
12	book is (<i>ST</i>) very good <i>OK</i> and where's the phone (<i>ST</i>) where is the phone (<i>ST</i>)
13	very good where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) now where's the pen (<i>ST</i>) very good so we can
14	say this is next to but also it's also on the what (<i>ST</i>) what's this side called this is
15	(<i>ST</i>) so what's on the (<i>ST</i>) brilliant and this is the (<i>ST</i>) so we say it's on the right
16	hand side <i>OK</i> ? so where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) Vivian where's the pen (<i>ST</i>) very good and
17	what about what do we say the pen is on the (<i>ST</i>) right hand (<i>ST</i>) very good
18	Lawrence where is the bottle of water (<i>ST</i>) where is the bottle of water (<i>ST</i>) next to
19	the book also it's on the left hand side (<i>ST</i>) very good where is the water (<i>ST</i>)
20	very good so if this is the top if this is the top what is this maybe the bottom <i>OK</i> so
21	what's this (<i>ST</i>) bottom (<i>ST</i>) <i>OK</i> it's also your bottom as well <i>OK</i> ? It's the same
22	word <i>OK</i> ? Where is the phone (<i>ST</i>) very good above where is the phone (<i>ST</i>) very
23	good below do you want me to write that for you so we have above and below <i>OK</i> ?
24	top and bottom above and below <i>OK</i> ?
25	[Now I'd like you to work together Sue and Lawrence Vivian and Jenny if you
26	work together you can use some of these your own maybe a rubber a pen er and a a
27	book and and can you ask each other questions <i>OK</i> ? So you work together Jenny
28	and Vivian you ask Vivian where is the book and you can put it above below next
29	to on the right hand side the left hand side <i>OK</i> ? Do you want to work together for
30	five minutes] <i>OK</i>
	(Teacher-independent activity)
31	So let's come back together and let's have a look together <i>OK</i> em where is the
32	phone (<i>ST</i>) also (<i>ST</i>) brilliant where's the bottle (<i>ST</i>) where is the diary (<i>ST</i>)
33	brilliant well done where is the diary (<i>ST</i>) where is the diary (<i>ST</i>) where is the diary
34	(<i>ST</i>) brilliant well done where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) in front of (<i>ST</i>) <i>OK</i> ? Where is the pen
35	(<i>ST</i>) well done where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) well done where is the pen (<i>ST</i>) very good
36	where is the where is the diary (<i>ST</i>) brilliant you see in between but also we say the
37	diary is on the right hand side (<i>ST</i>) brilliant <i>OK</i> ? So where is the diary (<i>ST</i>)
38	where is the diary (<i>ST</i>) where is the diary (<i>ST</i>) where is the mobile phone (<i>ST</i>)
39	brilliant well done that was very very well done
40	<i>OK</i> Let's have a look at this picture <i>can everybody see this picture</i> ? Do you want
41	to have a closer look and then pass it round (<i>ST</i>) Manet <i>OK</i> this is the painter's
42	name Edward (<i>ST</i>) <i>OK</i> ? Let's em let's have a look at this can you tell me where
43	are the oranges (<i>ST</i>) where are the oranges (<i>ST</i>) very good on the table (<i>ST</i>) of the
44	girl (<i>ST</i>) mm hm (<i>ST</i>) it's difficult it is on the left hand side but this way it's on the
45	right hand side we'll just say on the right hand side where are the flowers where are
46	the flowers (<i>ST</i>) on the table also (<i>ST</i>) brilliant well done fantastic <i>what did you</i>
47	<i>just say</i> ? (<i>ST</i>) Next to (<i>ST</i>) well done very good where is the man (<i>ST</i>) brilliant
48	well done can you see the man (<i>ST</i>) with the moustache (<i>ST</i>) <i>OK</i> ? (<i>ST</i>) I think
49	she's a waitress (<i>ST</i>) and this is a bar can you see the bottles champagne so where
50	are all the bottles of champagne (<i>ST</i>) also (<i>ST</i>) fireplace (<i>ST</i>) ah I see no it's just er
51	it looks like it it's very difficult to see isn't it (<i>ST</i>) yes very good in front of
52	another table (<i>ST</i>) <i>OK</i> ? What is in the top left hand corner (<i>ST</i>) corner this is a

53 corner OK? This is the top this is the bottom so if this is the right this is the left top
 54 left hand corner top right hand corner what is in the top left hand corner what is in
 55 the top left hand corner (ST) what is in the top left hand corner (ST) the man OK?
 56 So what is in the bottom right hand corner (ST) very good very good what is in the
 57 bottom left hand corner (ST) very easy OK em do you know what we call this here
 58 this is the back isn't it behind the girl is the back and do you know what we call it
 59 in English (ST) we call it the background OK? So this here is the background OK
 60 when it's behind me OK behind me it's the background OK? It's called the
 61 background can you say it background (ST) background OK so it's the background
 62 OK so tell me what can you see in the background (ST) very good people and what
 63 are the people doing (ST) drinking and (ST) eating yeah so is the girl in the
 64 background is the girl in the background is the girl in the background is the girl in
 65 the background this girl is she in the background em what do we call what is in
 66 front of you we call the foreground OK so we have the (ST) and the (ST)
 67 foreground OK? This is how we spell it foreground can everybody say it together
 68 foreground (ST) foreground brilliant well done (ST) em yes you're right you
 69 could say that for example my background is that I em I grew up in Liverpool my
 70 background is I went to school the background is everything that's behind you
 71 OK? So we can say this is the background but also my background my background
 72 I am English I was born in Liverpool OK so your background is everything at the
 73 back of you but foreground only means what is in front OK especially with a
 74 painting so if you think about background and foreground where are the oranges
 75 (ST) em and where are these people (ST) are the bottles in the background or the
 76 foreground (ST) brilliant well done

77 Let's have a look at some of these other paintings here these are by other famous
 78 artists if you want to have a look OK? This is by Renoir OK? Renoir here's his
 79 name on the back this is also by Renoir this is by Van Gogh we looked at Van
 80 Gogh last week didn't we and this is by Renoir as well (ST) Ren (ST) oir (ST,
 81 laughter) He's French (ST)[If you'd like to work together and maybe choose a
 82 postcard so Vivian and Jenny you work together Lawrence and Sue you work
 83 together and you you choose a postcard] (hands round postcards) OK? So maybe
 84 em that's right can you ask some questions about these paintings

(Teacher-independent activity)

85 OK can we have a look at this one tell me do you think this girl is sad or is she
 86 happy (ST) sad (ST) boring why yeah so maybe she's very good she looks sad do
 87 you think the painting is a happy painting or a sad painting (ST) yeah (ST) yeah so
 88 do you think it's er difference the girl is very sad yes you're right she's not looking
 89 (ST) yeah (ST) how about this painting is this happy (ST) why (ST) summer also
 90 how do people feel they're (ST) and they're (ST) smiling how do you know they're
 91 happy how do you know (ST) so do you think they're having a good time (ST)
 92 maybe it's a café (ST) very good what about this one people walking through (ST)
 93 beautiful picture you like this picture (ST) do you think this picture is sad or do you
 94 think it's lively is it a happy painting or a sad painting (ST) yes spring (ST)
 95 comforting why (ST) mm hm (ST) so it's new isn't it (ST) very good and this one
 96 finally what do you think of this painting happy (ST) the title in English exciting
 97 write it down for me (ST) because they're naked because they have no clothes so
 98 it's bad naughty or rude the painting you can't really tell can you not very naughty
 99 not very bad so do you think this is a happy painting a lively painting (ST) so how
 100 does it make you feel when you look how do you feel (ST) cold (ST) how do you
 101 feel (ST) yeah (ST) yeah (ST) yeah OK that's right well that's it for this week and
 102 thank you very much everybody thank you (ST)

Fig. 5.2.2 Transcript of Jane’s Upper Level Class (only Teacher’s words given)

Line	TEACHER FRONTED INTERACTION
1	Did you have a nice weekend what did you do at the weekend what did you do
2	(ST)you went travelling where did you go (ST)very nice what did you think
3	(ST)yeah was the weather nice (ST)it didn't rain (ST)on Saturday (ST)
4	yeah did anybody feel the earthquake yesterday in Nottingham(ST) yeah? What
5	did you think (ST) yeah it wasn't very long (ST)(ST) three point eight on the
6	Richter Scale but it was about <i>half past three in the afternoon?</i> (ST)
7	Half past three (ST)yeah the watch yeah it went forward yesterday but apparently
8	we haven't had an earthquake in Nottingham like that for two hundred and fifty
9	years (ST)yeah so we all felt the earthquake yesterday we I thought it was quite
10	scary because I've never felt an earthquake before (ST)
11	T: So where was the centre?
12	Er in Leicester somewhere in Leicester
13	T: Oh good
14	Yeah it wasn't here.
15	T: We must have been on the edge of it cos half our street came out and the other
16	didn't.
17	(ST)Well on the Richter Scale(ST)on the Richter Scale(ST)it was three point
18	eight.(ST)yeah(ST)just for two seconds I think the really strong earthquakes they're
19	about eight <i>aren't they?</i> (ST) They're the really big ones.
20	But anyway I'm going to follow on a little bit from what Leanne has done today but
21	now what's this (ST)yeah. what's a brain (ST)(ST)perfect perfect yes can you
22	explain it to the rest of the class (ST)mmhmm. <i>Does everybody understand tha?t,</i>
23	do you understand what the brain is yeah well have a read of this this is from the
24	dictionary <i>OK?</i> So brainstorm is a moment in which one is suddenly unable to
25	think clearly or act sensibly but this is what we're looking at here number two a
26	spontaneous discussion to produce ideas and ways to solve a problem.
27	OK so I'll put this in the middle and if everybody can take a pen take a colour there
28	you go (choose colours)any colour now if we were going to do a brainstorm of
29	hobbies what would we do you've got this piece of paper here what would we
30	do(ST) mmhm if we were going to use this piece of paper here to make a
31	brainstorm what's the first thing we'd do yeah do you want to write down maybe
32	hobbies anyone Henry just write hobbies in the middle do you want me to write it
33	on the board for you (writes)(ST) [Now this is really similar to what you've done
34	with Leanne so what I want you to do is everybody with your pens write down
35	some ideas on this piece of paper (ST)yes draw a line and then write your ideas
36	what you do in your spare time exactly like that if you can reach over and put your
37	ideas down this should be easy peasy now for you OK let's see how many ideas
38	you can get on there OK if you can think of more write down I want as many as
39	you can think of]
	(Teacher-independent activity)
40	Shall we show it to the others (ST) shall we show it to the others let them see what
41	we've done (laughs) cricket cricket (ST) do you want to explain what's cricket (ST)
42	A bat (ST) yeah (ST) it happens in er sort of a big field big arena and people watch
43	on the side and you have three like a goal post type of thing you have three three
44	things here like this OK and then you have a man who stands here with a bat OK
45	with a bat OK and then the person here throws the ball and then you hit the ball
46	and then people catch the ball but you have something on top here and if these are
47	knocked over then the man's out and that's how they play cricket it's a bit like em
48	baseball but people don't have to run round it's traditionally British yeah shall we
49	show everyone else

50	Right now you all know what your favourite hobbies are but what are other
51	people's so if you all take one of these (hands out worksheets) now <i>do you</i>
52	<i>understand all the things on here?</i> Number ten it's a saw <i>does everybody know</i>
53	<i>what this thing is here?</i> Number ten this thing here and what do you do with a saw
54	(ST) yes and you cut the wood and then you have two halves (ST) yeah mmhm
55	that's right what about anybody else <i>have you got anything else on the card that</i>
56	<i>you don't understand?</i> What number is number seven do you know what a concert
57	is (ST) can anyone explain what a concert is (ST)what's a concert (ST) yes a concert
58	number seven (ST) <i>does everybody else understand</i> all the different items on the
59	cards? (ST) Yeah
60	OK now what these are these are Christmas shopping OK go at Christmas time (ST)
61	this one yeah which one (ST) these (ST) em has anybody got an idea what these are
62	(ST) biscuits (ST) biscuits cookies (ST) biscuits so you know all the names of all the
63	items [Right now it's time for you to do your Christmas shopping OK so you need
64	to find five people who you can buy each of these presents for OK? So you've got
65	to stand up OK? Everybody stand up OK? Everybody stand up OK right now you
66	need to move about the room OK talk to everybody and you need to ask them em
67	you've got to find out what their hobbies are what their interests are so then you
68	can find out which presents you'll give them OK? (ST) <i>Do you understand?</i>] (ST)
69	Which one (ST) I think it's like a magazine
	(Teacher-independent activity)
70	Alright then who would you buy presents for who would you buy presents for who
71	would you give your presents to Adel what have you got (ST) what number are you
72	number two OK and who did you give them to (ST) yep (ST) hm (ST) teapot teapot
73	(ST) yeah anybody else does anybody else want to tell me who would you buy your
74	presents for Kevin who would you buy your presents for (ST) yeah (ST) (ST) (ST)
75	<i>can everyone see that?</i> Anybody else like to tell me what they'd give somebody
76	(ST) yeah (ST) a chess board (ST) (ST) em a paint set (ST) or maybe a paint box
77	Right now this is for you to do if you want at home it's a bit of a it's like it's like a
78	joke it's a bit of fun you don't have to do it but it's to find your your perfect partner
79	(Gives out sheet) and just very quickly are there any words you're not too sure of
80	<i>do you understand all the words?</i>
81	Well do you want to fill this in now well if you like we can fill this in now so who
82	wants to read this out loud to me (ST) em your nationality Taiwanese (ST) very
83	good so do you want to read it out loud (ST) well done thank you now can you all
84	fill in these sections here <i>you all know what to put down for your occupation?</i>
85	(Teacher-independent activity) <i>and so have you all filled them in?</i> (Students
	continue activity)
86	OK well I'm going to take the sheets off you now and then next week I'm going to
87	come back with our perfect partners OK you'll have to wait and see (Students
88	continue activity) (ST) em it's up to you it's your choice you don't have to OK
89	well can I take them in then and next week I'll come back with your perfect partner
90	thank you very much only if you want me to it's only a joke OK (ST)

5.3 Operation Two, Lesson Focus and Staging

The Cohort One data as a whole provide language lessons of a range of types. There are lessons that focus on presentation and practice of new language, lessons that focus on practice and production of previously taught language, and lessons devoted to reading skills. Work on grammar, vocabulary, phonology and discourse is commonly referred to as having *language systems focus*, whereas reading, writing, speaking and listening activities have a *language skills focus* (Hedge, 2000:109-184,187-333): these terms are adopted in this study. Jane is typical of most Trainees in the study in using learning activities, or *tasks* (see Chapter 6 for definition and discussion of this term) to structure learning in both Lower and Upper Classes. Use of tasks necessitates clear segmentation of the lesson, into stages devoted to the tasks themselves, preceded by stages where tasks are set up, and followed by stages in which tasks are reflected upon and/or extension work is done. In Operation Two, grids showing the *lesson focus* and *lesson stages* for each audio-recorded lesson were created from the Cohort One lesson transcripts, with reference to the corresponding lesson plans. These grids would facilitate research into interactional differences that might arise from variation in the function of the stages. Figure 5.3.1 gives the stages for Jane's Lower Level Class, and Figure 5.3.2 for Jane's Upper Level Class. (*Lesson focus* and *lesson staging grids* are given in Appendix J).

Figure 5.3.1 Lesson Focus and Staging in Jane's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (Presentation and Practice of Prepositions of Place) Class Level: Lower Intermediate Class Duration: 45 minutes Materials: Realia, postcards
STAGING Stage 1: Present language - Prepositions of Place Stage 2: Set up Stage 3 Task Stage 3: Task – Practise Prepositions of Place Stage 4: Feedback from Stage 3 Task Stage 5: Further Practice – also Prepare for Stage 7 Task Stage 6: Set up Stage 7 Task Stage 7: Task – Describing paintings Stage 8: Further Vocabulary Review and Close

Fig. 5.3.2 Lesson Focus and Staging in Jane's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: COMMUNICATION TASK (Practice/Production of leisure vocabulary and function of expressing preference) Class Level: Upper Intermediate Class Duration: 35 minutes Materials: 3 Overhead projector slides, game cards, questionnaires, paper and pens
STAGING Stage 1: General Chat Stage 2: Set up Stage 3 Task Stage 3: Task – Brainstorming Vocabulary Stage 4: Feedback from Stage 3 Task Stage 5: Preteach Vocabulary for Stage 7 Task Stage 6: Set up Stage 7 Task Stage 7: Communication Task – Choosing suitable presents Stage 8: Feedback from Stage 7 Task Stage 9: Check Vocabulary for Stage 11 Task Stage 10: Familiarise language needed for Stage 11 Task Stage 11: Task – Fill in questionnaire Stage 12: Take in questionnaires and Close

5.4 Operation Three, Global Interaction

In Operation Three, the audio-recorded data were interrogated in terms of the balance of teacher-generated and student-generated talk (see Ellis' *participatory structures* referred to in Chapter 3, Section 3.6). To do this, the Lesson Staging Grids were used, together with the lesson transcripts, to produce pie charts showing *global interaction patterns* for each lesson. These gave the percentage and segmentation of lesson time spent in whole

class interaction between teacher and students (henceforth *teacher-fronted*), compared with the percentage of lesson time spent by students working independently of the teacher (henceforth *teacher-independent*). Six global interaction patterns were identified, and these are described below. (The patterns are coded using upper case, thus serving to distinguish ST, denoting a global interaction pattern, from the italicised *ST* that denotes a student turn).

In *teacher-fronted* lesson stages, information can flow from Teacher to students (coded TS), or from students to teacher (coded ST). Using Jane's Lower Level lesson as an example, the TS pattern occurs in Figure 5.2.1 at Lines 25-30:

Jane: Now I'd like you to work together Sue and Lawrence Vivian and Jenny if you work together

The only example of the *ST* pattern occurring in Cohort One data is in Jane's Upper Level Class. It is exemplified in Figure 5.2.2 at Lines 70-74, where Jane takes feedback from the communication task:

Jane: Kevin who would you buy your presents for (ST) yeah (ST) (ST) (ST)

Most of the stretches of teacher-fronted work in these lessons involve combinations of TS and ST, in two-way interaction, either initiated mostly by the teacher, with some student input (TSST), or alternatively initiated mostly by the students, with some teacher input (STTS). In Figure 5.2.1, for

example, the TSST pattern occurs at Lines 77-84, where Jane is giving information about artists' names. Jane is typical of the other Cohort One Trainees in using the TSST pattern for transmitting and checking understanding of information:

Jane: This is by Renoir as well (ST) Ren (ST) oir (ST) he's French (ST)

The STTS pattern is exemplified in Figure 5.2.1 at Lines 1-24, where information is elicited from Students through the use of real objects (realia):

Jane: Where is the pen (ST) on the table Ok where is the pen (ST) very good next to

Jane is typical of the other Cohort One Trainees in using the STTS pattern in eliciting new language prior to presenting it, and in getting feedback from tasks.

In *teacher-independent* segments, students may work either alone (S), or collaboratively by interacting in pairs or groups (SS). In Jane's case, in Figure 5.2.2, the SS pattern occurs between Lines 69 and 70, and the S pattern between Lines 84 and 85. Jane's Lower Class is typical of most Cohort One Trainee lessons at the Lower Level in having students working in pairs rather than alone. Students in Jane's Upper Class do work alone, however, and this is so for most other Cohort One Upper Level Classes.

In my terms, then, global interaction patterns are of six types: TS, ST, TSST, STTS, SS and S. Using these codes, Figure 5.4.3 shows the *global*

interaction patterns for Jane's Lower Level Class, and Figure 5.4.4 for Jane's Upper Level Class. (Global interaction charts for other audio-recorded lessons are given as Appendix I).

Figure 5.4.3 Global Interaction Patterns in Jane's Lower Level Class

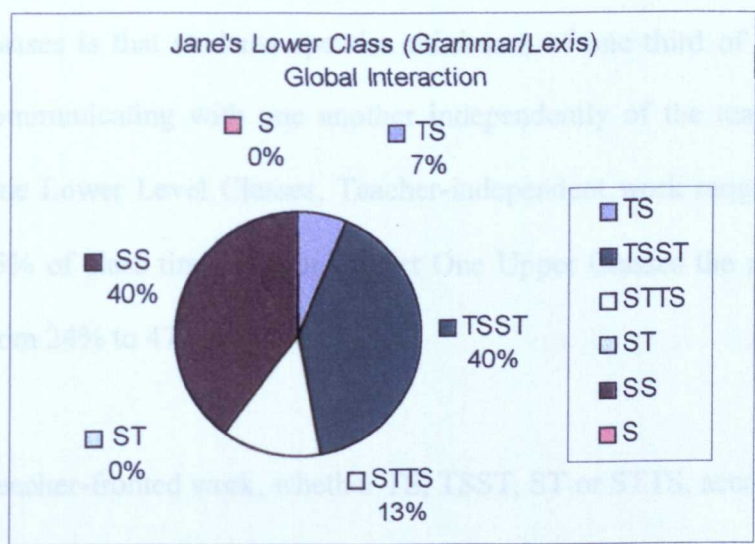
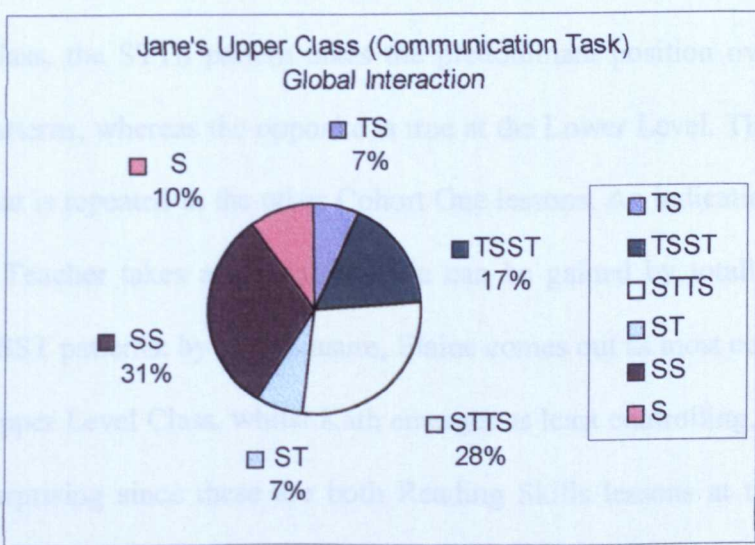


Figure 5.4.4 Global Interaction Patterns in Jane's Upper Level Class



The charts shown here and in Appendix I reveal that Jane uses four of the six available global interaction types in her Lower Class, the average

number used by the Cohort One Trainees at either Level, but she is alone amongst the Cohort One participants in using the full range of six global interaction patterns (she does this in her Upper Level Class).

Regarding global interaction distribution as a whole, a feature of both Jane's classes is that students spend a minimum of one third of the lesson time communicating with one another independently of the teacher. In Cohort One Lower Level Classes, Teacher-independent work ranges from 26% to 45% of class time, and in Cohort One Upper Classes the range is similar, from 24% to 47%.

Teacher-fronted work, whether TS, TSST, ST or STTS, accounts for 60% of class time at the Lower Level and 59% of class time at the Upper Level in Jane's classes. This finding is in line with earlier research findings (e.g. Nunan, 1991:190). In Teacher-fronted segments in Jane's Upper Level Class, the STTS pattern takes the predominant position over TS or TSST patterns, whereas the opposite is true at the Lower Level. This is a tendency that is repeated in the other Cohort One lessons. An indication of how much a Teacher takes a controlling role can be gained by totalling the TS and TSST patterns: by this measure, Elaine comes out as most controlling, in her Upper Level Class, whilst Kath emerges as least controlling. This finding is surprising since these are both Reading Skills lessons at the higher level. Closer inspection reveals that most of Kath's teacher-fronted work is elicitation of feedback from reading tasks. Another difference relates to the percentage of teacher-independent work in Kath's and Elaine's Reading

Skills classes. The percentage in both is exactly the same, at 38%. However, in Kath's lesson, most of this is represented by students engaged in lone silent reading, with some peer checking in pairs, whereas in Elaine's lesson there is a long stretch devoted to reading a dialogue aloud in pairs.

The once-advocated aim for equal distribution between *teacher talking time* (TTT) and *student talking time* (STT) now seems to have given way to a concern for the *quality* rather than the *amount* of TTT (Walsh, 2001;2002a;2002b;2003a;2003b). This debate is of interest to me, as it is teacher-fronted segments that are the focus of my investigations.

5.5 Operation Four, Detailed Interaction

In Operation Four, in order to probe the nature of the teacher-fronted interaction further, the previously identified patterns (coded TS, TSST, STTS, ST, SS and S) were mapped against the timing and stages of each audio-recorded lesson, to reveal the balance and weighting of interaction patterns across each lesson as a whole. In addition, these codes were subjected to coding extensions, according to whether the interaction was *form-focused* (Paradigm 1) or *communication-focused* (Paradigm 2) (see Chapter 3). The categories generated from this extension process were TS1, ST1, TS2, ST2, SS1, SS2, S1 and S2. In two-way interaction between teacher and students, further coding extensions are also possible, e.g. TS1ST1, TS2ST1, ST1TS1, and so on. Where both paradigms are in evidence, the resulting codes reflect this occurrence, e.g. TS12ST12. Some

examples from Jane's lessons will demonstrate how the extended coding system has been applied.

In Figure 5.2.2 at Lines 77-80, Jane sets up a task. This stage consists of one-way interaction from teacher to students (TS), but the language is meaning-focused (Paradigm 2), and hence the stage is coded as TS2:

Jane: Right now this is for you to do if you want at home it's a bit of a it's like it's like a joke

The TS2 code is used for the management-related language that Willis (see Chapter 3, Section 3.4) refers to as being on the *outer level* of classroom discourse, but is also used for *natural* language (McCarthy, 1991:145) of a kind that might be encountered outside the classroom context. For example, in Figure 5.2.2, Lines 1-19, language is elicited from the students by the teacher (STTS). Here, both teacher and students use real-world language, and hence this interactive segment is given the code ST2TS2:

Jane: Did anybody feel the earthquake yesterday in Nottingham (ST) Yeah? What did you think? (ST) Yeah it wasn't very long (ST) (ST) Three point eight on the Richter Scale

An interesting occurrence happens in Jane's Lower Level Class at Figure 5.2.1, Lines 77-84, where the Trainee uses real-world language to tell the class about art works (hence code TS2), but the students merely repeat the name, *Renoir*, thus focusing their utterances on form only (code ST1). This segment of interaction between Teacher and Students is therefore coded overall as TS2ST1.

Sometimes in Jane’s classes the interaction involves a dual focus, on *form* as well as on *communication*, in categories that combine the two paradigms, i.e. TS12, ST12, SS12, S12. For example, there is a communication task that takes place at Figure 5.2.2 between Lines 69 and 70, where the students incorporate form-focussed work into their real-world speaking task, and so this stage is coded as SS12. An example of a case where both teacher and students use dual focus is the beginning of Figure 5.2.1, Lines 1-24, coded as ST12TS12, where information is given by the students to the teacher, and by the teacher to the students, with a focus on both *form* (prepositions of place) and *function* (describing location of objects):

Jane: *The bottle of water where is it (ST) can you think of another word you can say on but can we we can say on (ST) on top of (ST)*

Detailed interaction charts are shown for Jane’s Lower Level Class and Upper Level Class as Figures 5.5.1 and 5.5.2, respectively (Further detailed interaction charts are given in Appendix J):

Figure 5.5.1 Detailed Interaction Patterns in Jane’s Lower Level Class

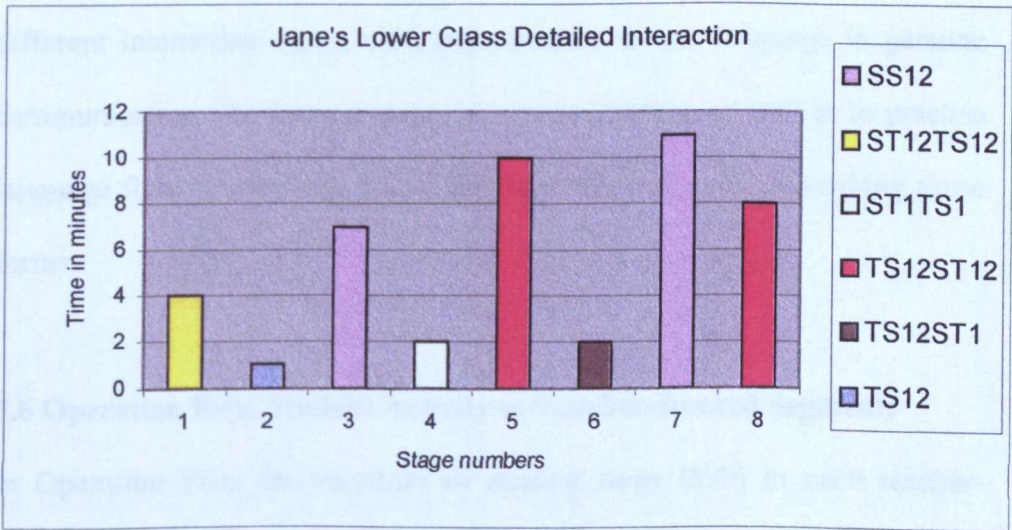
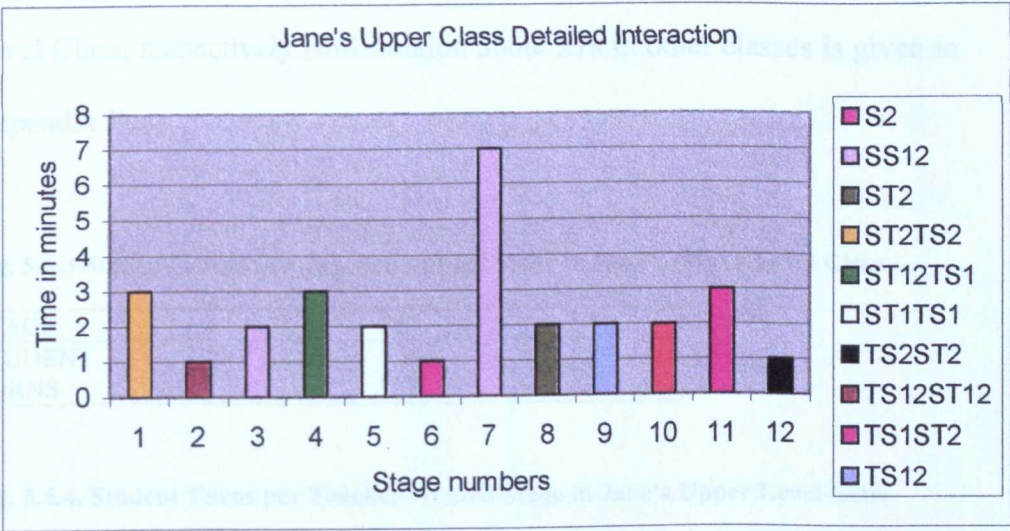


Figure 5.5.2 Detailed Interaction Patterns in Jane’s Upper Level Class



Categorising utterances into *detailed interaction patterns* as in Figures 5.5.1 and 5.5.2 facilitates differentiation between those stages in a lesson where the interaction seems typical of language classroom settings, and those where it resembles real-world language use. Such a categorisation also reveals the number, type and length of interaction opportunities offered to learners in any one lesson: Jane’s Upper Level students have exposure to ten different interaction types, with opportunities to use language in genuine communication (the longest stage, at seven minutes), as well as to practise language forms and to use meta-language appropriate for describing those forms.

5.6 Operation Five, Student Activity in Teacher-fronted Segments

In Operation Five, the numbers of *student turns* (STs) in each teacher-fronted lesson segment were charted. Counting the number of turns

measures student activity in these teacher-fronted segments. Figures 5.6.3 and 5.6.4 chart the numbers of *STs* for Jane’s Lower Level Class and Upper Level Class, respectively (Information about *STs* in other classes is given in Appendix J).

Fig. 5.6.3 Student Turns per Teacher-fronted Stage in Jane’s Lower Level Class

STAGE	1	4	5	6	8
STUDENT TURNS	40	18	38	4	29

Fig. 5.6.4. Student Turns per Teacher-fronted Stage in Jane’s Upper Level Class

STAGE	1	2	4	5	6	8	10	12
STUDENT TURNS	18	6	4	12	3	14	3	2

The process of cross-referencing the information gained from Operation Five with that gained from Operations Two and Four reveals that pure TS patterns, i.e. devoid of *STs*, occur in the Cohort One classroom data only when setting up learning activities. It may be that clear instruction giving requires this pattern.

At the extremes, in terms of overall quantity of *STs* in any given lesson, are Elaine’s Lower Level Class with 139 and her Upper Level Class with 61. The fact that the first is a Language Systems-focused Pronunciation lesson, with many repetition drills, whereas the latter is a Skills-focused Reading lesson, points to lesson type as a potentially significant variable here.

The greatest number of *STs* in a teacher-fronted stage in Jane’s Lower Class occurs at Stage 1, the stage in which language is presented. This is coded

ST12TS12, i.e. where information flows from students to teacher and where contributions contain both Paradigm 1 and Paradigm 2 language. The greatest number of STs in a Teacher-fronted stage in Jane's Upper Level Class also occurs at Stage 1, a stage of general chat. This is coded ST2TS2, i.e. where information flows from students to teacher in real-world, Paradigm 2 language. Overall evidence from Cohort One data thus reveals an interactive role for the warm-up stage, whatever the class level or focus.

Lessons that contain what I shall call *rich interaction* are those where there are a variety of interaction patterns, including a) both teacher-fronted and teacher-independent work; b) opportunities for students to interact with one another, and with the teacher; and c) occurrences of both Paradigm 1 and Paradigm 2 language. My Cohort One classroom data reveal, from Lavinia's class in particular, that, through the use of balanced teacher-fronted and teacher-independent activity, *rich interaction* can be achieved in systems-focus lessons, including those where presentation of new language takes place, just as well as in lessons devoted to production or review of previously taught language.

5.7 Operation Six, Exchange Structure in Context

According to the system devised by Sinclair and Coulthard (see Chapter 4 and Appendix C), *lessons* consist of a series of *boundary exchanges* and *teaching exchanges*. In Operation Six, the Sinclair-Coulthard system was applied to the classroom data, with close reference to Appendix C, in order to map it against lesson staging. This mapping process was designed to

reveal whether and how teachers structure their lesson stages by verbal means capable of being *noticed* by their learners (to use Schmidt's term, see Chapter 3, Section 3.6). It is exemplified here with reference to Jane's lessons, from which extracts are re-transcribed, with pausing added (), as Figures 5.7.1 and 5.7.2, respectively. Figure 5.7.1 corresponds to Figure 5.2.1, Lines 1-2, Lines 25-32 and Lines 101-102. Figure 5.7.2 corresponds to Figure 5.2.2, Lines 1-4, Lines 20-21 and Lines 64-73.

In Figures. 5.7.1 and 5.7.2, exchange structure rules apply: in these extracts, boundary exchanges follow the expected pattern of *framing* and *focusing* moves, and teaching exchanges contain many IRF patterns. However, as Willis (1992) has anticipated, other patterns are emerging as Language Teaching Methodology evolves, and modifications are evident here in Jane's lessons. One such evolutionary change relates to the structure of teaching exchanges: in both Jane's Lower and Upper Classes, for example, teacher-independent learning activities or *tasks* seem to be capable of taking the place of *answering* moves. In addition, teaching exchanges contain looped *focusing*, *opening* and *answering* moves that occur at stages where feedback from these tasks takes place.

Figure 5.7.1 Exchange Structure Elements in Jane's Lower Level Class

MOVE	PRELIMINARY BOUNDARY EXCHANGE	ACT
FRAMING	Well ()	Marker Silent Stress
FOCUSING	Today everybody we're going to look at () prepositions OK	Meta-statement Check
TEACHING EXCHANGE		
OPENING	So ()	Marker Silent Stress
ANSWERING	Can you tell me () Where is the bottle (ST)	Starter Elicit
	Where is it where (ST)	Prompt
FOLLOW UP	Brilliant	Evaluate
BOUNDARY EXCHANGE		
FRAMING	... Now ()	Marker Silent Stress
FOCUSING	I'd like you to work together () Sue and Lawrence () Vivian and Jenny () If you work together () You can use () some of these () your own () maybe a rubber a pen () er and a a book ()	Meta-statement Comment/Nominate Comment/Nominate Loop Informative Comment
LOOPED TEACHING EXCHANGE		
OPENING	And ()	Marker Silent Stress
REFOCUSING	And can you ask each other questions () OK	Directive Check
	So You work together () Jenny and Vivien () You ask Vivian () where is the book and () you can put it above () below () next to () on the right hand side () the left hand side () OK	Marker Directive Comment/Nominate Comment
ANSWERING REFOCUSING	Do you want to work together for five minutes () OK (Teacher-independent activity)	Check Loop Check
	So Let's come back together () and let's have a look together OK () Em ()	Marker Directive Check Marker
REOPENING REANSWERING FOLLOW-UP	Where is the phone (ST) Also (ST) Brilliant...	Elicitation Prompt Evaluate
TERMINAL BOUNDARY EXCHANGE		
FRAMING	... Well ()	Marker Silent Stress
FOCUSING	That's it for this week () and thank you very much everybody () thank you	Conclusion Acknowledge

Fig. 5.7.2 Exchange Structure Elements in Jane's Upper Level Class

MOVE	PRELIMINARY INFORMATION EXCHANGE	ACT
OPENING	Did you have a nice weekend	Elicitation
ANSWERING	What did you do at the weekend what did you do (ST)	Prompt
FOLLOW UP	You went travelling	Comment
OPENING	Where did you go (ST)	Elicitation
ANSWERING	Very nice	Evaluation
FOLLOW UP	What did you think (ST)	Elicitation
OPENING	Yeah	Accept
ANSWERING	Was the weather nice (ST)	Elicitation
FOLLOW UP	It didn't rain (ST)	Prompt
OPENING	On Saturday (ST) Yeah	Acknowledge
ANSWERING	Did anybody feel the earthquake () ...	Elicitation
FOLLOW UP		
OPENING	PRELIMINARY BOUNDARY EXCHANGE	
FRAMING	...But anyway ()	Marker
FOCUSING	I'm going to follow on a little bit from what Leanne has done today	Silent Stress Meta-statement
	TEACHING EXCHANGE	
OPENING	But now	Marker
ANSWERING	What's this (ST)	Elicitation
FOLLOW UP	Yeah ...	Accept
	BOUNDARY EXCHANGE	
FRAMING	Right ()	Marker
FOCUSING	Now	Silent Stress
	It's time for your to do your Christmas shopping	Marker
	OK ()	Meta-statement Check
	LOOPED TEACHING EXCHANGE	
OPENING	So	Marker
	You need to find five people () who you can buy () each of these presents for OK ()	Informative Check
	Right ()	Marker
	Now you need to move about the room ()	Informative
	OK	Check
	Talk to everybody ()	Comment
	And you need to ask them ()	Informative
	Em you've got to find out	Comment
	What their hobbies are ()	Informative
	What their interests are ()	Comment
	So then you can find out which presents () you'll give them OK (ST)	Informative Check
	Do you understand (ST)	Check
ANSWERING	(Teacher-independent activity)	
REFOCUSING	Alright then	Marker
REOPENING	Who would you buy presents for .	Elicitation
	Who would you buy presents for who would you give your presents to ()	Prompt
	Adel what have you got ()	Nomination
REANSWERING	(ST)	
FOLLOW UP	What number are you number two ()	Comment
	OK ...	Accept

Another kind of evolutionary change occurs in Jane's Upper Class, where there is what I have called a *preliminary information exchange*, preceding the first boundary exchange. This serves the purpose of a warm-up to the lesson in the form of general chat, in which *follow up* moves are not always present. In fact, in this lesson from Jane the IRF pattern breaks down after Line 4 and the talk resembles real-world language use, evidenced by greater numbers of student (and Tutor) initiations and comments:

Tutor: *We must have been on the edge of it cos half our street came out and the other didn't*

Jane: (ST) *Well on the Richter Scale (ST) on the Richter Scale (ST) it was three point eight (ST) yeah (ST) just for two seconds*

At Line 9, though, Jane slips back into Teacher role when summing up the discussion, '*so we all felt the earthquake yesterday*' (see Carter and McCarthy, 1997).

In terms of signalling lesson stages, many of the discourse markers identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (Coulthard, 1995) are evident in these extracts. *Well, now, right, all right then, so* and *silent stress* are used in *framing* and *focusing* moves, and *OK* is also common. In Jane's classroom data, though, *silent stress* often occurs in the *opening move* of teaching exchanges, and this can be preceded by *and* or *em* used as a discourse marker.

As a result of highlighting exchange structure, it was now possible to contextualise, following the sequence of each lesson as a whole, the functional exponents used in teacher-fronted interaction for structuring and

staging lessons. To effect this, simplified grids showing functional *lesson structuring exponents* were used in preference to the more detailed analysis into *acts* (Appendix C) as part of Operation Six (see Appendix J). Figure 5.7.3 shows the functional exponents used to structure Jane's Lower Class (Line numbers refer to Fig. 5.2.1), and Figure 5.7.4 shows those used to structure Jane's Upper Class (Line numbers refer to Fig. 5.2.2):

Figure 5.7.3 Lesson Structuring Exponents for Jane's Lower Class

LINE	EXPONENTS	FUNCTION
1	Well today everybody we're going to look at...	Setting lesson focus
25	Now I'd like you to work together ...	Setting up first task
31	So let's come back together and let's have a look	Signalling feedback
40	OK let's have a look at this picture ...	Signalling new activity
77	Let's have a look at some of these other paintings ...	Setting up new task
85	OK can we have a look at this one	Signalling feedback
101	OK That's right well that's it for this week	Closing

Figure 5.7.4 Lesson Structuring Exponents for Jane's Upper Class

LINE	EXPONENTS	FUNCTION
20	But anyway I'm going to follow on a little bit...	Signalling lesson start
27	OK so I'll put this ...	Setting up first task
40	Shall we show it to the others	Signalling feedback
50	Right now ...	Signalling new activity
60	OK now what these are these are ...	Setting up new task
70	Alright then	Signalling feedback
70	Right now this is for ...	Signalling new activity
81	Well do you want to ...	Signalling change plan
83	Now can you ...	Setting up task
85	OK well ...	Closing

From the evidence from Cohort One, it seemed that certain exponents, and especially certain lexical items, are recognisable as signalling devices, and that certain of what I am calling *classroom discourse markers* may be limited to either *macro* or *micro* functions. For example, in both Jane's lessons, *well* has the function of closing and/or opening the lesson, whilst *right* signals that an important activity will follow, and a complex setting up stage is about to begin. Tentative findings based on the Cohort One

evidence and discernible in Jane's data are: *well* signals an opening, a large shift in focus or a summing up, not necessarily planned; *right* signals a large, planned, shift of focus; *all right then* signals an important feedback stage; *now* signals the setting up of an activity; *if* signals management of the learner behaviour or grouping necessary for a task that is about to follow. *So* is a versatile signal and can herald either a continuation of instructions or an imminent feedback stage. *OK* is the most versatile signal of all, as it both marks the end of a stage and indicates that a new stage is imminent. It can also have a checking function. Intonation appears to play a large part in signalling whether these discourse markers have *macro-* or *micro-*structuring roles: a *falling* or *proclaiming tone* with wide pitch range is used for macro-markers such as *right* and *now then*, whereas a *level* tone is used for micro-markers such as *and*, *em* and *so*. The versatile *OK* starts at high pitch and falls to a low pitch when it is used in its staging function, but has *rising* or *referring tone* when used for checking understanding or eliciting feedback (all terms used here to describe features of intonation are from Brazil's notation system, see Brazil, 1985; 1995). Knowledge of the use of markers in signalling the importance of upcoming activity is potentially useful for teachers who plan to use teacher-independent language learning in their lessons.

5.8 Operation Seven, Interactional Adjustments

In Operation Seven, *speech rate*, *pausing*, *repetition* and *comprehension/confirmation checks* (see Chapter 3, Section 3.6) were

investigated in those Trainees who had provided audio-recorded data for both class levels. In Cohort One, these were Elaine, Jane and Leanne only.

Speech rate amongst native English speakers has been shown to take place at an overall rate of three to five syllables per second (Rost, 2002: 30). It is often difficult for Trainee Language Teachers, especially with Elementary or Lower Intermediate Classes, to find a speed of delivery in teacher talk that is intelligible yet does not compromise '*an overall sense of naturalness and normal articulation of speech*' (Marks, 2000). In my study, a simple tally, in syllables per second, was taken from stretches of teacher talk at its most fluent, i.e. from TS segments where they existed, or from segments closest to an uninterrupted TS pattern where they did not. Accordingly, in Jane's Lower Level Class, measurements were taken at Figure 5.2.1, Lines 25-30 and again at Lines 81-83. In Jane's Upper Level Class, measurements were taken at Figure 5.2.2, Lines 33-39, and again at Lines 63-68. (These segments are indicated by square brackets on Figures 5.2.1 and 5.2.2, and the results tabulated in Figure 5.8.1 below) In Jane's case, there were only two segments per level capable of being measured in this way, but other lessons provided greater choice. In all cases, the highest and lowest tallies were tabulated for each lesson (see Appendix K).

Pausing was measured in number of pauses per 100 words, using the same segments from which the speech rates were calculated. A pause was defined as any discernible break in continuous speech. In the Cohort One data pauses were not timed (they were in Phase Two). *Repetitions* were counted

in the same segments. The count included exact repetitions, e.g. Jane's 'stand up' (Fig.5.2.2, Line 65), rephrased repetition, e.g. Jane's 'write your ideas' rephrased as 'put your ideas down' (Fig.5.2.2, Lines 35-36), and brief explanations or glosses, e.g. Elaine's gloss (Fig. 5.8.2) on 'somebody you know' as 'somebody in your family, somebody that you know from college'. The results for *pausing* and *repetition* for Jane are given in Figure 5.8.1 (and for other Trainees in Appendix K).

Figure 5.8.1 Speech Rate/Pausing/Repetition in Jane's Lessons (highest and lowest)

SYLLABLES PER SECOND LOWER LEVEL	SYLLABLES PER SECOND UPPER LEVEL	PAUSES PER 100 WORDS LOWER LEVEL	PAUSES PER 100 WORDS UPPER LEVEL	NUMBER OF REPETI- TIONS LOWER LEVEL	NUMBER OF REPETI- TIONS UPPER LEVEL
3.26	3.47	32	20	3	3
3.07	3.37	28	14	1	2

In Cohort One the tendencies are evident, though subtle: all three Trainees show adjustments in the direction of slower speech and more pauses for the Lower Level Class, *within their own parameters*. For example, Jane has the fastest overall rate of speech, and Leanne the slowest, yet both differentiate their speech rates according to Class Level. In Elaine's case, though her speeds overlap, there is still a difference between her slowest speed at the Lower Level and her slowest speed at the Upper Level. She also has the fewest pauses overall, but still makes adjustments in the same direction as the other Trainees.

The Cohort One data, especially at the Lower Level, display greater numbers of sense groups than might be used in casual speech between

native speakers, with some markedly different pause placements. For example, Elaine's Lower Level Class displays particularly clear segmentation in Figure 5.8.2, pausing for salience purposes after *all*, *somebody* and *maybe*. It also shows a number of reformulations, glosses and exact repetitions (italicised in the extract). Repetitions occur in the Cohort One data as a result of comprehension difficulties, but they are also used for focussing students' attention, for making new language salient, for grouping, or, as in Elaine's example, for clarity in setting up tasks.

Figure 5.8.2 Repetition and Clear Segmentation in Elaine's Lower Level Class

// So // just to finish // I would like you all // to use *these phrases* // about *somebody that you know* // I want you to *describe somebody that you know* // using *one of these English idioms* // OK so just think about it for two minutes // and then I want to hear about *somebody* // in your family // or *somebody that you know* from college // or maybe // *somebody that you've seen on television* // and *describe them* // using *one of these* // or maybe a situation // maybe something that happened to you // use *one of these sentences* // use *one of these phrases* and make a sentence for me //

With regard to *confirmation/comprehension checks*, the checking function of the marker, *OK* was mentioned in the discussion of Exchange Structure above. In Cohort One data, *OK* is very frequently used for checking, especially at the Lower Level: Jane uses it 23 times, for example (see Figure 5.2.1). However, at the Upper Level, checks are often more fully verbalised into question forms, e.g. in Figure 5.2.2 at Lines 58 and 84:

Jane: Does everybody else understand? You all know what to put down for your occupation? And so have you all filled them in?

Checks are normally accompanied by rising intonation and are highlighted on these transcripts by means of italics and the placing of a question mark after the utterance concerned.

Routines were noted in the use of lexical signals for whole lesson staging (see Section 5.7 above). The sequencing of such macro and micro markers in the ways described can provide predictability and safety for students. Routinised patterns have emerged through the micro-analysis so far undertaken of individual teacher-fronted lesson segments. For example, Jane's preferred sequence for marking a new stage is, *metastatement/check/starter*, e.g. Fig. 5.2.1, Lines 1, 31, 40:

*Jane: We're going to look at prepositions/OK?/So can you tell me ...
Let's have a look together/OK?/ Where is the phone?
Let's have a look at this picture/Can everybody see this picture?/Can you tell me...*

In those segments where setting up of learning activities takes place, routines include set sequences for functions such as starting, getting attention, focusing on task requirements, managing behaviour, repeating requirements, and setting time limits. These functions will be discussed more fully in Chapter 7, Section 7.7 and sample exponents are given in Appendix L.

5.9 Conclusion

In this Chapter, I have described seven operations that were performed on my Cohort One classroom data, and I have noted preliminary findings, as

follows, which I relate here to my research questions in Chapter 4, Section 4.11.

The purpose of Operations One to Five was to explore the nature and type of *interaction* occurring in the classroom data under investigation. After transcribing the classroom data and determining Focus and Staging for each lesson, Global Interaction Charts were generated, showing the percentage of class time spent in teacher-fronted and teacher-independent work. Teacher-independent activity ranged between one third and one half of the total class time in the data overall. Six Global Interaction Patterns were identified, coded TS, TSST, STTS, ST, SS and S. The functions of these patterns in the Cohort One data were:

- TS for setting up tasks;
- TSST for transmitting/checking information, e.g. presenting new language;
- STTS for eliciting new language before presenting it and in feedback;
- ST for feedback, a rarely used pattern, especially at the lower level;
- SS for paired or group practice, used most at the lower level;
- S for individual work, used most at the higher level.

A gauge of teacher control was afforded by totalling the TS and TSST patterns. For the teacher-fronted stages, the number of learner contributions, i.e. Student Turns, were charted, and the importance of the initial warm-up stage of a lesson in engendering learner contributions, regardless of lesson focus, was noted. Detailed Interaction Charts were computed, using coding

extensions that showed whether the language generated related to Paradigm 1, i.e. language *form*, or Paradigm 2, i.e. language *use*. These charts revealed the amount, type and length of the various interaction opportunities given in each class. Rich Interaction was posited to occur in lessons that included focus on both Paradigm 1 and Paradigm 2 language, and that afforded a variety of interaction patterns, with both teacher-fronted and teacher-independent work, and opportunities for learners to interact with one another as well as with the teacher.

Operations Six and Seven were concerned not only with observing how the Trainee Teachers *fostered interaction* in their classes, but also with how they *managed and structured learning*. In Exchange Structure terms, it was found that learning activities or tasks could take the place of answering moves. Lesson structuring was achieved lexically via Classroom Discourse Markers, employed in recognisable and routinised sequences. Speech rate, pausing, repetition, clarification and comprehension checks were used not only as interactional adjustments, but for salience and management, especially in setting up activities for language learning.

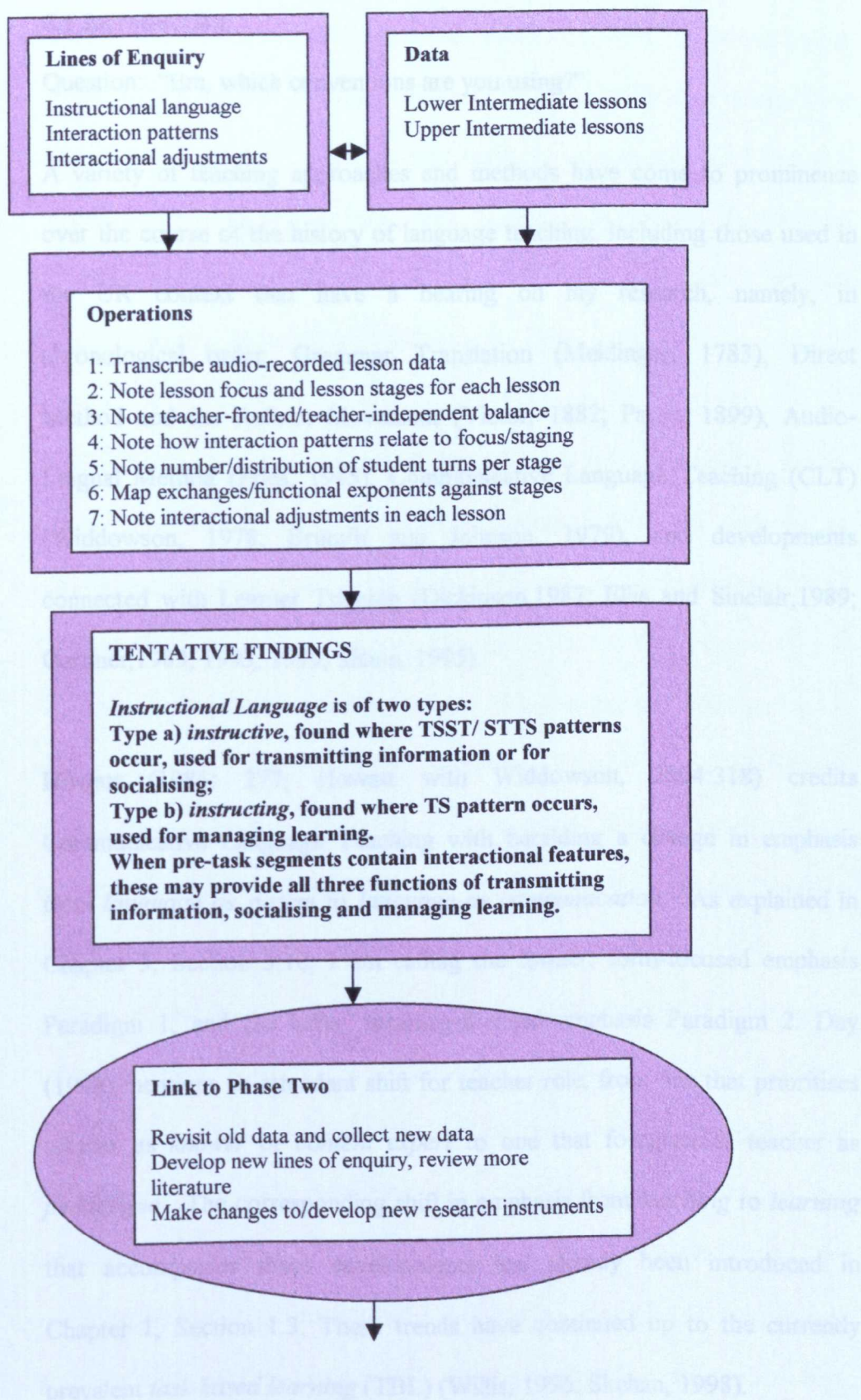
As I come to the end of my report of Phase One of my research, I conclude this Chapter with a visual summary of the state of its progress, with reference to the framework set out in Figure 4.14.1. This summary is given as Figure 5.9.1. and its implications are given below.

I embarked on this project with only a vague concept of what *instructional language* might consist of. As a result of my analysis thus far, I am now in a position to define what I mean by *instructional language*. To paraphrase VanPatten (2004) any target language that is uttered during a language lesson provides *input* that students can attend to, and input is a necessary requirement for acquisition. Therefore, any teacher-generated target language may, in these terms, be characterised as *instructional*. However, it appears that there is a distinction to be made within *instructional language* between, a) language whose function is *instructive* and, b) language that is used for *instructing*, i.e. for the management-related function of *giving instructions*. On the evidence of my Cohort One data, Type a) can be used flexibly, either for transmitting information or for socialising, typically in TSST or STTS interaction patterns; whereas Type b) appears to have the primary function of managing learning, for which the narrowly focussed TS pattern seems well suited. Interaction-related aspects like those discussed in Section 5.8 above, together with affective factors yet to be discussed, can also play a part in segments primarily devoted to *instructing*, and it may be that, when they do, these segments provide a concentrated cocktail of *instructional language*, fulfilling all three functions, i.e transmitting information, socialising, AND managing learning.

In this Chapter, the reporting of Phase One of my data analysis has highlighted the influence of clear lesson focus and staging on interaction, and, in particular, an important relationship between *rich interaction* and the use of what are variously defined in the literature as *activities*, *exercises* or

tasks for language learning: these are terms that now needed to be defined more closely. Accordingly, before proceeding further, a supplementary literature review was undertaken in the field of Language Teaching Methodology, with special reference to task-oriented approaches, prior to the collection of more data for Phase Two of my research. This review is the focus of Chapter 6.

Figure 5. 9.1 Iterative Research Framework Revisited, End Phase One



CHAPTER 6: THE RULES OF PLAY

6.1 Introduction

Question: “Em, which conventions are you using?”

A variety of teaching approaches and methods have come to prominence over the course of the history of language teaching, including those used in the UK context that have a bearing on my research, namely, in chronological order, Grammar Translation (Meidinger, 1783), Direct Method and the Reform Movement (Vietor, 1882; Passy, 1899), Audio-Lingual Method (Fries, 1945), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit and Johnson, 1979), and developments connected with Learner Training (Dickinson, 1987; Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Gardner, 1983, 1993, 1999; Slavin, 1995).

Howatt (1985: 277; Howatt with Widdowson, 2004:318) credits Communicative Language Teaching with heralding a change in emphasis from *language as system* to *language as communication*. As explained in Chapter 3, Section 3.10, I am calling the former, form-focused emphasis Paradigm 1, and the latter, meaning-focused emphasis Paradigm 2. Day (1993) mentions an attendant shift for teacher role, from one that prioritises teacher as *knower* or *content expert* to one that foregrounds teacher as *pedagogue*. The corresponding shift in emphasis from *teaching* to *learning* that accompanies these developments has already been introduced in Chapter 1, Section 1.3. These trends have continued up to the currently prevalent *task based learning* (TBL) (Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1998).

Some of the tenets of mainstream methodologies that are of relevance to my research are summarised in the *methods grid* in Appendix Q, which points up parallels between the developments in Philosophy and Linguistics charted in Chapter 3, and corresponding developments in Language Teaching Methodology, discussed here. It also contextualises the work of Wittgenstein, who himself spent a period of employment as a teacher, within the context of the Reform Movement.

In this study, I am concerned with teacher knowledge relating to *lesson content and focus, classroom activities, teacher role and patterns of interaction*, corresponding to four of Richards' core knowledge base domains that I have conflated into two (see Chapter 1, Section 1.1), i.e. *theoretical and subject matter knowledge* and *teaching and communication skills*. The methodological paradigm shift from *teacher* to *student* can be tracked along several dimensions (see Appendix Q). In terms of my *content and focus* category, the movement is from prescribed literary texts to student generated material; from what is to be learned to the process of learning it; and from a narrow focus on the grammar and vocabulary of written language to one that takes account of language skills and attends to both written and spoken modes. In terms of my *teacher role* category, the movement is from a narrow controlling and transmitting role to that of co-participant or facilitator. In terms of *activities* and *interaction*, the movement represents a similar shift from simple to complex task-types, and from limited to enhanced participation by students, right up to a point where

the teacher may take no part in the interaction for considerable periods of class time.

In terms of the Paradigms discussed in Chapter 3, my own teaching career began in the late 1960's, at a time when language was still thought of as composed of discrete items combined into isolated sentences, but when the importance of meaning was becoming understood. Wittgenstein's (TL) metaphor of '*putting on clothes with language*' belongs to this first paradigm: something is hidden from view, and transformational rules are needed to uncover the essence of language. By the time I took on a new career role as a Trainer, in the late 1970's, the paradigm was shifting (Haycraft 1988, 1998), and the shift was consolidated during the early 1980's, when I undertook my further study in Applied Linguistics. Communicative Language Teaching and Learner Centred approaches were being created to reflect the fact that language was now seen in pragmatic and functional terms. Hymes and Halliday had challenged Chomsky, fluency and appropriacy had joined accuracy as legitimate focus in language classrooms, and Wittgenstein's argument (in the PI) that description of language in use be prioritised over theory had been heeded. It will be my contention that today's prevalent teaching climate is highly demanding in terms of breadth and depth of teacher knowledge and skills, including those relevant to teacher-generated language.

6.2 Conventions for Using Tasks in Language Learning

Littlejohn (1996), writing about using *tasks* in language classes, makes the point that:

Most of what teachers and students say to each other is shaped by the tasks that they are doing. We can say then, that tasks are an 'interface' between teachers and students; it is through a task that they communicate with each other.

(Littlejohn, 1996, pp.3–5)

Rubdy (2003:5) reports that *tasks* have been validated for language teaching, both on pedagogical grounds, because of their '*potential to effectively structure classroom interaction processes*', and on psycholinguistic grounds, because of their potential '*to stimulate internal processes of acquisition*'. Littlejohn and Rubdy appear to be using the term *task* in a generalised sense. The notion of *task* encompasses a wide variety of interpretations in the literature (Andon, 2003; Ellis 2003:1-35; Littlewood, 2004), and some of these are discussed below, as a basis from which to construct my own definition for use in my study.

The concept of *task*, as it is understood today in the context of *task-based learning* (TBL), is generally acknowledged to have originated with a project undertaken by N.S. Prabhu in Bangalore, India, which experimented with a kind of Communicative Language Teaching that was called Communicational Teaching Project (CTP):

The central tenet of the CTP is that language form is best learnt when the learner's attention is focused on meaning . . . Consequently, the syllabus is dictated by the methodology, which is three pronged: 'pre-task', 'task', and 'feedback'. The 'pre-task' makes known the nature of the task, brings relevant language into play, regulates the difficulty level of the task, and allows some learners to learn from attempts made by others. The task itself is a period of self-reliant effort by each learner to achieve a clearly perceived goal ... The 'feedback' gives the learners an indication of how successfully they have done the task.

(Beretta and Davies in Prabhu, 1987, p.145)

In the early days of teaching based around tasks, the *pre-task* phase consisted of the teacher working through a task with the class, as a preamble to a very similar task that the students would later do by themselves, individually: there was no requirement for group or pair work in Prabhu's method. In fact, interaction between teacher and learner, or between a text or paper-based task and the learner, was thought more beneficial than interaction between one learner and another. Teaching according to Prabhu's principles was thus a much easier proposition than teaching by later interpretations. By the time Jane Willis' *A Framework for Task-based Learning* was published (1996) Prabhu's tripartite format had been adapted to imply increasingly complex roles, for both teacher and learners. There is a *pre-task* phase of introduction to topic and task, a *task cycle* phase consisting of the task itself followed by a report on the task, and finally a *language focus* phase of analysis and practice, after which the task might be reviewed and/or repeated. The teacher roles in these phases are:

PRE-TASK

- Introduces and defines topic*
- Helps students recall/learn useful words and phrases*
- Ensures students understand task instructions*
- May play a recording of others doing same tasks*

TASK CYCLE

- Acts as monitor and encourages students*
- Ensures purpose of report is clear*
- Acts as language adviser*
- Helps students rehearse/organise reports*
- Acts as chairperson*
- May give brief feedback on content/form*
- May play recording of others doing same task*

LANGUAGE FOCUS

- Reviews analysis activity with class*
- Brings useful words/phrases/patterns to students' attention*
- May pick up on language items from report stage*
- Conducts practice activities after analysis activities*

(Willis, 1996, p.155)

The current popularity of TBL has several causes, not least of which is its basis on findings from second language acquisition research (Long and Crookes, 1992). However, the complexity inherent in its related classroom procedures is acknowledged by Skehan (2003):

It is clear that one of the reasons why task-based instruction is not used more widely relates to the difficult role it implies for the teacher. If tasks and task completion are the driving force in class, teaching preparation is nothing like as exact. The teacher, in other words, has to be prepared for learners to take interactions in whatever direction they choose. Then the teacher has to be ready to provide the unpredictable help that will be required. This presupposes a broader type of readiness for almost anything to occur, compared to the more comfortable ability to prepare for the pre-ordained structure-of-the-day. Small wonder, then, that many teachers shy away from this approach.

(Skehan, 2003, pp.1-14)

Prabhu's work sits within the tradition of what Howatt refers to as the *strong*, rather than the weak, version of the Communicative Approach:

There is in a sense, a 'strong' version of the communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version. . . stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes, and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider programme of language teaching. . . The strong version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it'.

(Howatt, 1985, p.279)

Ellis (2003:28) draws parallels between this weak and strong version of CLT and the current weak and strong version of TBL. He includes in the weak interpretation what he calls *task-supported language teaching*, which is a way of providing communicative practice for language items that have been introduced in a more traditional way. *Task-based language teaching* is a term he reserves for the strong version, where the task itself enables learners to learn language, through experiencing the language in communication. Widdowson (1998), moreover, makes a distinction between

task and *exercise*, whereby a task develops linguistic skills *through* communicative activity, whereas linguistic skill is a *prior requirement* for doing an exercise. Samuda (2001) makes a distinction between tasks that activate prior knowledge and those that create new knowledge. She terms the former *language-activating tasks*, and the latter *knowledge-constructing tasks*, and these would seem to correspond respectively to my Paradigm 2 and Paradigm 1. Another consideration is the timing of focus on language form, which can be placed either in pre- or post- task phase. I investigate such differences in Chapter 7. Cook (2000), outlining the importance of *play* in language acquisition, has additionally questioned the view that learning is best effected through concentrating on activities that are *meaning-based* rather than *form-based*, *useful* rather than *useless*, *real* rather than *contrived*.

Task-oriented teaching methodology has thus evolved to take account of differing interpretations of the notion of task, at differing levels of complexity, to the point where it is more accurately described as an approach rather than any single method. There are accordingly many definitions of *task* to choose from (Ellis, 2003). For Breen, for example, a task is quite simply:

a structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge and capabilities entailed in a new language and its use during communication.

(Breen, 1989, cited in Ellis, 2003, p.4)

Like that of Breen, my interpretation is a broad one that can accommodate work concerning either knowledge about, or use of, the language. However, for me, *task* entails an activity that learners undertake by themselves, largely or wholly independently of the teacher. My definition of *task* thus

encompasses both form focus and meaning focus, both brief exercise and complex communication activity, goal-driven, set up and/or monitored by the teacher but carried out by students working independently, either individually, in pairs or in groups. Up until this point, I have employed the cumbersome term, *teacher-independent activity for language learning*. Now that I have made clear that this is what I mean by *task*, I shall from this point on use *task* in this sense, except where *task* is clearly referred to as defined in the context of Task-Based Learning (TBL).

6.3 Conventions for Task Order and Focus

As Ellis points out (Ellis 2003:243), whilst, minimally, a task-based lesson may consist of the students just performing a task, most versions acknowledge the usefulness of a three-part division into *pre-task*, *in-task* and *post-task* phases. When I began training teachers of ESOL in CLT, another three-phase model was commonly put forward to Initial Teacher Trainees following the Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults, validated by the Royal Society of Arts (later the Cambridge ESOL CELTA). This was the Presentation-Practice-Production model (PPP). New language was *presented* to learners, and, as they passed through *controlled practice* and then *freer practice*, fluent and accurate *production* was ultimately expected (Haycraft, 1988;1998). Alternative, more flexible, but still three-phased, teaching models have since been proposed by established writers in the field of TESOL. These have been summarised by Harmer (2001:82). The models described include those devised by Scrivener (1994), McCarthy and Carter (1995), Lewis (1997)

and Harmer himself (1998). Novice ESOL Teachers now have more choice in the models available for use in their classes. These are tabulated and glossed below (Fig. 6.3.1):

Figure 6.3.1 Three Part Models for Language Lessons

Harmer ESA	Engage - where students are led to invest emotion in their learning; Study - where the focus is on form, of either language or text; Activate - where students use language they know productively.
Lewis OHE	Observation - of real language in use; Hypothesize - about how the language works; Experiment - on the basis of their hypotheses.
McCarthy and Carter III	Illustration - gives examples of language in context; Interaction - guides students to discover or notice principles; Induction - allows students to grasp facts as a result of their noticing activity.
Scrivener ARC	Authentic Use - gives opportunities for students to use language productively in real life tasks; Restricted Use - such as language drills allows students to manipulate forms in simple ways; Clarification and Focus - includes explaining rules, and giving examples.

Under the circumstances just described, researchers have referred to the current period of time as a *post-method* era (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001, 2002; Holliday, 1994; Bax, 2003a;2003b), where considerations of *context* override those of *method*. As Samuda points out:

Tasks do not take place in a vacuum. Nevertheless, until recently, much of the task-based learning and teaching literature has had a tendency to treat them as if they did.

(Samuda, 2001, p.119)

She notes that few studies have been set in intact classes, or been concerned primarily with context. Since teachers vary in their interpretation both of the notion of task itself and of the purposes of task based approaches (Andon, 2003), there seems to be a need for further research on whether, when and how teachers use tasks in their lessons taken as a whole. Phase One of my study has taken steps in this direction. In Phase Two of my research, I now

go further: by looking at more whole lessons, in their natural context, I hope to uncover practices and discover principles that will create some basis for choice among the myriad of methodological options facing new Teachers today.

6.4 Conventions for Instruction

I focus my Phase Two investigations mainly on the teacher-fronted pre-task phases of lessons. In the context of her version of TBL, Willis (1996) gives the first steps applicable to the pre-task phase as introducing the topic; identifying topic language; and exploring topic language. Then comes the more complex business of making sure learners understand what the task involves, what its goals are, what they should do, how much time they have and what will happen when the task is finished.

Ellis (2003) sees the purpose of the pre-task as preparing students to perform the main task in ways that will promote acquisition. He provides four alternatives (my summary):

- *Performing a task with the whole class similar to the one learners will perform in the in-task phase;*
- *Having learners observe, as whole class preparation, a model of how to perform the task;*
- *Engaging learners in non-task activities designed to prepare them to perform the task, such as pre-teaching useful vocabulary, or providing background information for content;*
- *Giving learners time for strategic planning of their task performance.*

(Ellis, 2003, p.244)

Ur (1996) feels that the ways in which teachers set up tasks, organise learning and group learners are crucial to the smooth running of language lessons. Her tips for giving clear instructions include (my summary):

- *Getting the class's full attention on the instructions or explanations;*
- *Presenting the information that is needed more than once, to allow for different learning styles and more chances for students to understand;*
- *Being brief, to allow for short concentration spans;*
- *Illustrating with examples, either of language or of task;*
- *Getting feedback, to check understanding and for personalisation.*

(Ur, 1996, pp.11-32)

I shall discuss pre-task activity with respect to Phase Two of my research in Chapter 7 (Section 7.2).

6.5 Conventions for Teacher Talk

In terms of teacher-generated language, although there has been a great deal written over the past two years, (e.g. Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001; Skehan, 2003; Ellis, 2003), reporting a wealth of research on the relationship between task-type and language output from *students*, little has been written about the relationship between task-type and language output from *teachers*. As was noted in Chapter 3, Section 3.6, teacher-generated classroom language fulfils a number of functions in the context of instruction. However, whilst information has been produced for the non-native market (Spratt, 1994; Salaberri, 1995), there is a paucity of material available for native speakers. I have already made reference (see Chapter 3, Sections 3.5 and 3.9) to the task-specific work of Mercer (1995; 2000) and

to Millrood's (2004) recent paper on the role of NLP in training teachers' general awareness of the importance of teacher talk. Also of relevance is the system Brown and Armstrong (1978, 1984) used in their research on teacher explanations for analysing instructional discourse (SAID), with elements categorised as either *structuring*, *teaching* or *social*. Oliver and Mackey (2003) have a four-category classification for teacher-learner exchanges, according to whether they are focused on *content*, *explicit language*, *communication* or *management*.

Willis undertook relevant research in second language classrooms in 1979 and 1980, which she has more recently discussed in the light of subsequent developments in Language Teaching Methodology (Willis, 1992). I have quoted an extract from that work (see Chapter 3, Section 3.4), showing her categorisation of teacher and student utterances into *outer* and *inner* levels of discourse. She notes the relationship between these levels and teacher role: the use of exclusively *outer* level utterances is compatible with a teacher role of Chairperson, for example, whereas the use of exclusively *inner* level utterances is more compatible with a teacher role of Controller (Willis, 1992, p.170, my simplification). In my work, I have reframed these levels into paradigms, where Paradigm 1 broadly corresponds to Willis' *inner* level, and Paradigm 2 to her *outer* level.

One researcher in the TESOL field who has been concerned to understand the relationship between teaching objectives and teacher talk is Walsh (2001; 2002a; 2002b; 2003a; 2003b). He has identified four categories,

which he terms *modes* (after Seedhouse, 1996). The four modes are *managerial*, *materials*, *skills and systems*, and *classroom context*, as follows (my summary):

- In the *managerial* mode, as the name suggests, the focus is on managing learning, such as setting up a task, and the discourse is dominated by the teacher, who gives instructions or explanations and checks understanding.
- In the *materials* mode, there is a focus on teaching material, where typically students are looking at their books, and turns are determined by what is in the material, with the teacher initiating and students responding.
- In the *skills and systems* mode, the focus is on language work, and teacher turns are extended, with explanations, checks and questions, whilst student turns are short.
- The *classroom context* mode has the aim of generating discussion, and is more like naturally occurring conversation than formal instruction, with more equal distribution of turns.

This taxonomy has relevance for my own research as, although in pre-task phase one might expect the *managerial* mode to be dominant, in fact any of these modes may be present, as I shall show in Chapter 7.

6.6 Conventions for Teaching Materials

For many language teachers, theories of language learning and teaching are most commonly encountered through the teaching materials they use in

class. In ESOL, these are usually coursebooks, often with associated supplementary workbooks and audio and video resources. The importance of these resources is under-acknowledged in the Language Teacher Education literature (Richards, 1998), but they have had significant influence on classroom practice over the years. Some of the milestone texts for ESOL that I have personally encountered in my career, and which have popularised CLT, have been:

- *Kernel Lessons* (O'Neill et al., 1972), which gave students for the first time the opportunity to formulate questions and put them to other students, where previously it had been the teacher's prerogative to ask questions in class;
- *Strategies* (Abbs and Freebairn, 1977), which labelled units of work according to functional rather than grammatical categories: 'interrupting' rather than 'present continuous', for example;
- *Headway* (Soars and Soars, 1987), which introduced skills teaching, using authentic or simulated-authentic texts, to teachers who had hitherto been concerned more or less exclusively with teaching the language systems of grammar, lexis and phonology, through specially constructed and contrived texts.

Considering that coursebooks for teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages are '*the primary source of teaching ideas and materials*' for many language teachers (Richards, 1998:127), it is perhaps surprising that there is not more direct linguistic help in Teacher's Books that accompany these coursebooks. As Richards (1998:130) points out, teaching resources

often serve as teacher training manuals for inexperienced teachers. Coursebook writers are at pains to sequence activities in ways that are motivating and useful, as well as appropriate in level, but this kind of detail does not extend into the realm of teacher talk.

A case in point is the *Cutting Edge* series (e.g. Cunningham and Moor, 1998), which takes TBL as central to its ethos. This is one of the coursebook series used by the Trainees in my study. It includes language-focused work in Part A of each module, with a separate Part B for the main task-based work. The definition of *task* given by the writers of this course is '*an oral or written activity, in which the primary goal is to achieve a particular outcome or product*'. The important elements of their particular version of a task-based approach are listed as follows:

The task is treated as an end in itself rather than an opportunity to practise specific language;

The tasks are central to the course, not just incidental speaking activities;

Learners are provided with the language needed in order to perform the task;

Learners use the best language they can to achieve the task, and are encouraged to 'raise their game';

Tasks provide students with just the right amount of challenge.'

(Cunningham and Moor, 1998, p.4)

This extract seems to elevate *task* to the role of agent in these statements. The Teacher has disappeared from the frame, yet it is the Teacher who must implement these procedures in the classroom.

If my own context is typical, *Cutting Edge* is a highly popular series, both with teachers and students. The Teacher's Resource Books that accompany

this series include a wealth of helpful information and supplementary material. Yet, taking as an example the Intermediate Teacher's Book that I have quoted from above, it is simply assumed that teachers *know* how to give appropriate instructions for the procedures it suggests. In Module 1, for example, teachers are advised to, '*Check the meaning of ..*'; '*Explain ...*'; '*Emphasise that students need to ...*'; '*Make it clear that they can ...*'; '*Point out that ...*'; '*Encourage them to ...*'. There is no specific linguistic guidance on how to carry out this advice in practice.

Language to Go (Crace and Wileman, 2002), the other series that was used by the Trainees in my study, purports to have tasks in centre frame, though it does not give information on what the authors' definition of task is, nor does it discuss how teachers should manage TBL. The authors state only:

Adult learners need to be able to leave a language class with a bite sized chunk of language to go and a sense of 'yes I can do that – anywhere in the world, in English!

(Crace and Wileman, 2002, p.6)

Each lesson is indeed designed around a final activity, but by presenting and practising language first and then inviting students to perform a productive activity at the end of each unit, it seems to conform more to an older Presentation-Practice-Production format. The Teacher's Notes are thin on linguistic guidance. In Lesson 1 of the Intermediate Teacher's Book, for example, Teachers are advised, '*You may want to do further introductions or 'getting to know you' activities*'; ... '*Ask students to discuss in pairs what festival or public holiday in their country they like the best and how they celebrate it*'; ... '*Check their answers. Focus also on correct pronunciation*'; ... '*Get students to describe the photos*'.

The language needed for giving instructions like these is unique to classrooms, and may not necessarily come naturally to prospective Language Teachers, whether non-native or native: it is my view that every Language Teacher who wishes to teach the target language *through* the target language should know how to use what I am calling *instructional language*. I suggest that the most pressing pedagogic need is for the kind of teacher-generated language that is deployed in the pre-task phase, since this is required in any lesson that uses tasks, however defined, and is the only phase that can be planned in advance to any great degree in TBL in its strongest interpretation (Skehan, 2003).

6.7 Conclusion

This Chapter has set out a range of alternative *rules* for classroom procedures. In a climate of uncertainty, it makes sense for new teachers to be familiar with a battery of possible teaching tools. As Ellis (2003) has advised:

Given the lack of knowledge about which options are the most effective, teachers must make their own decisions based on their understanding of what will work best with their own students.

(Ellis, 2003, p.278)

Creating alternatives also chimes with Wittgenstein's way of doing philosophy:

In philosophy one feels forced to look at a concept in a certain way. What I do is to suggest, or even invent, other ways of looking at it. I suggest possibilities of which you had not previously thought. You thought that there was one possibility, or only two at most. But I made you think of others.

(Malcolm, 2001, p.43.)

And with the game of chess:

It goes without saying that all chess players should know and respect basic chess principles, including the table of comparative values of pieces, but it is exactly the multitude of exceptions to the rules that make chess such a fascinating game. They often lead to so called non-standard situations and balance, where the correct path is often discovered by intuition and experience.

(Kasparov, G., 1993, p.11)

This Chapter has been concerned with Language Teaching Methodology. It has identified a current merging of my form-focused Paradigm 1 with my meaning-focused Paradigm 2, and its attendant changes in Teacher role, leading to a confusing array of alternatives for Initial Teacher Trainees to confront. It has also identified a gap in the literature in respect of the relationship between teacher talk and the management of task-oriented learning. In particular, it has refined the context for my study, by revealing the crucial importance of teacher talk in pre-task stages of language lessons.

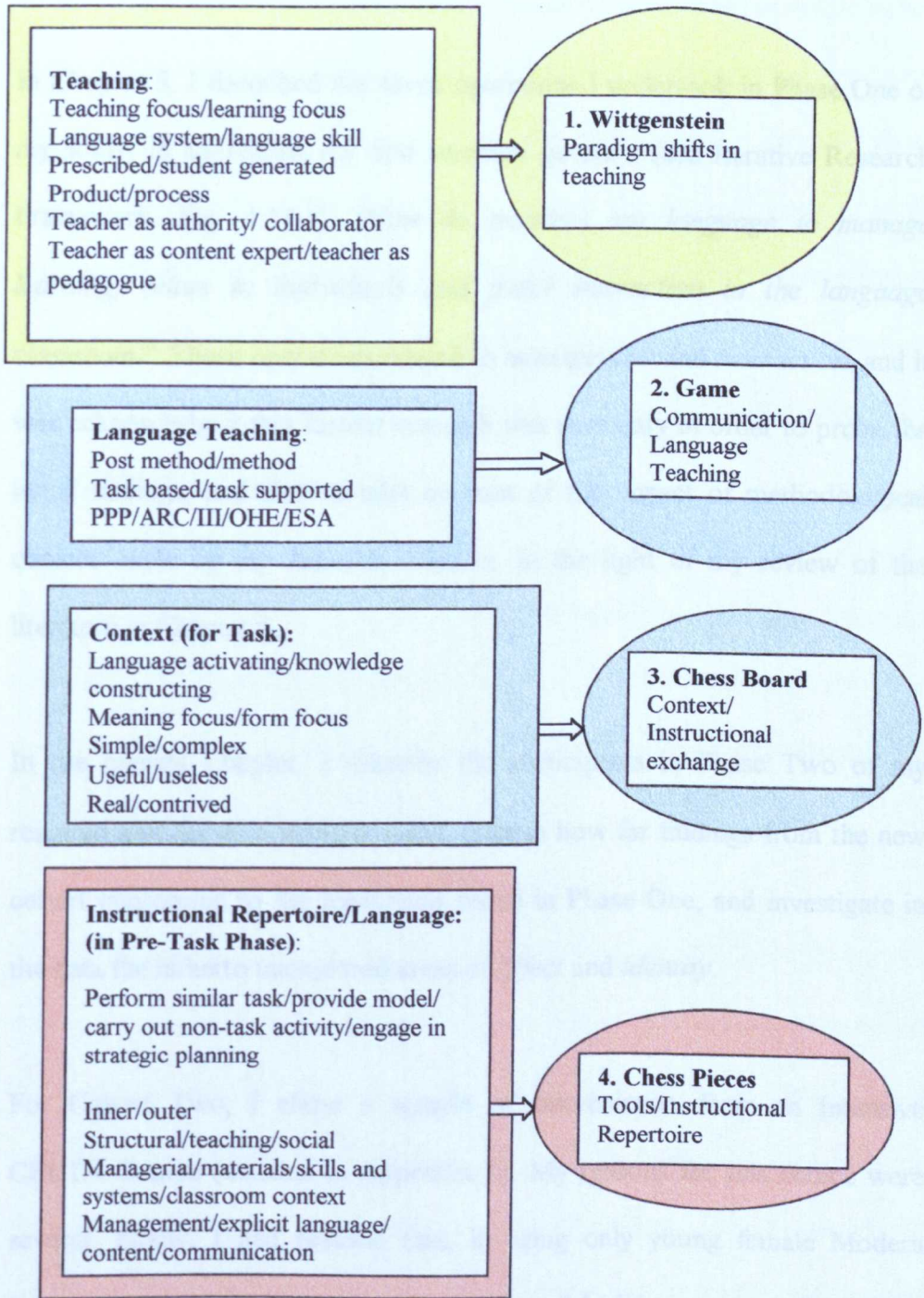
I conclude this Chapter by revisiting and extending my Metaphor Map, presented visually as Figure.6.7.2, and glossed here as Figure 6.7.1:

Figure 6.7.1 Metaphor Summary

1. WITTGENSTEIN
At Level 1 of the metaphor, as Teaching <i>paradigms</i> , there are general <i>either ... or</i> dichotomies in Language Teaching Methodology that have been discussed and reframed as <i>both ... and</i> continua in this Chapter. These concern the roles of teachers and learners in their classes, the nature of the materials used there, and whether the language taught is viewed as skill or system, process or product.
2. GAME
At Level 2, the Language Teaching <i>game</i> is represented on the map via the various alternative teaching approaches and models that have been explored here, and via the alternative roles that tasks can play in the language class.
3. CHESSBOARD
At Level 3, the <i>chess board</i> is represented by a number of alternative dimensions of choice for task-type.
4. CHESS PIECES
Finally, at Level 4, the <i>chess pieces</i> are represented by alternatives appropriate to the instructional language repertoire for the setting up of tasks. These alternatives include choices relative both to the activities that teachers can engage in at the pre-task stages of a lesson, and to the functions that teacher-generated language can serve there.

In Chapter 7, I apply the knowledge gained in this Chapter to a new research phase, Phase Two. In this phase, supplementary data is collected, further analysis of classroom data is undertaken, and results from both Phase One and Phase Two of my observational research are presented and discussed.

Fig. 6.7.2. Metaphor Map (Teaching)



CHAPTER 7: THE PIECES

7.1 Introduction

Question: “ And where do you go from there?”

In Chapter 5, I described the seven operations I undertook in Phase One of my study, in addressing my first research question (see Iterative Research Framework, Fig. 4.14.1), ‘*How do teachers use language to manage learning, relate to individuals and foster interaction in the language classroom?*’ Those operations related to *management* and *interaction*, and it was acknowledged that further research was necessary in order to probe the initial findings, and also to take account of the impact of methodological choices made by my research subjects, in the light of my review of the literature in Chapter 6.

In the present Chapter, I describe the participants in Phase Two of my research and the data they provided, discuss how far findings from the new cohort conformed to the tendencies found in Phase One, and investigate in the data the hitherto unexplored areas of *affect* and *identity*.

For Cohort Two, I chose a sample of convenience, from an Intensive CELTA Course (detailed in Appendix F). My reasons for this choice were several. Firstly, I had realised that, in using only young female Modern Languages Undergraduates for Cohort One, I had in no way reflected the broad CELTA candidature: some 100,000 annually worldwide (Cambridge ESOL, 2004), comprising a range of age, gender, nationality, experience

and educational backgrounds. My second sample therefore reflects this mix more closely. I chose, however, to limit it to British Native Speaker Trainees, since I wanted to investigate teacher-generated target language for the British context. I felt that the first cohort had been heterogeneous rather than homogeneous in some respects, as a result of differing life experiences and the module choices they were following in final year. Some of these university students had travelled widely, and had taken up a variety of work placements overseas during their year abroad or a gap year prior to entering university. Compared to my own university days in the late 1960's, where the majority of my cohort had come straight from School Sixth Forms, they had enjoyed varied life histories.

Secondly, the size of the Lower Level Class investigated in Phase One was very small, at a maximum on any one occasion of 6 learners, and I surmised that this might have led to the high percentage of teacher-independent work found at this level in the Cohort One data.

Thirdly, I was concerned that, for the original cohort, the competition for attention arising from the pressure of their final year studies, together with the fact that their Teaching Practice occurred only once per week, might have been responsible for a surfacing of methods from their past learning experiences that had not figured in the TESOL module. Reading aloud, for purposes other than practising pronunciation, was one example; another was detailed teacher-led text-based explanation, with an emphasis on vocabulary.

Finally, since only three of the Cohort One participants had furnished recordings at both Lower and Upper Class Levels, the gathering of a larger sample was necessary for comparative purposes.

The classroom data from Cohort Two was as for Cohort One, collected in the same way, from classes of similar levels but of a more consistent size, i.e. between 10 and 14 adult learners on any given occasion. The Lower Level Class consisted of students from China, Egypt, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Russia and Taiwan. The Upper Level Class contained students from China, Czech Republic, France, Italy, Mexico, Poland and Taiwan. Seven Trainees, Amelia, Bernice, Bill, George, Loretta, Natalie and Rosalind, provided audio-recorded data for classes at two levels. The rubric for their *Lessons from the Classroom* assignment (see Appendix B and Chapter 4, Section 4.10) was extended, to give it more focus on *instructional language* (Figure 7.1.1).

Figure 7.1.1 Extended Rubric for *Lessons From The Classroom* Assignment

You should make an audio recording of one of the classes you teach at the lower level, and one of the classes you teach at the higher level. Include reference to these recordings in your assignment, cross referenced to the lesson plans for the lessons that were recorded. Include a one or two page analysis of each of these lessons, as an appendix to your assignment.

In Phase Two of my study, I intended:

- to investigate in the data the impact of language teaching methods on classroom interaction, with special reference to tasks (see Section 7.2);

- to perform on the Cohort Two data the same seven operations as for Cohort One (see Chapter 5, Section 5.9), in order to confirm or disconfirm the initial findings (see Sections 7.3 to 7.6);
- to undertake further investigation into the nature of student turns in teacher-fronted interaction, with special reference to pre-task segments (see Section 7.5);
- to undertake further analysis of functional exponents used by teachers in teacher-fronted interaction, with special reference to pre-task segments (see Section 7.6);
- to investigate affective features and to look for personal and social identity-related factors evidenced verbally by the Trainee Teachers in the data, with special reference to pre-task segments (see Sections 7.6 to 7.8).

7.2 Operation Eight, Language Teaching Methodology

As a result of my review of the literature in Chapter 6, I began my work in Phase Two by looking afresh at the relationship between interaction, task type and teaching method, as Operation Eight. The data evidenced evolutionary combinations of techniques from various methods, *reframed* into *hybrid* forms: typical lesson content from one method might be used in conjunction with an activity or interaction pattern more appropriate to another. For example, pronunciation drills might be combined with authentic listening activity (as in Natalie's Lower Level Class). There is a pervasive use of *teacher-independent learning activities* in the Cohort Two data: these were investigated in terms of the order and balance of *knowledge*

constructing and *language activating* types (see Chapter 6, Section 6.5). It is relevant in this connection to consider the *deductive/inductive* divide, which, on the evidence of my data, has also undergone an evolutionary reframing process. In George's Upper Level Class, for example, an inductive method is employed by which learners look at pairs of sentences to discover how certain tenses are used. However, this form-focused work and teacher-led explanation are given *before* forms are contextualised in a productive task involving authentic use. By contrast, Bernice's Upper Level Class begins with a meaning-focused task, from which forms are analysed *later* in the lesson.

Wittgenstein describes the *deductive/inductive* opposition in PI 31, in the context of a chess game. The *deductive* method is set out in the following terms:

Wenn man jemandem die Königsfigur im Schachspiel zeigt und sagt 'Das ist der Schachkönig', so erklärt man ihm dadurch nicht den Gebrauch dieser Figur, ... Man kann sich denken, er habe die Regeln des Spiels gelernt, ohne dass ihm je eine wirkliche Spielfigur gezeigt wurde.

When one shews someone the king in chess and says: 'This is the King ' (der Schachkönig); this does not tell him the use of this piece ... You could imagine his having learnt the rules (die Regeln) of the game without ever having been shewn an actual piece (ein wirkliche Spielfigur).

Wittgenstein then goes on to compare this with the *inductive* method, thus:

Man kann sich aber auch denken, Einer habe das Spiel gelernt, ohne je Regeln zu lernen, oder zu formulieren. Er hat etwa surest durch Zusehen ganz einfache Brettspiele gelernt und ist zu immer komplizierteren fortgeschritten. Auch diesem konnte man die Erklärung geben: 'Das ist der König' ... [Diese Erklärung] lehrt ihn den Gebrauch, wenn der Platz schon vorbereitet ist. Und er ist es hier nicht dadurch, dass der, dem wir die Erklärung geben, schon Regeln weiss, sondern dadurch, dass er in anderm Sinne schon ein Spiel beherrscht.

One can also imagine someone's having learnt the game (das Spiel) without ever learning or formulating rules (Regeln). He might have learnt quite simple board-games (Brettspiele) first, by watching, and have progressed to more and more complicated ones. He too might be given the explanation 'This is the king'... [This explanation] tells him the use, if the place is already prepared (der Platz schon vorbereitet ist). And in this case it is so, not because the person to whom we give the explanation already knows rules, but because in another sense he has already mastered (beherrscht) the game.

Phase One of my research had highlighted the importance of teacher-generated language in the pre-task stages of lessons. To contextualise the content of this Chapter relative to this focus, the setting-up stage for each Teacher-independent task, for each Trainee in my Cohort Two data, is identified, listed and described in Figure 7.2.2, along with details of task type, method of introduction, number of words used by the teacher to accomplish the setting up, and the interaction pattern involved. These setting up stages are numbered in the order in which they occur, using Roman numerals. This convention has been adopted in order to distinguish the order of these isolated and ordered *task setting stages* from that of the full list of *lesson stages* given in Appendix J.

Figure 7.2.2 shows that lessons in the Cohort Two data range from twenty to sixty minutes in length, and the number of tasks in those lessons ranges from one to four. The pre-task activities mentioned by Ellis, Ur and Willis (see Chapter 6, Section 6.4) occur in these data. For example, Bernice performs with her fellow Trainee, Loretta, a dialogue of the type that her learners will explore in their first task, thus providing a model (see Figure 7.2.2, Bernice's Upper Level Class, Setting Up Stage i). Another example is provided by Bill, who sensitises his learners both to vocabulary and content that will be useful for the following reading task (see Figure 7.2.2, Bill's

Upper Level Class, Setting Up Stage i). Relevant specific linguistic features will be discussed later in this Chapter (starting at Section 7.5), but Figure 7.2.2 provides an indication, via the amount of teacher talk generated, of the perceived relative complexity of setting up each type of task. It also serves to give an overview of task progression, in the context of whole lessons. Figure 7.2.2 shows that the longest setting up stage from each Trainee involves clarifying task requirements in one or more of the following ways: grouping; demonstrating; working through an example; or checking understanding.

In terms of the models for lesson staging given in Chapter 6 as Fig. 6.3.1, Scrivener's *restricted use* activities, amongst which he includes language drills and simple manipulation of forms, and Harmer's *study* activities, where the focus can be on either discrete language items or on whole texts, might be construed as *knowledge constructing* tasks. Scrivener's real life, *authentic use* work, Harmer's language producing *activate* stage, and Lewis' hypothesis-testing *experiment* activity might be seen as *language activating*. McCarthy and Carter's *III* model allows for whole lessons to be devoted to knowledge constructing, without necessarily involving any productive use. *Knowledge constructing* (KC) tasks in the Cohort Two data normally correspond to form-focussed work (my Paradigm 1), and *language activating* (LA) tasks to meaning focus (my Paradigm 2). However, the correspondence is not always exact, e.g. in the final task of Amelia's Lower Level Class, where students practise their pronunciation of a tongue-twister, or in Bill's Lower Level Class information gap crossword task, where

students attend to both form and meaning. Apart from Bernice's and Loretta's Lower Level Classes, which are devoted to a review of previously taught language, all the lessons in Fig. 7.2.2 provide a mix of both LA and KC tasks. A balance of inductive and deductive methods within the lesson as a whole is also the norm, but there are also instances where the whole lesson is delivered inductively (see Amelia's Upper Level Class) or deductively (see Natalie's Upper Level Class). It is evident that most Cohort Two Trainees are careful to include an introductory chat or warm up, of the type that Harmer calls *engage*.

In terms of lesson focus, the Cohort Two data provide examples of Writing Skills content. This had been missing in Cohort One data. The combined data from Cohorts One and Two now contain a minimum of two lessons that focus on each of the *language systems* of Grammar, Pronunciation and Vocabulary, and each of the *language skills* of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (see Fig. 7.2.2, and Appendices I and J).

Figure 7.2.2 Cohort Two Task Setting in Context

Key: D=Deductive, I=Inductive, KC=Knowledge Creating, LA=Language Activating, F=Form, M=Meaning, TS=Teacher-Student, ST=Student-Teacher, (ST)=ST work limited to one or two exchanges only

TRAINEE CLASS AND FOCUS	TASK ORDER AND DESCRIPTION	TASK TYPE KC/LA F/M, D/I	SETTING UP TIME IN NUMBER OF WORDS	GLOBAL INTERACTION PATTERN
AMELIA	Warm up, Presentation			
Lower Level Class	i. Set up paired listening task, includes grouping and checking of understanding	KC F D	297	TS(ST)
Language Focus	ii. Set up group error correction task	KC F I	87	TS
Pronunciation	iii. Set up individual rehearsal task	LA F D	73	TS
AMELIA	Warm up to topic			
Upper Level Class	i. Set up paired reading and speaking task, includes vocabulary preteaching	KC F/M I	189	TS(ST)
Skills Focus Speaking	ii. Set up group discussion task	LA M I	57	TS
BERNICE	Chat			
Lower Level Class	i. Set up mingling speaking task, includes grouping students	LA M I	82	TS
Skills Focus	ii. Set up paired speaking task	LA M D	56	TS
Speaking	iii. Set up paired ranking task, using product of previous task	LA M D	48	TS
BERNICE	Chat			
Upper Level Class	i. Set up group discussion task, includes grouping students	LA F/M I	140	TS
Language Focus	ii. Set up form-focused listening task	KC F I	89	TS
Function/Pronunciation	iii. Set up pronunciation task, using product of previous task, includes working through first example and drilling	KC F D	230	TSST

TRAINEE CLASS AND FOCUS	TASK ORDER AND DESCRIPTION	TASK TYPE KC/LA F/M, D/I	SETTING UP TIME IN NUMBER OF WORDS	GLOBAL INTERACTION PATTERN
BILL	Class Notices			
Lower Level Class	i. Set up group task, defining words, includes grouping students	KC/LA F I	523	TS(ST)
Language Focus Vocabulary	ii. Set up paired crossword task, using product of previous task, includes regrouping students	LA F/M I	290	TS
BILL	Chat			
Upper Level Class	i. Set pre-reading task as warm up to topic	n/a M I	140	TS
Skills Focus	ii. Set up gist reading task	KC M I	116	TS
Reading	iii. Set up paired detailed reading task, includes grouping students	KC/LA F/M D	239	TS
	iv. Set up post reading discussion task	LA M D	98	TS
GEORGE	Warm up			
Lower Level Class	i. Set up paired discussion task	LA M I	70	TS
Skills Focus	ii. Set up gist reading task, includes sensitising to topic	KC M I	106	TSST
Reading	iii. Set up information gap reading, mingling task	KC/LA M I	224	TS
	iv. Set up writing task using product of previous reading task	LA M D	78	TS
	v. Set up mingling task using product of previous writing task	LA M I	60	TS
GEORGE	Warm up			
Upper Level Class	i. Set up guided discovery grammar task, work through first example	KC F I	111	TSST
Language Focus	ii. Set up paired guided discovery grammar task	KC/LA F/M I	79	TS
Grammar	iii. Set up paired gap fill task, work through first example	KC F D	145	TSST
	iv. Set up group writing task, includes regrouping students	LA F/M I	249	TS

TRAINEE CLASS AND FOCUS	TASK ORDER AND DESCRIPTION	TASK TYPE KC/LA F/M, D/I	SETTING UP TIME IN NUMBER OF WORDS	GLOBAL INTERACTION PATTERN
LAURA Lower Level Class Language Focus Grammar	i. Set up communication board game, includes demonstration, grouping, checking of understanding	LA F/M D	433	TSST
LAURA	i. Set up paired reading task, work through first example	KC/LA M I	433	TS(ST)
Upper Level Class	ii. Set up individual form-based reading task	KC F D	121	TS
Language Focus	iii. Set up individual sentence transformation task, work through first example	LA F/M D	179	TS(ST)
Grammar/ Vocabulary	iv. Set up group vocabulary ranking task, includes grouping students	KC F I	91	TS
NATALIE	Warm up to topic			
Lower Level Class	i. Set up gist listening task, includes vocabulary preteaching	KC M D	345	TSST
Skills Focus	ii. Set up detailed listening task, includes drilling key words	KC F/M D	220	TSST
Listening	iii. Set up homework writing task	LA M I	130	TS
NATALIE	Warm up, Presentation			
Upper Level Class	i. Set up reading and noticing task	KC F/M D	143	TS
Skills Focus Writing	ii. Set up writing task, includes preteaching grammar, vocabulary	LA F/M D	215	TS

TRAINEE CLASS AND FOCUS	TASK ORDER AND DESCRIPTION	TASK TYPE KC/LA F/M, D/I	SETTING UP TIME IN NUMBER OF WORDS	GLOBAL INTERACTION PATTERN
ROSA-LIND	i. Set up vocabulary matching task	KC F/M I	319	TS
Lower Level Class	ii. Set up paired detailed reading task, includes framing task content	LA M D	450	TS(ST)
Skills Focus Reading	iii. Set up mingling task using product of previous task, demonstrate task	LA M D	197	TSST
ROSA-LIND	Warm up			
Upper Level Class	i. Set up pre-reading task, includes sensitizing students to topic	n/a M I	113	TS
Skills Focus	ii. Set up paired gist reading task	KC/LA M I	102	TS
Reading	iii. Set up paired summarising task	LA F/M I	191	TS
	iv. Set up detailed reading task, work through first example	KC M I	554	TSST

7.3 Operations One to Seven Revisited, Global Interaction

In the classroom data from Cohort Two, tasks vary on a cline from short, form-focused exercises, e.g. the first task in George's Upper Level Class in which students spend two minutes noticing and naming two different tenses in context; to longer, meaning-focused tasks of the type favoured by Willis (1996), e.g. the group reading, planning and reporting cycle in Rosalind's Lower Level Class, lasting 9 minutes (see Appendix J).

In respect of *global interaction patterns*, the Phase Two findings confirm the usefulness of tasks in providing opportunities for *rich interaction* (see

Chapter 5, Section 5.6). In Teacher-fronted work, the TS global interaction pattern was again most frequent in setting up tasks: of the forty-three *setting up stages* identified in Fig. 7.2.2, twenty-eight display this pattern.

The TSST global interaction pattern also occurred in similar contexts to those noted in Phase One, i.e. for transmitting and checking understanding of information. It was evident at the warm up stage at the beginning of a lesson, at stages introducing or setting context for language, and for pre-teaching vocabulary, checking understanding or demonstration, when setting up a task.

With regard to degree of teacher control, a computation of the Mean TS and TSST scores for Cohort Two shows a less controlling role taken by Cohort Two Trainees overall, at maximum 51%. George is by far the least controlling, TS and TSST patterns accounting for only 24% of class time at the Lower Level and 25% at the Upper Level.

The STTS global interaction pattern in Cohort Two data was again found in similar contexts to those of Cohort One, i.e. for eliciting language prior to presenting it, and for feedback: the latter was the overwhelming use in Cohort Two data, and highest in Rosalind's Reading Class. In Cohort Two Skills classes, e.g. Bernice's Listening, Bill's Reading, George's and Natalie's Writing, and Rosalind's Reading and Speaking Classes, over 20% of the lesson time was spent in this STTS pattern.

The ST global interaction pattern had been rare in Cohort One data, and for Cohort Two the same is true: the only occurrence is in George's Upper Class at the stage where students report on the holiday itineraries they have chosen in the previous task. This stage accounts for 13% of the lesson concerned. The rarity of the ST pattern suggests that teachers may not be making enough use of the *report* stage advocated by Willis for the in-task phase of her version of TBL. Lack of a report stage entails an attendant loss of opportunity for students to take *long turns* in which accuracy, fluency and complexity can be attended to in a conscious way (see Operation Nine, below).

In terms of Teacher-independent work, it had been found that the S global interaction pattern was rarer amongst Lower Level Classes than the SS pattern, and this was also the case for Cohort Two: the S pattern occurs at the Lower Level in one Writing Focus and one Listening Focus class, whereas there are five occurrences of the S pattern at the Upper Level. All classes apart from Natalie's Lower Class include SS work: it had been surmised that the low class size at the Cohort One Lower Level might have accounted for the large amount of class time devoted to such work, but Cohort Two data (apart from Natalie's lesson) show similar results to Cohort One, with SS work accounting for between 32% and 66% of class time, as opposed to 10% to 39% at the Upper Level.

In terms of the *number of global interaction patterns* used in any given lesson, again the Mean was as for Cohort One, i.e. 4 patterns, with more

patterns used at the Upper Level overall: however, George uses more than 4 at each level, including the maximum 6 in his Upper Level Grammar Class. As far as the balance of teacher-fronted and teacher-independent work is concerned, the figure for Cohort Two is very similar to Cohort One at the Upper Level, i.e. between 27% and 46%, but not at the Lower Level, where it varies between 20% and 66%. Since Lower and Upper Level Classes both show a spread in main lesson aim across the range of language skills and language systems, lesson focus cannot be held accountable for these differences in balance: answers must lie in task type and teaching methodology, e.g. the communicative nature of the practice activities used by Bill and Loretta in their Lower Level classes.

7.4 Operations One to Seven Revisited, Detailed Interaction

The number of *detailed interaction patterns* in any given lesson in the Cohort Two data ranges from five to eleven, with Amelia's classes showing the least variety and George's the most.

In the majority of lessons, the longest stage is spent in language work that involves attention on both form and use, i.e. both Paradigm 1 and Paradigm 2. The warm up stage in these lessons can prove a useful source of pure Paradigm 2 practice for the learners, often whilst the Teacher, working in both paradigms simultaneously, sensitises them to the language that will be needed. This happens at Stage 1 of Rosalind's Lower Level Class, for example, where she incorporates *would like* and *prefer* into her own language at the warm up stage:

Rosalind: *So let's have one or two pages out of here we've got this one is a holiday in Morocco in the desert there we've got this one a holiday in Lapland quite different and a holiday at a Disneyland Disneyland Paris I'd like to go to Lapland but I prefer Morocco because it's warmer Angel would you like to go to Morocco yes you would Francesca would you like to go to Lapland?*

In the Cohort Two data, the Teacher is a useful source of Paradigm 2 language at stages other than the warm up, notably when in *managerial mode* (in Walsh's terms, see Chapter 6, Section 6.5), even if learners are working only in Paradigm 1, as at Stage 6 of Amelia's Lower Level lesson, for example:

Amelia: *Can you hear the difference? Yeah? You can hold each other's throats as well if you like (laughter)*

Even when they focus on forms, the Trainees routinely contextualise the language by using personalised examples, as Loretta does at Stage 7 of her Upper Level Class:

Loretta: *Cos if I say how em have many people phoned this evening... there people is a countable word as we know how... you could say yeah five people have phoned yeah*

7.5 Operation Nine, Exploring the Nature of Student Turns

In Phase Two, as Operation Nine (see Appendix J), a subset of student utterances lasting five seconds or more was counted as a separate category of *long turns* (abbreviated and italicised as *LT*) within the overall computation of *student turns* (abbreviated and italicised as *ST*). George achieves the highest number of *ST*s in teacher-fronted stages at both levels, and within that score he also achieves the highest number of *LT*'s at both levels. It may be noted that few *LT*'s occur at the Lower Level, and, where they do occur, the turn is partly or wholly spent in *borrowed* English, from reading aloud pre-prepared language either directly from a coursebook or from work completed during a previous task. In terms of developing a *voice*

in the new language, opportunity for using borrowed elements in these ways may be helpful in developing proficiency.

The main finding relating to the general distribution of student turns is that, as noticed in Phase One, they are frequently elicited at the warm up stage, whilst the longest student turns occur most commonly in feedback. The number of *STs* in teacher-fronted stages in Cohort Two data is high in warm up stages, when introducing new language, in feedback, and occasionally in setting up tasks. In the Cohort Two data, *LTs* occur during setting up, and, most notably, during feedback from tasks, especially at the report stage if used (all the long turns in Natalie's audio-recorded data occur at the report stage, for example). *LTs* are more frequent at the Upper than the Lower Level, as might be expected of students with greater proficiency in the language.

7.6 Operation Ten, Exchange Structure Revisited

In order to apply exchange structure analysis, and also to facilitate investigation into *interactional adjustments* and *affect*, I refined and extended my transcription conventions, as Operation Ten. These conventions are exemplified in Figure 7.6.1.

The first six minutes of Bernice's Lower Level Class are given here in a three-column format, taking a simplified functional view of the Sinclair-Coulthard rank scale (see Appendix C) that does not extend to the level of *act*. Here, Bernice's lesson is typical in confirming general Phase One

findings: that the setting up of a task fulfils a broadly *opening* function; that tasks take on an *answering* function; that the feedback stage from a task, functions as *follow up*; and that an *information exchange* can occur before the first boundary exchange of a lesson proper. Phase Two findings also confirm those of Phase One regarding discourse markers: macro markers are *well, right (then), all right (then)*; micro markers are *now, if, so, and, em (or er)*, and the versatile *OK* is capable of both macro and micro function. The tendency towards use of *right* to signal important or difficult stages is exemplified in Bill's data, where *OK* and *so* are enough to manage relatively simple coursebook-based reading tasks but *right* is needed to manage the complex groupings necessary for his information-gap crossword task (see Appendix J). A further insight from Phase Two of my study is the use of *just* as a marker for quickly setting up or briefly feeding back from a task, and for recapitulating what has already been established. In Cohort Two, cleft meta-statement, e.g. '*what we want to do now...*', was common in opening and in setting up tasks; and there was much use of orientation in time, e.g. '*first of all we're going to*', '*we've got ten minutes left so ...*' (*Lesson structuring* items for each Trainee are given in Appendix J, in the column headed Marker in the grids). After the first page, the remainder of Bernice's Lower Level Lesson is transcribed using the middle column only, exemplifying the last stage in the iterative transcription process, which was designed to facilitate investigation into these other discursual, and affective, features. Since Figure 7.6.1 will be referred to again in this thesis, I have highlighted it in colour for ease of reference. The relevant lesson plan is given in Appendix R.

Figure 7.6.1 Bernice's Lower Level Class, Revised Transcription Conventions

Key:

Transcription shows teacher's words only, divided into utterances; language related to tasks in **bold type**, pauses indicated by brackets (), timed where 5 seconds or more; teacher questions or checks in *italics*; personal and social references specific to the class underscored; student turns indicated by (ST); right hand column gives function performed by each teacher utterance (first page only)

	TEACHER-FRONTED INTERACTION	FUNCTION
1	Right good morning everybody we'll make a start ()	Frame, focus, start
2	<u>cos you have () three teachers this morning () then Pete</u>	Personalise in time
3	so () <u>four altogether ()</u>	
4	OK	Check
5	so we need to start now ()	Recap start
6	<i>did you go to Cambridge at the weekend (ST)</i>	Personalised chat
7	<i>anybody else (ST)</i>	Elicitation
8	yeah (ST) <u>you went to Cambridge</u>	Acknowledge
9	(latecomer enters) morning (5 secs)	Greet
10	OK ()	Frame
11	first of all () because it's Monday morning and we all feel a bit	Focus
12	() sleepy() tired ()	Personalise time
13	I'd like you to come into the middle please ()	Manage behaviour
14	come into the middle here () everybody () into here	Recap behaviour
15	(Students move, 14 secs)	Refocus
16	OK ()	Manage behaviour
17	just go round and talk to each other ()	Start (metalingual)
18	and what you're going to find out is ()	Give purpose for task
19	what do you like most () and least about England ()	Check
20	OK ()	Check
21	so talk to as many people in the group as you can ()	Recap behaviour
22	yeah ()	Check
23	just for () three minutes ()	Set time limit
24	yeah ()	Check
25	just () to each other (Task, 3 mins 8 secs)	Recap behaviour
26	OK ()	Get attention
27	one more minute please ()	Manage timing
28	find somebody else () to talk to (Task continues, 46 secs)	Manage grouping
29	OK ()	Refocus
30	we'll bring that to a finish now please ()	Signal close of task
31	can you finish talking now please ()	Manage behaviour
32	OK ()	Check
33	right have a look here please before you sit down ()	Manage attention
34	have a look just here ()	Recap behaviour
35	OK ()	Check
36	<i>what do you think I'm going to be talking today about in the</i>	Elicit focus of main task
37	<i>lesson (ST)</i>	
38	<i>about (ST)</i>	Prompt
39	yes holidays ()	Acknowledge
40	OK ()	response
41	OK do you want to ()	Close
42	go to your seats now please () sit next to somebody who	Refocus
43	speaks a different language from you please () in pairs	Manage behaviour
44	(Students move , 31 secs)	Manage grouping
45	<i>OK has everybody got a pair ()</i>	Check grouping
46	<u><i>Bernardo</i></u> <i>have you got a pair ()</i>	Nominate
47	OK ()	Reframe

48	so () during this lesson we're going to be talking all about holidays ()
49	I usually go on holiday () to Majorca () Spain () I usually go on holiday to Majorca
50	Spain () this year () I'm going to Ireland () this year I'm going to Ireland ()
51	<u>Katie</u> () where do you usually go on holiday (ST) where do you usually go on holiday
52	(ST) but where do you usually go on holiday () which () which country or place
53	(ST) nowhere special () you stay in Taiwan (ST) on holiday () yep () so () where do
54	you usually go on holiday (ST) I usually (ST) I usually go on holiday in Taiwan (ST)
55	OK () <u>Miriam</u> where do you usually go on holiday (ST) you go to Acapulco () very
56	nice () where () where are you going this year (ST) Yes I'm (ST) Going to (ST) In
57	Mexico () OK () <u>Marcel</u> where do you usually go on holiday (ST) different place yeah
58	(ST) where are you going this year (ST) where are you going this year (ST) USA ()
59	OK () <u>Francesca</u> can you ask somebody where they usually go on holiday ask ()
60	another student (ST) Good (ST) OK () and () <u>Michelle</u> ask somebody else
61	(ST) who are you ask () who are you asking (ST) Bill (ST) OK () <u>Elada</u> (ST)
62	Where do (ST) Go (LT 7 secs) Different places in Mexico () OK () just to () revise
63	<u>from last week</u> yeah () Remember what's this tense called (ST) Yeah () present
64	(ST) Present simple yes and this one (ST) OK so the present simple and the
65	present continuous () <u>You remember from last week we did that</u> () OK ()
66	OK () <u>Katie</u> when you go on holiday () what's important () about the holiday
67	for you (ST) sorry (ST) to relax it's very important for you to relax OK () and <u>Cha</u>
68	<u>Cha</u> what's important for you () on holiday (LT 6 secs) To enjoy it to enjoy it OK
69	very good () I usually go on holiday to Majorca in Spain () when I go on holiday I
70	like to do three things () swim () sunbathe and read books () I'm not very interested
71	in sightseeing () for me the weather is the most important feature () of holiday ()
72	also () I like to eat Spanish food every day on holiday () but I don't want to cook on
73	holiday () I like to go out to different restaurants () every night ()
74	OK () going to do an exercise now together in pairs () firstly () you tell the
75	person () about the last holiday () you went on () and then you discuss ()
76	these factors these features of holiday () weather accommodation shops et cetera
77	OK () and one person tells the other then the other person tells the other and so
78	on OK
79	(Students do task, 1 min 36 secs)
80	If you have em some problems with the vocabulary () try and use the
81	minidictionary yeah () in the back () first of all
82	(Students continue with task, 6 secs)
83	If you still have a problem then ask me
84	(Students continue with task, 5 mins 34 secs)
85	OK () there's some very interesting conversations going on ()
86	I'd like you to choose now () two () the most () two most important ()
87	in the list () the two most important for you () OK () and () I'm just going to
88	come round () and if you can tell me as I come round
89	(Students continue task, 2 mins 43secs)
90	OK can you look this way now please () thank you () this () is the results for ()
91	group B () the most important () features of holiday for you (6 secs) OK () have a
92	look at this () which is the most important feature for Class [sic] B (ST) weather
93	OK () so the weather comes () what's this () the weather comes () (ST)
94	first yes first you remember from last week () OK () what's the second most
95	important feature (ST) culture (ST) culture and () what's the first word (ST)
96	sightseeing (ST) sightseeing (writes on board, 10 secs) how do we say this (ST) again
97	(ST) second () so sightseeing culture's the second most important feature for this
98	group () and the third one (ST) again (ST) who you go with () yeah who you go with
99	() or another word for that <u>that Francesca said</u> is () the company () the company ()
100	who you go with or the company (9 secs) OK () and how do we say this (ST) third ()
101	so the third most important thing is who you go with or the company () OK I'll pass
102	you over to () <u>Jessica</u> now

7.7 Operation Eleven, Functional Exponents Revisited

In Operation Eleven, more *Structuring Functions* were identified, see Figure 7.7.1, with exponents drawn from Bernice's and Jane's data (Figs.5.2.1, 5.2.2 and 7.6.1) (a fuller list is given as Appendix L).

Figure 7.7.1 Structuring Functions

<p>CONTEXT SETTING FUNCTIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Set context for the lesson by framing in time, e.g. '<i>Monday morning</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.11), '<i>... this morning</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.2);• Set context by demonstrating or working through an example, e.g. '<i>So who wants to read ...</i>' (Fig. 5.2.2, L.8).
<p>MANAGING FUNCTIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Manage by focusing attention, e.g. '<i>Have a look here</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.33);• Manage by organising behaviour and/or grouping, e.g. '<i>...talk to each other</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.17), '<i>In pairs</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.43);• Manage by checking understanding, e.g. '<i>Has everybody got a pair?</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.45), '<i>Do you all know what to put?</i>' (Fig. 5.2.2, L.84)
<p>STAGING FUNCTIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Stage by signalling lesson or task structure, using discourse marker, e.g. '<i>Right Good Morning...</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.1), '<i>OK so first of all...</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.11), '<i>Just to each other</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.25), '<i>Well that's it for this week</i>' (Fig. 5.2.1, L.101);• Stage by framing the required procedure, using metalanguage, e.g. '<i>What you're going to find out ...</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.19)• Stage by setting and/or enforcing a time limit, e.g. '<i>...for three minutes</i>' (Fig. 7.5.1, L.23), '<i>One more minute please</i>' (Fig. 7.6.1, L.27).

7.8 Operation Twelve, Interactional Adjustments Revisited

The trend found in Phase One of my research for differentiating *speech rate* and *pausing* according to Class Level is replicated in the Cohort Two data, as Appendix K shows. This finding is in line with suggestions (see Chapter 3, Section 3.6) that adjustment in terms of these two parameters may be natural phenomena, occurring as a result of non-conscious processes. Nevertheless, Trainees frequently voice concerns in this area (see Appendix P, Section (d)). *Interactional adjustments* that can be brought within a Teacher's control can be reframed as *interactional strategies*, and speech rate and pausing may be considered in this light, especially in TS segments where typically tasks are set up. In Rosalind's Upper Level Class, for example, she needs at one point simultaneously to give instructions and to direct students' attention to material in the coursebook. Slowing her speech rate accommodates a search for the page concerned; and pausing before and after words that are important for understanding her task ensures their salience (in the following quotation I have adopted the convention for denoting pausing that I came to in my final stage of transcription, see Figure 7.6.1):

Rosalind: So () we're going to look today at em () some () reading texts () about people who've made () unusual achievements () so I'm going to pass out the () books ... and if you could find page () fifty-two () Module Five page fifty-two ... right if you just look at the () five pictures at the bottom () and first of all we're just going to ()

In Phase Two of my research, Trainees' pause length after initiating moves, known as *wait time* (Tsui, 2001:124) was measured. It was found that five seconds was the limit of comfortable length for these Trainees, after which further prompts or nominations were used to elicit a response:

Rosalind: *What might number one have done that was unusual?* (5 second pause) *Any ideas? ... Can anybody explain modest?* (5 second pause) *Michelle do you know?*

George: *Who has the school problem?* (5 second pause) *Ray do you have the school problem?*

In the Phase Two data set, only eleven pauses longer than five seconds in duration were found in this context. They occurred either when pre-teaching vocabulary or when eliciting feedback from tasks.

As for Cohort One, there is no discernible pattern in the distribution of *repetitions* in the TS segments in the Cohort Two data, possibly because attention to management issues may override considerations of level. The use of repetition thus becomes another *interactional strategy* when setting up a task, as in this extract from Rosalind's Lower Class, which uses exact repetition (of *stand up, into the middle, and piece of paper*) and gloss on previous utterance (*piece of paper = holiday plan*):

Rosalind: *Right can you () stand up () with your piece of paper () with your holiday plan () and come into the middle () can you come into the middle () stand up and into the middle with your piece of paper () into the middle () chop chop () right () now () can you find somebody who has got has planned a different holiday ()*

As with Cohort One, *checks* were achieved by use of single item *OK, right, yeah* (or alternatives *yes, yep*), or by fuller question forms, the latter especially at the Upper Level. Another realisation of the checking function was the use of *tag questions* with falling intonation, e.g. *'It's less negative as well isn't it'*, from Loretta's data. The falling tone signals that no response is required, in contrast to tag questions with rising intonation, where a response is expected (Brazil, 1985, 1995). It appears from the data that quick checks, made by means of a single word or a tag, may be employed as an interactional strategy, i.e. to perform a *relational* function

rather than a *pedagogic* one. I am calling these quick checks *rhetorical checks*, in order to distinguish them from the *comprehension and confirmation checks* referred to in my literature review (see Chapter 3, p.58). A table of occurrences of both types of checking exponents was drawn up as Operation Twelve (see Appendices L and M). It may be that the *relational* function of one-word checks, an interactional device present in both classroom discourse and general conversation, has not been fully appreciated by Teacher Educators (see Appendix R).

Eliciting information from students in Teacher-fronted work, rather than *giving* them information, affects the balance of interaction between Teacher and student, resulting in an STTS pattern rather than a TSST one. STTS patterns were noted in Section 7.3 above, with reference to lesson stages in which presentation of language or feedback from tasks takes place. In the Cohort Two data, elicitation is often used as a starter for tasks, as in the following example from Natalie's Upper Level Class:

Natalie: *I'm going to em give you some handouts to look at and we're going to decide how an advert is put together what are the elements in an advert very quick exercise OK one between two OK then the first one so what's this called in the middle?*

Elicitation is one of the features which teacher-generated language in classroom contexts shares with everyday conversation. Functions that were identified in my classroom data are also present in Mercer's (2000) list of functions for everyday conversation, which include:

- *Referring back to shared experiences;*
- *Eliciting information;*
- *Offering information (which is then available as a shared resource);*
- *Evaluating others' contributions;*
- *Repeating and reformulating others' statements.*

(Mercer, 2000, p.56)

7.9 Operation Thirteen, Personalisation

Nomination was investigated in Phase Two of my study as Operation Thirteen. Using a person's name and referring to shared experience constitute *strokes* in TA terms (see Chapter 3, Section 3.9) and can be powerful means of promoting positive *affect*. Mercer has noted (2000:50) that, when a group has a history of shared activity and personal relationship, it is used in conversation. This is one of the functions of nomination in my data, which appears to be used for *structuring*, *teaching*, or *social* purposes (in the terminology of Brown and Armstrong, see Chapter 6, Section 6.5).

Trainees nominate students:

- when managing behaviour for tasks, or in feedback:

Natalie: *Gabriella would you mind going to sit next to Katrina?*

Amelia: *If you find it, you tick it, Julia*

Rosalind: *Ellie have you got a sentence?*

- when presenting or practising language skills or systems:

Loretta: *Francesca what is an excursion?*

Rosalind: *Belinda what kind of information is given?*

- when creating or maintaining a sense of community by referring to shared experience in their examples or demonstrations:

Bernice: *Like Loretta was being very polite*

Bill: *And we all understand what our emotions are now don't we after Richard last week went through them with you (laughter)...*

Instances of nomination from each Trainee in Cohort Two are tabulated in Appendix M. From this it is evident that George nominates the most, with

over 30 nominations in each class. Natalie and Bernice also achieve high numbers in the Lower Level Class, 32 and 40 nominations respectively, and it may be significant that both these lessons contain segments where drilling of language forms takes place: in repetition drills, simply calling out a student's name is enough to prompt a response:

Bernice: *OK Miriam (ST) Paulina (ST) Nadia (ST) Hamad (ST) Michelle (ST) Nancy (ST)*

The social function of nominating occurs most often in my data in the initial stages of a lesson, in which rapport needs to be established or re-established. Moreover, one consequence of using *group tasks* to structure learning is the opportunity in feedback to nominate *groups* rather than individuals, thus fostering a sense of community, as in these examples from Bill:

Bill: *This group what did you get for that . . .
Paragraph four and five that group over there again . . .
The final group what did you decide*

From my evidence, it seems possible that the affective, *relational* function of nominating, even in mechanical drills, as well as the potential of nomination for use as an *interactional strategy*, may be currently under-recognised in Teacher Education.

Nomination is one way of personalising lesson content for learners, but there are others. Trainees in my data referred in their tasks to information gleaned from previous class contact time, such as likes and dislikes or preferred learning styles. In Fig. 7.6.1, L.18 above, Bernice simply uses her knowledge of the fact that this is the first time most of her students have been to England:

Bernice: *And what you're going to find out is what do you like most and least about England*

7.10 Operation Fourteen, Self-disclosure

To a greater or lesser extent in my classroom data, Trainees also personalise their teaching by revealing aspects of their character or talking about their family life, sometimes humorously. Such *self-disclosure* (Hadley, 2003a; 2003b) can serve to enhance rapport. In Operation Fourteen, the occurrence of self-disclosure for each Trainee from Cohort Two was computed under two headings: *personal reference*, and *commentary* (see Appendix M). Under the former category are occurrences of self-disclosure that seem to have the teaching-related function of providing *comprehensible input*, when giving an example of a grammatical structure in context, or explaining the requirements of a task, or both:

George: *I had a very interesting experience last night last night I went to the pub and ... what do you think I should do?*

Bill: *If I were a member of Group A I'd say to my partner ...*

Loretta: *OK so I land on that someone starts to time me and I can talk about something I'd like to buy for twenty seconds yes so for example OK something I'd like to buy I'd like to buy a plane ticket to Australia to see my auntie...*

Natalie is adept at using humour in her personalised examples:

Natalie: *So we've done good better best it's the best grammar lesson you've ever had ... not ... The least em ... intelligent person ... me probably...*

Also under the first category are occurrences of self disclosure that appear to have the *relational* function of engendering community spirit:

Amelia: *OK turn them round I'll have one as well*

Loretta: *I had to learn the rules myself*

George: *You all know me I'm George right want you to write a letter to me Dear George cos we're all friends*

Bill: *So do you think you'd do well in a test like this or not no I don't think I would either*

Under the second category I include the kinds of utterances that have been referred to as *asides* by Coulthard (see Appendix C), and *running commentary* by Gower, Phillips and Walters (1995:35), who advise teachers against using such language, since '*it's distracting and makes you seem more interested in your 'performance' than in the students*'. Examples are:

Bill: *For each of these paragraphs () if I can find it*

Amelia: *Here we go () got another thing for you to do () if I can remember where I put it*

Rosalind: *Right I won't write that up it's taking a long time*

Natalie: *I think it needs a bit of board discipline here actually but I'm not going to bother*

The tendency overall in my data is for more self-disclosure at the Upper Level than the Lower Level, but clearer still is the markedly more frequent occurrence of *asides* at the Upper Level. It may be that Trainees non-consciously characterise these utterances as being more comprehensible and therefore more acceptable to more proficient students. However, in view of what has been said (in Chapter 3) about the role of group laughter in fostering positive affect, it may be that the *strategic* potential of *asides* for *relational* purposes has been undervalued in Teacher Education. In general, the *playfulness* that I referred to in Chapter 3, Section 3.9 is manifested verbally in the quotations I have used to illustrate my analysis in Sections 7.9 and 7.10 in this Chapter. It is in the realms of personalisation and self-disclosure that playfulness is most evident in my data.

7.11 Operation Fifteen, Empathy and Praise

Another feature of general conversation that teachers can use strategically is *praise*. I include in my use of this term the complimentary remarks and acknowledgment of others' ideas that are classed as *strokes* in TA, *giving face* in Goffman's work and creating and maintaining *rappport* in NLP (see Chapter 3, Section 3.9). In classrooms, evaluative feedback is most commonly given by the Teacher as the F move in the Sinclair-Coulthard IRF exchange, and may consist of single word items such as *good*, *great*, *excellent*. In general conversation, these single word items also abound, but not for evaluating correct or incorrect performance so much as simply for commenting on the previous speaker's utterance. McCarthy (1998) has noted that fuller evaluative comments are frequent in conversation, often taking the form of idioms (as in Speaker 3's utterance in the following extract):

Speaker 1: *I thought oh am I never gonna see you again and on the Wednesday I was just walking past the bank and I saw him*

Speaker 2: *That's a bit odd*

Speaker 3: *Small world*

(McCarthy, 1998, p.136)

He goes on to discuss the frequency in everyday conversation of the *relational* function of the follow up move, where:

... social, cultural and affective meanings are encoded in relation to responses, in addition to acknowledging the response and its information, and where key conversational processes such as convergence are effected.

(McCarthy, 1998, p.53)

An example of *giving face* in the follow up move in my data occurs in Loretta's Upper Level Class, when her student, Edi's response is not what she expected:

Loretta: *What do I stress when I say that I don't like some types of jazz music*

Edi: *Some*

Loretta: *Some yeah*

Edi: *Is it the quality of the music*

Loretta: *Mm ... No... I know what you mean Edi yeah*

In Section 7.6, above, it was stated that the Trainee Teachers in my data frequently referred to shared experience by situating their comments in past time. McCarthy (1998:36) refers to this phenomenon as *recollection* and contrasts it with what he calls *formulation*: a kind of commentary summing up the gist of the conversation as the speaker perceives it. In my classroom data, idiomatic evaluative comments fulfilling the function of formulation are present, as the following examples show:

Loretta: *Gosh that's a new one*

Natalie: *Excellent I like that idea*

George: *Well done that's put the pressure on the other groups*

In Operation Fifteen, the use of *praise* was computed for each Trainee in each class in Cohort Two (tabulated in Appendix M). A relatively closed group of one or two word items was normally used for this function. All the Trainees used praise, within which I include simple acknowledgement, at both levels. At the Lower Level it ranged from three to seventeen

utterances per lesson, and at the Upper Level from seven to twenty-five utterances. Natalie and Bill were the most effusive, their respective preferences being for *good* and *that's it*. In the Cohort Two data, there were two categories of items capable of simultaneously signalling praise and performing a lesson-structuring role. The first was the one-word exponent, *good*, used to fulfil the dual function of praising what has just gone on and signalling a change of stage, e.g. '*Good ... So*' (Amelia's data). The second was longer utterances of evaluative commentary, used with the dual function of praising and signalling an imminent feedback stage:

Bill: *Well we all seem to be getting there*

Bernice: *OK there's some very interesting conversations going on.*

7.12 Operation Sixteen, Empathy and Perceptual Position

In Chapter 4, Section 4.7, I discussed the NLP notion of *perceptual positions*, and their verbal manifestation through the pronominal use of *I*, *you*, *they* and *we*. In Operation Sixteen, the distribution of pronominal use was computed for each lesson for each Trainee in Cohort Two, in order to discover the variety and balance of *perceptual positions* being used as the classes unfolded (these computations are given in Appendices M and N). In the classroom, the *fourth position* view takes in both learners and Teacher, combined together as *the field*. I was interested in finding out the relative occurrence of this position in the data, because of its significance in terms of *rapport* (see Chapter 3, Section 3.9). The fourth position view is normally represented verbally by the use of pronominal *we* (*us*, *our*). However, it is evident from my data that this relationship is also typically represented in

the classroom by the use of *everyone, everybody, no-one, nobody, anyone, anybody, someone, somebody* and, very occasionally, *people (them, their)*.

The results from Operation Sixteen are striking, in terms of balance of perceptual positioning, when presented in pie chart form (see Appendix N). For example, Loretta, in both her classes, clearly prioritises *we* and *I* over *you* (*we* and *I* together make up 70% of her total pronominal use at each level, whilst *you* accounts for only 24%). In contrast, Bill and Natalie use *I* very little, but Natalie compensates for this by using a high percentage of inclusive *we*. Inclusive *we* is common in the data for presenting language, e.g. Loretta's '*When we use 'a few' often we use 'quite' before it*', whilst inclusive *everyone* is frequent in feeding back from tasks, e.g. George's '*Anybody get number two?*' and '*Did everybody agree?*' Combinations of inclusive *we* and *everyone* are prominent at the warm up stage, where greetings have a strong relational function, e.g.:

Bill: *OK let's kick off I'm going to give everybody one of these ... what we're going to do*

George: *Hello everyone Hi remember when we were doing advice those of us who were here...*

Rosalind: *OK Good morning everybody we'll start ... anybody tell me what Nelson Mandela was famous for?*

They are also heavily utilised in the setting up of tasks, as in the following:

Natalie: *OK then we're going to move on now ... does anybody know ...*

Loretta: *OK what we're going to do now is practise what we've been learning ... does everyone want to turn over their paper?*

7.13 Affect in Context

The affective, social or relational dimension of teacher-generated language acts as a counterweight to the formal structural dimension identified previously. Figure 7.13.1 gives a list of what I am calling *rappor-enhancing functions*. They are exemplified from the highlighted extracts, Figs 5.2.1, 5.2.2, and 7.6.1, Chapters 5 and 7 (see also Appendix L).

Figure 7.13.1 Rapport-enhancing Functions

INTERACTIONAL FUNCTIONS <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Maximise comprehensible input using speech rate, pausing and repetition, e.g. <i>'Come into the middle here please come into the middle here everybody into here'</i> (Fig. 7.6.1, L.13);• Create interaction by eliciting responses from learners, e.g. <i>'What do you think I'm going to be talking about today?'</i> (Fig. 7.6.1, L.36) or simulate interaction by using rhetorical checks, e.g. <i>'OK'</i> (Fig. 7.6.1, L.4).
PERSONALISING FUNCTIONS <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Personalise by nominating and/or referring to learners' shared experience, e.g. <i>'This is really similar to what you've done with Leanne'</i> (Fig. 5.2.2, L.33), <i>'What do you like most and least about England'</i> (Fig. 7.6.1, L.18);• Personalise by making a self-disclosing reference or commentary, e.g. <i>'For example my background is that I em I grew up in Liverpool'</i> (Fig. 5.2.1, L.69), <i>'I thought it was quite scary'</i> (Fig. 5.2.2, L.9).
EMPATHISING FUNCTIONS <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Empathise by using praise, e.g. <i>'Brilliant very good'</i> (Fig. 5.2.1, L.4);• Empathise by giving face, e.g. <i>'We all feel a bit sleepy'</i> (Fig. 7.6.1, L.11);• Empathise by taking fourth perceptual position, e.g. <i>'Let's have a look together'</i> (Fig. 5.2.1, L.31);• Empathise by taking on learners' voices, e.g. <i>'Yes spring (ST) comforting why (ST) mm hm'</i> (Fig. 5.2.1, L.94.)

Some of the affective features that have been discussed in this Chapter and their relationship to teacher role are exemplified by George at the beginning of his Upper Level Class (see Figure 7.13.2 and Appendix Q). In Heron's terminology (see Chapter 3, Section 3.6), George begins in *hierarchical* role by nominating a student, then passes into *co-operative* power-sharing role, before moving back into *hierarchical* role. Linguistically, this pre-task phase is highly complex. George skilfully establishes rapport by signalling his attention to what his students have to say, taking on their voices by repeating their words (NLP *pacing*, see Chapter 3, Section 3.9), unobtrusively completing or reformulating their utterances, and acknowledging their responses by using brief vocalisations such as *yep* and *yeah* (known as *backchannelling*, see McCarthy, 1991, 1999:127). He then prepares the way for the start of the lesson proper, whose focus is on the language of holiday itineraries, by using fourth position *anybody* in a playful idiomatic evaluative commentary. When read in conjunction with the related teaching material (see Appendix Q), it is clear that George is simultaneously socialising, structuring learning, sensitising learners to language content, and working with course materials, i.e. mixing a cocktail of the elements proposed by Brown and Armstrong, Oliver and Mackey, Willis and Walsh that were discussed in Chapter 6 (Section 6.5):

Figure 7.13.2 (transcript gives teacher's words only)

OK when you were talking to Natalie you Edi did you hear about it you've been to London yesterday and did you hear about any of these landmarks St Paul's Cathedral yep Oh so you went everywhere house yep and how did you decide where to go was it part of an organised tour you organised it yourself (laughter) so you decided yourself in Greenwich yeah where the em centre of the time is yeah yeah yeah along a laser in the sky horizon yeah so if anybody wants to go to London you have to ask Edi (laughter)

For George, these are non-conscious processes, but, for Teacher Education purposes, they can be identified, analysed and modelled as *interactional strategies* by those who might seek to emulate George's communicative success (see Chapter 8).

The hybridity evident in the extract from George's Cohort Two data just quoted is noticeable in my data as a whole, in terms of the *ESOL lesson genre* within this British context. In the Cohort One data, hybridity is nowhere more evident than in Jane's Upper Level Class (Fig. 5.2.2). She begins in conversational style at Lines 1-19, slips into a high degree of formality by reading aloud from a dictionary at Lines 24-26, moves into managerial mode at Lines 27-39, and then engages in an intimate explanation of how to play cricket, using approximations that are hardly representative of teacher talk in traditional classroom settings, e.g. '*it happens in er sort of a big field*', '*you have three like a goal post type of thing*' (Channell, 1994, categorises these approximations as *vague language*). The data from both Cohort One and Cohort Two thus illustrate specific classroom communities of Teachers in Training, their Tutors and their students, working in friendly relationship together, interacting and sharing in their particular version of the TESOL *game*.

7.14 Conclusion

Taking into consideration BOTH *structuring* functions AND *rapport-enhancing* functions in researching teacher-generated language has proved

revealing. It has allowed me to show that the interactional balance between teacher-centredness and student-centredness in any given class is evidenced not only by the ratio of teacher-dependent to teacher-independent work, but by the nature of the teacher-student relationship revealed verbally, for example by pronominal use. The individual differences apparent among the subjects in my research has shown a variety of possible combinations of the two dimensions of *head* and *heart*. To exemplify this, the particular combinations for Bernice's Lower Level Class are revealed in Figure 7.14.1. These should be read in conjunction with the full lesson transcript given in Section 7.6, and with my commentary, which now follows. (For additional information, the Lesson Plan and Tutor Feedback for this lesson are given in Appendix R.)

With regard to *structuring* language teaching, Bernice uses very clear signalling, as can be seen from the grid of lesson structuring exponents. According to the global interaction chart, she creates an even balance between teacher-fronted and teacher-independent work, though only three of the six global interaction patterns are used. From the detailed interaction grid, it is evident that the occurrences of the TS global interaction pattern are limited to one minute each and are used for setting up tasks (Lines 10-25, 74-81 and 82-85). Bernice also attends to both meaning and form in the language she exposes her learners to in class, including opportunity to engage with one another in natural conversational interaction (Paradigm 2) in the first task (Lines 25-28). Her lesson uses TBL: she introduces a warm up task (Line10), sensitises learners to language needed for the main task

without presenting specific language forms (Lines 49-73), uses a reporting stage in the task cycle (Lines 82-85), and then a final, form-focussed, post-task feedback stage (Lines 86-98). In terms of *rappport-enhancing* functions, Bernice uses little praise. She uses nomination for structuring and teaching, rather than for social purposes, and the same is true of self-disclosure (e.g. Lines 46,49,59,69). She uses rhetorical checks, but these are limited to *OK* and *Yeah*. However, she encourages a large number of student turns. She slows her speech rate below three syllables per second (the threshold of native speaker to native speaker interaction, see Rost, 2002) and uses this interactional adjustment together with pausing, rather than repetition, to achieve comprehensible input. Bernice is adept at creating positive affect by using fourth perceptual position in pre-task (Lines 1-48 show eight occurrences), though this position is rare in the rest of the lesson. *Teaching functions* have not been researched here (though see Appendix L). Such functions relate to presentation and practice activities (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000:217) and include correcting errors, presenting lesson content, reviewing previously taught language and modelling language forms, exemplified by Bernice in Fig. 7.6.1 at Lines 49-73 and 86-97. The overall picture emerging from the observational data from Bernice is that she is businesslike about her teaching and has a high regard for formal structure. She understands the value of rapport but prefers to preserve a separation between teaching and socialising, which she reserves for the warm up phase of the lesson. Bernice's own aspirations, as expressed in the interpretive data, are as follows:

I would like to develop into the sort of teacher that I had when I was learning a language, one who is inspiring and works hard on developing motivation

Figure 7.14.1 Bernice's Lower Class, a Holistic Perspective

Lesson Structuring

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (COMMUNICATION TASKS) Class Duration: 26 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Introduction and set up Task	Right good morning.. OK first of all	TS2	0	0
2: Task – discussion, warm up to topic	-	SS2	n/a	n/a
3: Introduce language for further task	OK we'll bring that OK right have a ... OK going to do an	TS12ST12	32	2
4: Set up further Task	-	TS2	0	0
5: Further Task – paired discussion	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
6: Set up further Task	OK there's some	TS12	0	0
7: Further Task – report discussion results	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
8: Feedback and consolidation, close	OK can you look at OK I'll pass you ..	TS12ST12	10	0
		TOTALS	42	2

Interactional Adjustments and Strategies

SPEECH RATE	PAUSING	REPETITIONS
2.72	25	2
2.62	17	1

Rhetorical Checks

OK	Yeah	Right	No	Tag	TOTAL
8	7	0	0	0	15

Nominations

STRUCTURING	TEACHING	SOCIALISING	TOTAL
3	8	2	13

Perceptual Positions

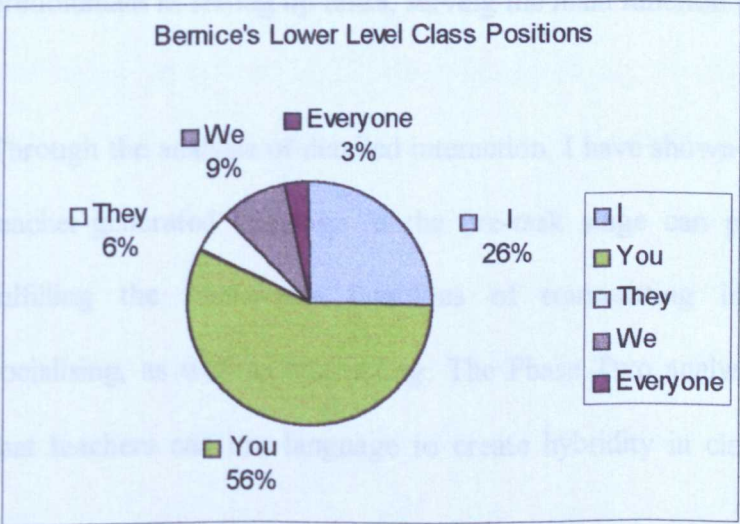
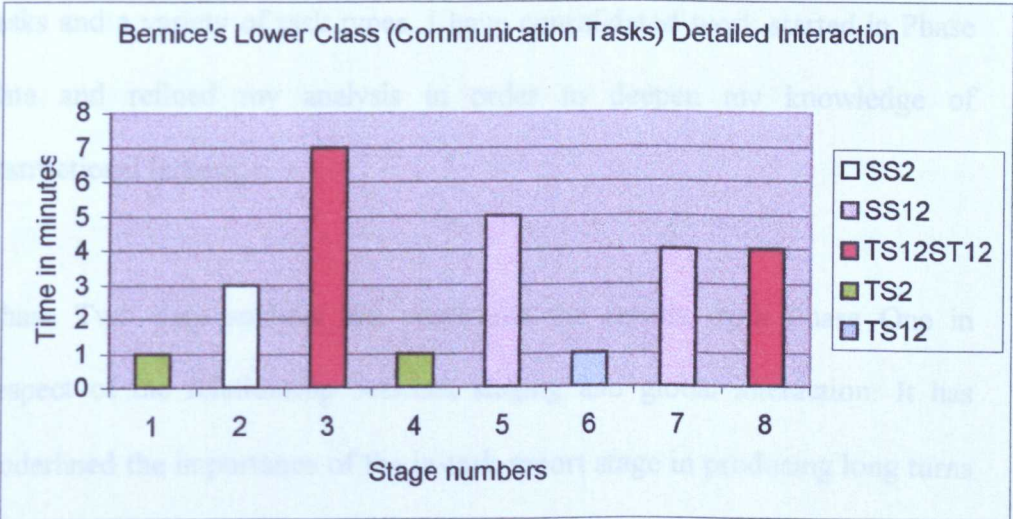
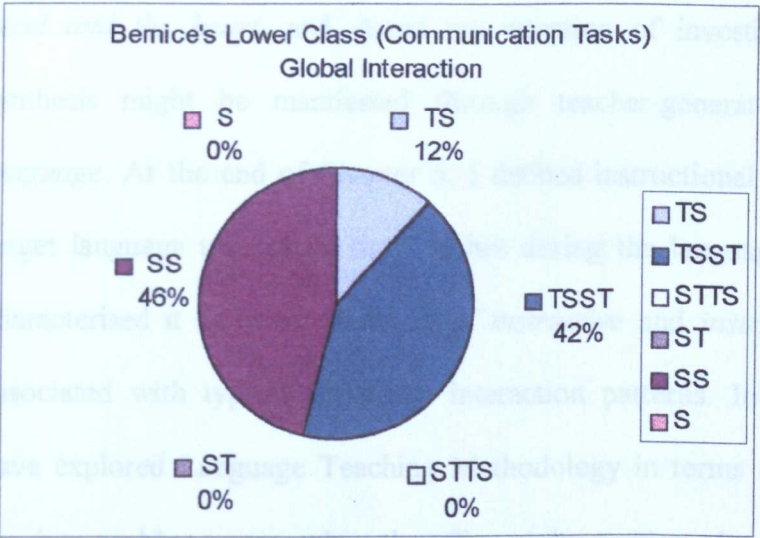
I	YOU	THEY	WE	EVERYONE
23	51	5	8	3

Praise

Thanks	Good/ Great	Fine/That's it/correct	Well done	Spot on/ Exactly	Excel -lent	Brilli- ant	Com- ment	TOTAL
0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	4

Self Disclosure

Personal References	Asides	TOTAL
2	0	2



I began this thesis by referring to the notion of teaching as a *synthesis of the head and the heart*, and stated my intention of investigating how this synthesis might be manifested through teacher-generated *instructional language*. At the end of Chapter 5, I defined instructional language as any target language uttered by the Teacher during the language class. I also characterised it as being made up of *instructive* and *instructing* elements, associated with typical classroom interaction patterns. In this Chapter, I have explored Language Teaching Methodology in terms of its impact on my data, and begun to explore the effect on interaction of a predominance of tasks and a variety of task types. I have consolidated work started in Phase One and refined my analysis in order to deepen my knowledge of instructional language.

Phase Two data analysis has confirmed the results from Phase One in respect of the relationship between staging and global interaction. It has underlined the importance of the in-task report stage in producing long turns from students. It has confirmed the TS global interaction pattern as predominant in setting up tasks, serving the main function of *instructing*.

Through the analysis of detailed interaction, I have shown in Phase Two that teacher-generated language in the pre-task stage can provide rich input, fulfilling the *instructive* functions of transmitting information and/or socialising, as well as *instructing*. The Phase Two analysis has also shown that teachers can use language to create hybridity in classroom discourse,

including exposure to, or opportunity to use, language functions appropriate to natural settings.

Phase One findings in respect of discourse analysis and lexical signalling, with specific reference to macro and micro discourse markers, have been confirmed and extended in Phase Two: eight functions for *structuring* lessons have been identified, including those for context setting, managing and staging. In Phase Two I have additionally analysed ways in which affective features may be revealed through teacher-generated language: eight functions for *enhancing rapport* have been identified, including those for maximising comprehensible input, creating interaction, personalising and empathising. The multi-purpose nature of some of the exponents, in fulfilling both *instructing* and *instructive* functions, has also been evidenced.

By drawing up lists of functional language appropriate, on the one hand, to *structuring* and, on the other, to *rapport-enhancing*, I have identified eight *head* and eight *heart* elements that can be brought to the *instructional language game*. Here, just as in chess, a single piece may be capable of moving in several different ways: personalising through nomination, for example, can be used either for social purposes or for class management.

I should re-emphasise here that my research is situated within a British State Higher Education Institution, and ESOL Teachers who are trained in the multilingual context of language classes in Britain learn to play the TESOL game in specific ways. The importance of context was well understood by

Wittgenstein (PI 31), who thought it was possible to understand the words, *'This is the king'*, by virtue of having played, or seen others play, other similar games (*andere Spiele*):

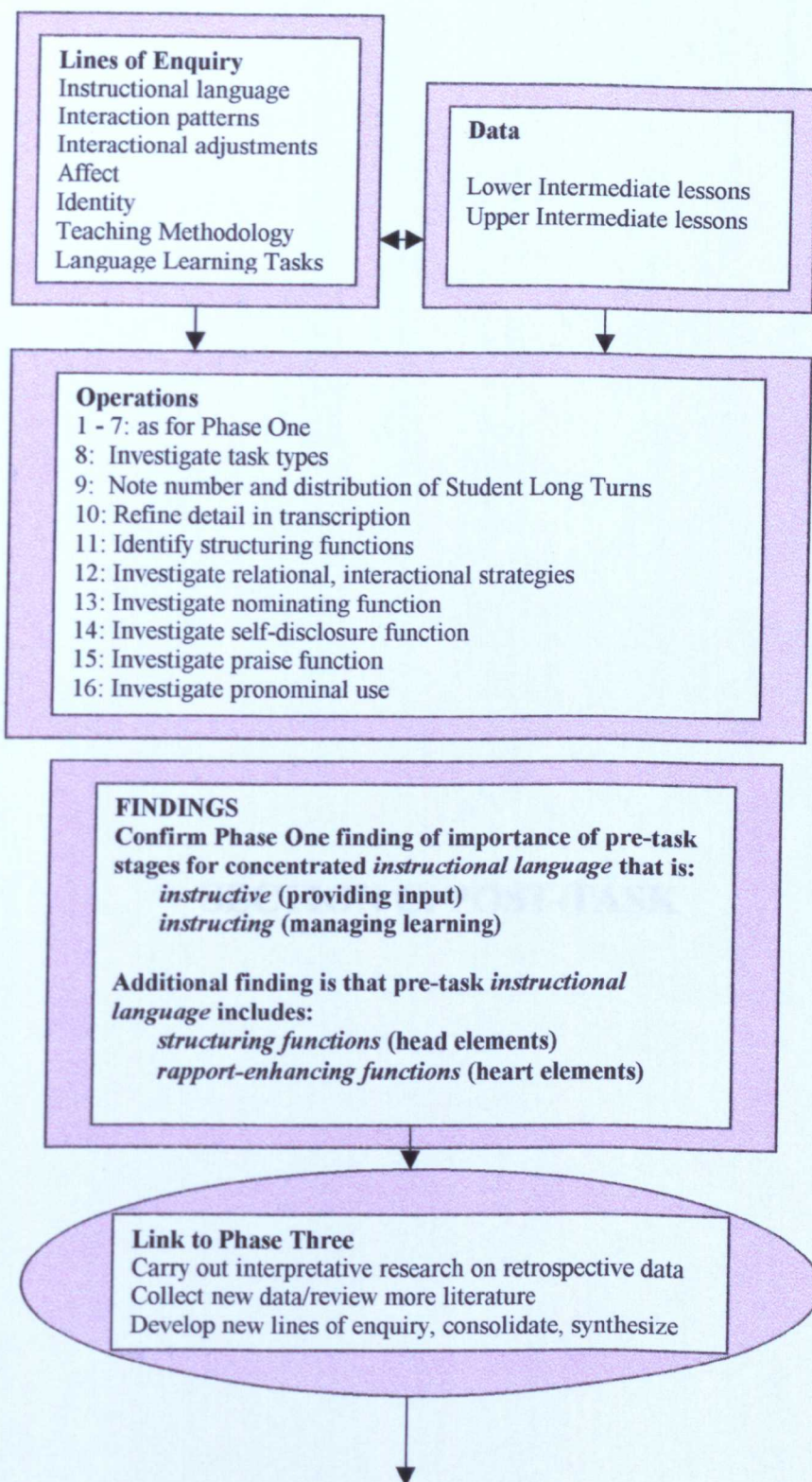
In diesem Fall werden wir sagen: die Worte 'Das ist der König'... sind nur dann eine Worterklärung, wenn der Lernende schon 'weiss, was eine Spielfigur ist'. Wenn er also etwa schon andere Spiele gespielt hat, oder dem Spielen Anderer 'mit Verstandnis' zugesehen hat...

In this case we shall say: the words, 'This is the King' ... are a definition only if the learner already 'knows what a piece in a game is'. That is, if he has already played other games, or has watched other people playing 'and understood'.

The Trainees in my data, too, have taken part in other classroom games, played by other rules, and the impact of these experiences will be explored in the next Chapter.

Figure 7.14.2 gives a visual representation of my Iterative Research Framework as it exists at this point, i.e. at the end of Phase Two of my study. In terms of the original framework, set out in Figure 4.14.1, I have now addressed in detail the three elements of *managing learning*, *fostering interaction* and *relating to individuals* embedded in the first of my research questions, which was, *'How do teachers use language to manage learning, relate to individuals and foster interaction in the language classroom?'* I have still to investigate the two further issues of what my research participants consider effective language teaching to be, and whether it can be trained. It is for the purpose of addressing these questions that I now come to the analysis of my interpretive data, in Chapter 8.

Figure 7.14.2 Iterative Research Framework Revisited, End Phase Two



SECTION C: POST-TASK

CHAPTER 8: THE INNER MOVES

8.1 Introduction

Question: “All right, so is there anything else to think of?”

I feel at this point in the research process much as Alice must have done, as she surveyed from her hilltop vantage point the strange country that was Looking Glass Land:

For some minutes Alice stood without speaking, looking out in all directions over the country – and a most curious country it was. There were a number of tiny little brooks running straight across it from side to side, and the ground between was divided up into squares by a number of little green hedges, that reached from brook to brook. ‘I declare it’s marked out just like a large chessboard!’ Alice said at last.

(Carroll, 1952, p.35)

Wittgenstein too, in the Preface to the PI, talked of his own investigations as occurring in a landscape where he travelled ‘*over a wide field of thought (ein weites Gedankengebiet), criss cross in every direction (kreuz und quer, nach allen Richtungen)*’.

My task in Phases One and Two of my study was to begin to make sense of a patchwork landscape of areas relevant to my research into *instructional language*, and to identify some typical moves within it. In the game of chess, each player uses sixteen chessmen in all, of six different types. In analysing my classroom data in Chapters 5 and 7, I used sixteen operations to identify, for the *instructional language game* played in my context, sixteen elements, contained in the six functions of *contextualising, managing, structuring, interacting, personalising* and *empathising*. I also discovered that these functions were prioritised by individual Trainees in different ways, according not only to task focus, task type and classroom

dynamic, but also to personal factors. Kasparov likewise observes that, in chess:

apart from the face value of each chessman there exists a real value which changes in the course of the game. This more subtle and important notion reflects the importance of each chessman with respect to its workload at a given moment, to its prospects resulting from the specific situation on the chessboard, and to the plan of the game.

(Kasparov, 1993, p.9)

In Phase One of my research, I explored the nature of linguistic knowledge and communication skills relevant to language teaching. In Phase Two, I added a focus on teaching methods and approaches, with particular reference to the use of tasks. In Phase Three of my research, reported here, I planned to investigate interpretive data, in order to shed light on the *inner moves* (Wittgenstein's *innerer Vorgang*, see Chapter 4, Section 4.3) that might have informed the classroom practices of my research subjects. I aimed:

- to discover Trainees' opinions on what constitutes effective language teaching, with special reference to *instructional language*;
- to discover Trainees' opinions on the teachability of effectiveness;
- to investigate the effects of extending Trainees' awareness of the use of *instructional language* in TBL;
- to explore Trainees' awareness of the roles of identity and context in the methodological choices open to them.

8.2 General Attitudes to Effectiveness

In Phase One of my research, I conducted interviews with Cohort One Trainees that touched on the concept of effectiveness in Language Teaching, and on its teachability. I interviewed Jane, Kath, Lavinia and Leanne. A sample transcript, of Jane's interview, is given in full, as Appendix H, but I

have collated and summarised in Figure 8.2.1 the responses from all the Phase One interviewees relating to effectiveness and its teachability. The key concepts arising from these responses chime with the personal intuitions that informed the investigations reported in this thesis, namely, classroom interaction and task-oriented learning.

Figure 8.2.1 Cohort One Interview Data

'How would you know that you were in a good language teacher's class?'

They'd love what they are doing

Everybody would be working together and it would just flow

I think there'd be participation and motivation

Interest, everyone would be on task, voluntary participation, comfortable, confident enough to answer, there would be lots of communication and interaction

If I was in a good class there would be working in groups students working independently on various tasks cos I think group work is very effective

Get the students moving and a bit active

Perhaps being less formal, if they have got a good rapport then you learn more

I think a good teacher recognises what learners are like, if you do have someone who just dictates everything and doesn't really talk to the students you don't feel like you're part of the group

You'd learn a lot, you'd look forward to going to the lessons you'd do your homework you'd do what you were asked and you'd participate in class and you'd enjoy it you'd really feel like you were learning and getting something out of the lessons

A variety of activities a solid framework if we were learning new vocabulary it would be on the board so that I'd have it

Really engaging with the subject

'Is it possible to train people to be good language teachers?'

I do think it is I think you have to have a tendency towards teaching that you want to try and help people and expand their knowledge

I think you can train people, you can give them the tools and give them as much help as you can but unless they really are motivated then they won't be as good but I still think they can be teachers I definitely do just seeing how I've come on and all my classmates

I think everyone who started the course thinks they've got it in them

It does depend on your personality and then you can take those elements and build upon them

I think you do need to be able to communicate well, present well in front of a class, enthusiastic and quite a motivated person, friendly person to start with and then the methods or whatever come later

I don't think you can just take anyone off the street

I think you could give people tools but to be a good teacher you've got to really want to be a teacher

I don't think you'd be able to train someone without a good language background and who really wanted to do it

The consensus of opinion from these Trainees is that effectiveness in teaching can be trained, and that such training will work best for those who have good subject knowledge, good communication skills, and a real desire to teach. For them, effectiveness involves highly interactive classes, a balance of Teacher-fronted and Teacher-independent activity, and a friendly relationship with an enthusiastic and knowledgeable Teacher. It is worth reiterating in this connection, given what has been said about the generalisability of my research (see Chapter 2, Section 2.9), that all the Trainees interviewed were British native speakers educated in Britain.

8.3 Effectiveness in Instructional Language

To probe the nature of concerns about their own effectiveness, I scrutinised the *Lessons from the Classroom Assignments* from both Cohort One and Cohort Two Trainees. The following extracts show that these Trainees made reference to both structuring and rapport enhancing:

Structuring - Context Setting:

Bill: I have observed that demonstrating often reduces considerably a large amount of unnecessary teacher language, is explicit, and can often be much more effective than explanation alone. I could have improved my lesson of [date] by demonstrating with the students what was expected of them. This would have eliminated any possible cause of confusion.

Lavinia: In the lessons I observed instructions were broken down into stages. First by holding up the particular activity and then by pointing to the tasks on the sheet so that students have a clear understanding of what they are doing. Giving out instructions while handing out the worksheet is not very efficient because students have already started looking at the exercises and are not really listening to you.

Structuring - Managing:

Bill: I make an effort also to separate instructions from other chit chat by creating a silence, making eye contact, finding an authoritative tone and ensuring all students are listening before beginning

Lavinia: Until you've had considerable experience you'll need to write the [concept checking] questions in your lesson plan. I used to ask 'Do you understand?' all the time. I

found myself doing it automatically because it was easier than making up concept questions. Students don't gain anything from the lesson and you have to spend half the lesson explaining what they have to do over and over again.

Structuring - Staging:

Jane: I found it very useful to note that it is more productive to give the students a time limit when working on exercises... Sometimes it is a good idea to only give short amount of time to the students to work on exercises in groups, pairs or individually as this helps to maintain a good pace and interest.

Leanne: I need to remember to thank the class at the end for their attention

Rapport-enhancing - Interactional:

Amelia: I have lessened TTT by eliciting more from students, asking them to explain instructions and language issues to each other wherever possible

Bernice: I really noticed the difference ... between the Pre-intermediate and Upper-intermediate Levels. With the former, the pace is generally slower and you will be rewarded to taking the time to wait for an answer. In the latter, this is still important but it's important to adapt to the correct pace for the group and not 'labour' or repeat points that you would have to with the lower level.

Rapport-enhancing - Personalising:

Elaine: Over the weeks that I have spent observing and teaching, I have been able to see how important and influential the rapport between tutor and students can be. Simple things like using first names can make a difference

Leanne: Teachers appear to be interested in what the students are saying and add personal elements which helps to establish rapport

Rapport-enhancing - Empathising:

Bernice: I believe that the use of praise and encouragement in the classroom has a critical effect on student output and I observed how powerful a motivator this can be

Bill: It has been demonstrated to me that it is of paramount importance to promote the cultivation of a friendly relaxed learning environment (I did have a tendency to be a little too strict at first and to be rather tense)

8.4 Developing Effectiveness through Training

Given the evidence from interpretive data that the Cohort One and Cohort Two Trainees had concerns in the areas that I had prioritised for my research, I decided to take my interim findings to a further cohort of

CELTA Trainees, for comment and use. Of crucial importance for me in this venture was an understanding of how Teachers in Training might acquire knowledge. Three prevalent models of teacher learning are listed by Ur (1996:5) (my summary):

- *The Applied Science Model*, i.e. learning through theoretical courses in language teaching related disciplines, and applying the knowledge gained in practice;
- *The Craft Model*, i.e. learning by apprenticeship, via observation and imitation of a master teacher, as well as learning by personal experience and practice;
- *The Reflective Model*, i.e. learning through reflecting individually and with others on personal experience, and using the results to create theories about teaching.

As Britten (1997:15) has noted, when teacher training for ESOL (then known as EFL) started up in British universities in the 1960's, the content of training courses was mainly theoretical, with little linkage to outside teaching practice. When I undertook my Post-graduate Certificate in Education in 1969, it was through this *applied science* model, from which memories of theory and practice remain separate in my mind. In the model that I experienced, teaching was a technical matter of applying knowledge. Schon (1983) has referred to this as '*technical rationality*', and has criticised it for not taking account of the real need for teachers to make judgments that are unique to each class.

The *craft model* has been discussed by Woodward (1991):

Showing someone how to do something is a natural thing to do, you give a model and the others follow. The advantages of following models are that they are usually clear and definite. Followers know what is expected of them. . . . The disadvantages of models are that we may copy without understanding, or copy without realising we are copying, or copy something which is imperfect. . . . Modelled behaviour can become obsolete when the situation changes.

(Woodward, 1991, p. 83)

A drawback associated with this model is that expert teachers' knowledge is often *tacit* (Eraut, 2000), i.e. inaccessible and subconscious, and therefore not easily available to novice teachers. Marland (1995:131) has referred to this tacit knowledge as teachers' '*implicit theories of teaching*': the '*internal frames of reference, deeply rooted in personal experiences*' that guide classroom behaviour. A.J. Ayer, half a century ago, was also aware of the existence of tacit knowledge:

When people possess skills, even intellectual skills, like the ability to act or teach, they are not always consciously aware of the procedures which they follow. They use the appropriate means to attain their ends, but the fact that these means are appropriate may never be made explicit by them even to themselves. There are a great many things that people habitually do well, without remarking how they do them.

(Ayer, 1956, p.13)

The problem of tacit knowledge is addressed in Schon's (1983) *reflective practice model*, by bringing it into consciousness through the process of reflecting on teaching and learning experiences.

My own categorisation, as expressed in Chapter 1, is that of *self/other*, according to which both applied science and craft models would be combined under the category of *other*, whilst the reflective model would be in the category of *self*. Roberts (1998:109) also has a binary distinction, which he refers to as *knowledge-centred* versus *person-centred* teacher

education. The *knowledge-centred* category appears to conflate the applied science and craft models, and emphasises a view that there are some general *rules* for effective language teaching that apply across a range of contexts. The *person-centred* category appears to foreground the role of local context, and the ability of individual teachers to act appropriately, in personal ways. Roberts' alternative labels are *public/private*, or *external/internal*. Bearing these dichotomies in mind and applying Roberts' summary of roles of teachers and learners to those of Trainers and Trainees (1998:116, after Breen, 1987 and White 1988), the resulting paradigms for Language Teacher Education might be tabulated as (Fig. 8.4.1, my summary):

Figure 8.4.1 Paradigms for Teacher Education

OTHER-GENERATED KNOWLEDGE	SELF-GENERATED KNOWLEDGE
External to the Trainee	Internal to the Trainee
Directed by the Trainer	Inner directed
Determined by the Trainer	Negotiated between Trainer and Trainee
Trainer as decision maker	Trainer and Trainee as joint decision makers
Content related to Trainer's view of subject	Content related to Trainee's view of subject
Content given to Trainee by Trainer	Content brought and desired by Trainee
Objectives defined in advance	Objectives defined afterwards

As with all the dichotomies mentioned in this thesis, my position is that it is preferable to reframe and recombine them in terms of a cline or continuum. I would suggest, for example, that the kind of knowledge that results from discussion with close professional colleagues, rather than with academics,

belongs more comfortably towards the *self/person-centred/private/internal* end of such a continuum.

I advocate for Language Teacher Education a synthesis of aspects discussed thus far in this Chapter: theoretical underpinning and practical application, opportunities to see expert practitioners in action, and time to reflect on personal experience. In my institutional context of preparing Trainees for the CELTA, all these are brought into play, in a combination of processes similar to those suggested by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995): shared experience through apprenticeship to generate tacit knowledge; dialogue and collective reflection to articulate this tacit knowledge and make it explicit; and experience of doing the job to internalise and make tacit what has been taught explicitly. It is this internalisation that is crucial for the implementation of *transfer*, in Hargreaves' (1998) definition:

The transfer of practical knowledge between professionals involves far more than telling or simply providing information. If one teacher tells another about a practice that the first finds effective, the second teacher has merely acquired information, not personal knowledge. Transfer occurs only when the knowledge of the first teacher becomes information for the second, who then works on that information in such a way that it becomes part of his or her context of meaning and purpose...

(Hargreaves, 1998, p.46)

An important consideration here for me is the matter of my *role* in this transfer. Lai (2003:9) advocates adopting the role of *co-learner*, so that Trainees can learn *with* Teacher Educators rather than *under* them as facilitators or *from* them as transmitters. In my efforts to share my research findings productively with a third cohort of Trainees, I have also been mindful of Woodward's (1991) blueprint for change:

In order to understand what your present practice is, or what you do, you have to become aware of what you do and, in order to compare and contrast, become aware of what other people do. Change can then happen via the following processes:

Understanding what you do in your present practice

Making some mental models of your present state and the desired state

Playing around with models

Transferring information from them

Changing your practice

Freeing yourself to make new models or no models at all.

(Woodward,1991, p.129)

Woodward's words echo Barnes' view (cited in Norman, 1992) that most important learning, wherever it occurs, is a matter of constructing models, trying them out, and then reshaping them.

For specific guidance on constructing and reshaping models, I turned to the *meta-modelling* process familiar to me from NLP (Dilts, 1998:96-117). The NLP modelling strategy for skill-getting is to create steps towards *mastery* of the skill: this entails '*both the ability to do what you know and to know what you are doing*' (Dilts, 1998:49). The strategy involves first developing an intuition base about a particular behaviour (setting up a language learning task, in my case), and then identifying and defining characteristics and patterns in the behaviour (see my findings in Chapters 5 and 7). The next step is to design procedures and tools through which those characteristics and patterns can be transferred to others who wish to acquire the skill. The final step is then for the intending skill-acquirers to apply the model experientially, adjusting, refining and evaluating it by a process known as *back-propagation* (Dilts, 1998:49). The latter two procedures are the ones I attempted in Phase Three of my research, by means of a workshop conducted with a third set of CELTA Trainees, (henceforth Cohort Three,

see Appendix F for details). This workshop was designed to use a common NLP meta-modelling application (Dilts 1998) aimed at:

understanding something better by developing more meta-cognition about the processes which underlie it, in order to be able to teach about it, or use it as a type of benchmarking

(Dilts, 1998, p.30)

I now describe the workshop session and discuss the findings derived from it (see also Taylor, 2004a).

8.5 Evidence for Effectiveness from Cohort Three

The Twelve Trainees in Cohort Three, following a similar four-week intensive CELTA course to Cohort Two, participated in this workshop. It took place during Week Two of their course, i.e. at a point where the group had undertaken some teaching practice and participated in some teaching practice feedback sessions. Prior to the workshop, the Trainees had been asked to think about some *dos and don'ts for giving instructions*, drawing on their own experience thus far on the CELTA Course, and also on their wider reading. The rubric for the first workshop task, which the Trainees did without any prior input from me, is given in Figure 8.5.1, along with the resulting suggestions. Most fell within the *structural* and *rapport-enhancing* categories I identified and listed in Chapter 7. None of my *personalising* or *empathising* functions was amongst the suggestions given, however. This circumstance may have arisen because of my use of the words '*clear*' and '*unclear*'. Cohort Three may thus have been prompted to interpret *instructing* as being primarily concerned with structuring. In my subsequent use of this workshop activity, I have substituted the words '*effective*' and

'ineffective'. Cohort Three also showed an ambivalence in attitude towards the place of interaction in giving instructions. This seems to bear out my own suggestion (see Chapter 5, Section 5.6) about the suitability of the TS pattern to the task of instruction giving. It may also have to do with concerns about the effect of task complexity on the amount of TTT needed (see Fig. 7.2.2)

Figure 8.5.1 Cohort Three Workshop Data, Task One

TASK ONE RUBRIC

Have you developed any 'rules' or 'procedures' of your own for giving clear instructions, e.g. when setting up tasks or beginning an exercise with your students? Have you been unclear in giving instructions or noticed others being unclear? Take 5 minutes to think about this question, and write down up to five main ideas. We shall then share views and formulate initial guidelines together.

TASK ONE RESPONSES

- MY STRUCTURAL FUNCTIONS

(context setting: giving example/working through first example)

Give examples with instructions
Do the first few items with the class

(managing: focusing attention/organising behaviour/checking understanding)

Get attention and make sure students are listening to you
Make sure you face the class and gain eye contact
Avoid giving handouts before instructions
Do not speak over noisy groups
Manage behaviour
Check concept and understanding, e.g. by getting a student to repeat back to you

(staging: lexical signalling/setting a time limit)

Sequence instructions clearly
Set a time limit for the task

- MY RAPPORT-ENHANCING FUNCTIONS

(interactional: create interaction by eliciting/maximise comprehensible input)

Deliver information, asking questions at appropriate stages
Direct the class, do not ask questions when instructing
Speak clearly, loudly, slowly, concisely
Speak simply, uncluttered, less language rather than more
Stress important words
Repeat instructions for lower levels
Do not give too much information all at once

After sharing information from the first brainstorming exercise, the Cohort Three Trainees were divided into groups and given a transcript of one of five classroom extracts (see Appendix O). For reasons of confidentiality the audio recordings were not used. Instead, the Trainees were asked to look at, read aloud and discuss these extracts in relation to the criteria for effective instructional language that they had just identified. The Trainees were then regrouped so that they could together comment on all five extracts, with a view to identifying any other criteria for effectiveness that they might hitherto have overlooked. The rubrics for this stage of the workshop, with comments arising, are given as Figure 8.5.2. As in Figure 8.5.1, the full gamut of my *structuring* functions appears, but this time, perhaps prompted by their work with specific examples, the Trainees expand their *rappor-enhancing* list to include *personalising* along with *interactional* functions. *Empathising* functions also appear, through the negative evaluation of superciliousness and the positive evaluation of praise. Again, there is ambivalence about the amount of interaction that is optimum for setting up a task, and this time there seems in addition to be ambivalence about the amount, nature and usefulness of TTT and its relationship to teacher role: participants are divided on the acceptability of talking at length instead of concisely.

Figure 8.5.2 Cohort Three Workshop Data, Task Two

TASK TWO RUBRIC

You will be given an extract from a lesson in which the teacher sets up a task. Discuss the effectiveness of these instructions according to the criteria you identified in Task One. We shall then regroup and look at all the extracts, so that we can draw up a list of acceptable criteria that you can use to judge the effectiveness of your own instruction giving. As you engage in your discussions, note down any additions to your list of do's and don'ts for instruction giving, and be prepared to share them in feedback.

TASK TWO RESPONSES

POSITIVELY EVALUATED FOR EFFECTIVENESS (STRUCTURING)

Clear organisation
Explains how many things they need to do
Gives example
Organises groups well

POSITIVELY EVALUATED FOR EFFECTIVENESS (RAPPORT-ENHANCING)

Checks instead of tells
Concise
Directs questions at individuals, using names
Elicits vocabulary
Praises students
Rephrases

NEGATIVELY EVALUATED FOR EFFECTIVENESS (STRUCTURING)

Confusing, does things half way through e.g. concept checking
Doesn't seem to know what wanted students to do
Doesn't use example
Instructions mixed up with vocabulary work
Too long before task starts
Too many instructions given all at once
Too much teacher talk
Unclear grouping

NEGATIVELY EVALUATED FOR EFFECTIVENESS (RAPPORT-ENHANCING)

Inconsistent in terms used, i.e. 'problem' or 'question'
Instructions take too long
No concept checking
Repeats again and again
Supercilious
Unconfident

AMBIGUOUSLY EVALUATED FOR EFFECTIVENESS

Uses lots of words, but students understood
Lots of interaction but loses sight of task

As the final task in the workshop, a taxonomy of *rules* for instructional language in pre-task phase was drawn out of the preceding discussion and added to by me, to act as criteria by which the Trainees would judge their own setting up of tasks, when working through their *Lessons From the Classroom Assignment* (see Appendix B, and Figure 8.5.3). From my research findings, I fed my *structuring* functions into the discussion, with the suggestion that Trainees monitor their use of discourse markers, both for structuring and staging lesson and tasks, and for contextualising them in a timeframe. I also raised awareness of the value of labelling management of *behaviour* for tasks as a separate category from *staging* of tasks. In terms of my findings in relation to *rapport-enhancing* functions, I raised awareness of the use of personalisation and humour, and also of perceptual positions. This awareness-raising was done by drawing attention to these features in the extracts previously studied in the workshop.

Figure 8.5.3 Cohort Three Workshop, Task Three

TASK THREE RUBRIC

After the workshop, make an audio recording of one of your own lessons, and evaluate an extract of instruction giving from it according to the 'rules' we have discussed together. How would you rate this extract on the criteria for competence that you used in the workshop? What would you compliment yourself on? If you had to identify action point(s) relating to 'instruction giving' based on this extract, what would you choose? This analysis will form part of your Lessons from the Classroom Assignment for CELTA.

After the awareness-raising workshop, my expectation of the Cohort Three assignments was for greater detail than the previous cohorts in respect of their analysis of the practice of instructing. This proved to be the case (see

Appendix P). Assignments from Cohort One and Two had often been general and vague in their insight, e.g. *'I need to concentrate on improving the way in which I set up the task'* or *'my instructions could at times be confusing'*, whereas Cohort Three Trainees itemised the *rules* formulated in the workshop, and described their own practice for each, e.g.:

Structuring - Context Setting:

Holly: *It was only really in the very last instruction of the lesson that I highlighted how the task reflected an earlier activity, saying 'so like we did before, the food, the washing, the studying'*

Vivian: *When I asked the students to remember the three most important details about their character the third question was 'What you did next'. Some of the students looked a bit confused by this so I gave some examples like, 'You may have run away or looked out of the window'. I used examples that they could understand, and then they were able to pick out the important point from the information*

Structuring - Managing:

Kirsty: *Within my instructions, I said, 'I'm going to put you into groups' and, 'I'm going to put you into pairs'. I also said, 'I want each group to ...'*

Ralph: *I have found that as the course has progressed my focusing of the class or hailing has improved. In this case, I used, 'OK is everybody comfortable?' as there was some degree of moving around.*

Structuring - Staging:

Holly: *I provided time limits for certain activities in this lesson as needed, informing students that 'I'll give you two or three minutes to do that'*

Lara: *I then moved onto the next task by stating, 'What we are going to do now is read different extracts'*

Marie: *Before the students started the task, I recapped my instructions: 'So Dos and Don'ts ... everything I need to know... and you can tell me what you've got'*

Rapport Enhancing - Interactional:

Pat: *Then a check on understanding, 'OK? Got it?'*

Vivian: *When I set the scene for the role-play, the language was quite complicated so then I recapped by saying 'So, the idea is to tell as many people as possible what you saw'. I used simpler language in the recap stage so that everyone could understand*

Rapport Enhancing - Personalising:

Lara: *Personalising with humour about noisy foxes where Eleanor lives*

Susan: *I also made an effort to show an interest in the students and monitor their progress which makes the lesson more personal and aids rapport. 'Are you alright Eleanor?'*

Marie: *I then proceeded to start the task by saying, 'I'm going to tell you stories about my travels in India, so I want you to listen very carefully. I am going to give you all a map of the places that I had visited. In each of those places, I went to see some lovely sights'*

Rapport-enhancing - Empathising

Susan: *... also praised the students: 'Excellent, yeh, good story, well done.'*

Kirsty: *I haven't been consistent – on the whole I've said 'you' rather than 'we', e.g. 'You're going to...', 'You're each going to have two phrases'. Examples of my using 'we' are, 'Now we're going to do...', 'We're going to take a look at ...'*

Holly's assignment is particularly revealing about the process of acquiring competence in *instructional language* (see Appendix P). Here I quote as an example her paragraph on starting off a task:

Holly: *Listening closely to this lesson reveals just how often I use the phrase 'if you could' as a task starter (about 12 times). At first I found this sounded quite polite but after a while it did sound very repetitive and not really very authoritative at all ... The one time I stepped away from this groove and used 'I'd like you to ..' I found that I immediately sounded far more 'teacher-like' and in control.*

The results from this awareness-raising workshop, evidenced through the Cohort Three Assignments, therefore seem to suggest that effectiveness can be enhanced by developing a metalanguage for novice teachers to use when describing their own linguistic output.

8.6 Effective Use of Teacher-Independent Learning Activities

In my review of the literature in Chapters 3 and 6, I discussed the need for teachers to be aware of the role of interaction in language learning, and noted how CLT, and TBL in particular, demand competence in managing a

variety of interactive procedures. I now investigated in the interpretive data as a whole the general notion of effectiveness in Language Teaching Methodology.

TBL was not specifically mentioned in the data, but there appeared to be an assumption that TESOL involves learners working individually, in pairs or in groups, on a variety of *tasks*, in the broadest sense of the term. Trainees' lesson plans had shown that tasks seemed to be an important organising factor in planning the staging of lessons. However, the lesson plans had also evidenced difficulties in formulating pedagogic goals for these stages. Jane, for example, had made some inappropriate use of Harmer's *ESA* model (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3.1), whilst Bernice had on occasion confused her *teaching aims* with *learning aims* for her students (see Appendix R for the relevant plans, with my commentary). In addition, *stage procedures* had often been confused with *stage aims*, exemplified both by George, with no classroom experience at all, and by Natalie, with many years of teaching behind her:

George:

9.30 *Warm-up to set up/lead into today's lesson*

9.35 *Feedback*

9.40 *Reading Task. To give students a model. Check comprehension.*

9.50 *Further Reading. S's are given one of 3 questions/solutions to read.*

Natalie:

9.45 *To brainstorm theme and analyse advertising images*

9.55 *To review and develop students' understanding/use of comparatives and superlatives*

10.00 *To work together to analyse an image. Pick out grammar points.*

Trainees in all phases of my research commented in their assignments on the difference between their TESOL observation experience and their previous experience of teaching or being taught:

Amelia: *As an observer I was quite surprised by the constant change in activity in the space of 45 minutes... I began to recognise that I had come with a different style of teaching from Modern Languages which was very different ... I didn't expect to find out that I was too teacher centred. One of the problems lay in not being able to distance myself from the students once they were in pair or group work... [I learned to adopt] the role of presenter, organiser and monitor*

Callum: *The imbalance between TS and SS is exemplified in some of my earlier lesson plans. This was probably due to what I thought teaching involved: presenting information, asking questions, and corrections in large quantities, with students taking a back seat role, receiving information rather than practising it amongst themselves.*

Chris: *It is good to relocate students and mix groups up for new activities. This allows students to work with other students in the group and get to know each other better.*

Elaine: *[My Tutor] finds it quite amusing that I seem to get carried away with vocabulary, but I think it's something that I've picked up from my own language learning... my teachers at school put a huge emphasis on vocabulary, so it's become a habit for me.*

Lara: *Instruction giving and elicitation has been new to me. It has taken the whole of the course for me to develop a teaching style so different from the one I use in teacher training and now I feel that I have a new 'toolkit' for my future teaching.*

Natalie: *Classroom management in EFL involves a much wider use of techniques than would normally be found in other subject teaching. Within an EFL class we may have whole group, small group, transient groups or pair work going on at any given time*

Pat: *Since all of the lessons observed involved some teacher talking time and some time with the students engaged in productive skills, there was quite a bit for the teacher to prepare before the lesson and then quite a bit of instruction giving in the lesson... My previous experience of being the facilitator, performer and organiser of a group helped towards understanding my role in the classroom and I was interested to learn and observe about the importance of other aspects of teaching, particularly as the assessor and prompter which were rather new to me... One lesson for an intermediate class was a revision game which involved a board game... The students remained motivated and on task for a full hour doing this activity, which surprised me.*

In reframing their notion of language teaching in respect of task oriented procedures, Trainees appeared to have found it helpful to *borrow* from more experienced voices, using metalanguage (emboldened in the following examples) that they later internalised:

Catherine: My tutors **activated schemata** from the students

Chris: As regards **eliciting**, I think I am improving in this area and I am starting to find myself eliciting naturally now without having to consciously think about it...

Natalie: *I have seen the use of a pseudo 'circle-time' technique, accompanied by grammar input which has not delivered a clearly focussed task. Students, whilst no doubt feeling integrated into the lesson, and that they have been exposed to a grammar structure, were subsequently left in an activity or practice void. A more experienced teacher has taken the*

approach of **eliciting** application of a taught structure, using a **multi-sensory** or **integrated communicative skills** approach.

Ralph: *By looking at my lesson plans it was obvious that there was too much **teacher-centred staging** and not enough emphasis on student interaction and communication.*

Vivian: *I noticed that most activities end with **feedback**, either from student to teacher or teacher to student. This was not something that I had noticed before the course... It was not until after I had started to teach classes on my own that I noticed how difficult the staging and setting of tasks and activities really is. One of my peers spent so long talking and explaining things she ran out of time for the actual task. This is something that I have found fairly challenging as you need enough **TTT** for the students to understand but instructions should be clear and concise. **Concept Checking** elements of the instructions would be an improvement on my existing method of just asking if they understand.*

The intuitions that led to my own investigations therefore chime with the general methodological concerns of the Trainees in my data: these relate to effectiveness in managing a balance, both in terms of SS and TS interaction, and in terms of form-focused and meaning-focused language content.

8.7 Effectiveness and Context

The Trainees gave evidence through their interpretive data that they were aware of the effect of contextual variables on methodological choice:

Elaine: *I found the PPP format very useful with lower level students ... it's very rigid and secure, and although they don't see the lesson plan they know not to panic at the first stage because they're going to encounter the language again in the next stage... I've used more communication based tasks. I've found it easier here than in France because the classes are multilingual, so as a result of my negative experience with communication tasks in France I've found it really hard to let students go and allow them to work independently*

Kath: *With the upper level, students could often grasp the meaning and put it into context at the same time and they could go onto a pairwork activity or writing activity. At the lower level many more stages were needed and much more teacher control. There was a need for a frame and some oral examples so that the students could practice pronunciation.*

Kirsty: *I've felt less inclined to use time limits on the Pre-intermediate Group when I'm still assessing how long they take to complete tasks... It was necessary to make a conscious effort to split the nationalities in this class to discourage their use of L1 in group work. Regrouping this class clearly had a positive effect on their productivity, this was clear from both observing and whist teaching.*

Marie: *During class observation I have noted the importance of a student centred teaching environment. The teacher acts as a facilitator of student discussion and interaction rather than taking the role of a lecturer. I think that has been particularly important for the students that my peers and I have taught, as most of them are on study holidays and want the chance to get involved and make a contribution to the class.*

8.8 The Teachability of Being

In terms of personal and social identity, a CELTA course at my institution, in which Trainees work in Teaching Practice Groups together with a Tutor and have collective responsibility for the planning and delivery of four weeks of teaching, as well as for peer observation and feedback, can engender a strong sense of community. I noted in the observational data its contribution to the *hybridity* of language input in Teaching Practice Classes, evidenced in Jane's Upper Level Class (Fig.5.2.2), which included Tutor participation in the general chat at the start of the lesson. My observational data also showed that Trainees (and Tutor) helped one another out on occasion with the language content of Teaching Practice Classes:

Leanne: (appeals to Tutor) *It's all one word isn't it wheelbarrow?*

Tracey (Tutor): *Wheelbarrow one word*

George: *You will have lunch (ST) Right*

Melanie (Co-Trainee): *It's present simple*

George: *We will ... Oh present simple OK sorry*

Natalie: *... eldest em I am the oldest (ST) Oh I shouldn't have done this right eldest is...*

Tracey (Tutor): *It's about formality*

Natalie: *Formality thank you Tracey it's formality right OK so it's formal thank you for that I knew I shouldn't have put it on*

The benefits of community spirit are also evidenced in the interpretive data:

Lara: *... seeing other teachers teach on this course has been an experience in itself. The teaching has been extremely professional within different styles and personalities...I was really worried about the feedback ... I did not think I could take in any more new information but it was really constructive and delivered in a non-threatening environment. Neither was it embarrassing even though we were all in the same room - maybe it was a sharing of vulnerability which I thought worked really well. Working with my peers was valuable as they were extremely supportive and honest in their feedback.*

Insights from Phase Three of my research have reminded me of the view from McCroskey et al. (1997) that individuals derive their feelings about

themselves from their interactions with others, so that '*we are what others make us to be*'.

In the Teacher Education field, Hedge (2001, 2003) has discussed the value of collaborative work in building self-esteem, where she feels it has a role in encouraging autonomy.

8.9 Conclusion

The state of my iterative research process at the end of Phase Three is given visually as Figure 8.9.1, glossed here.

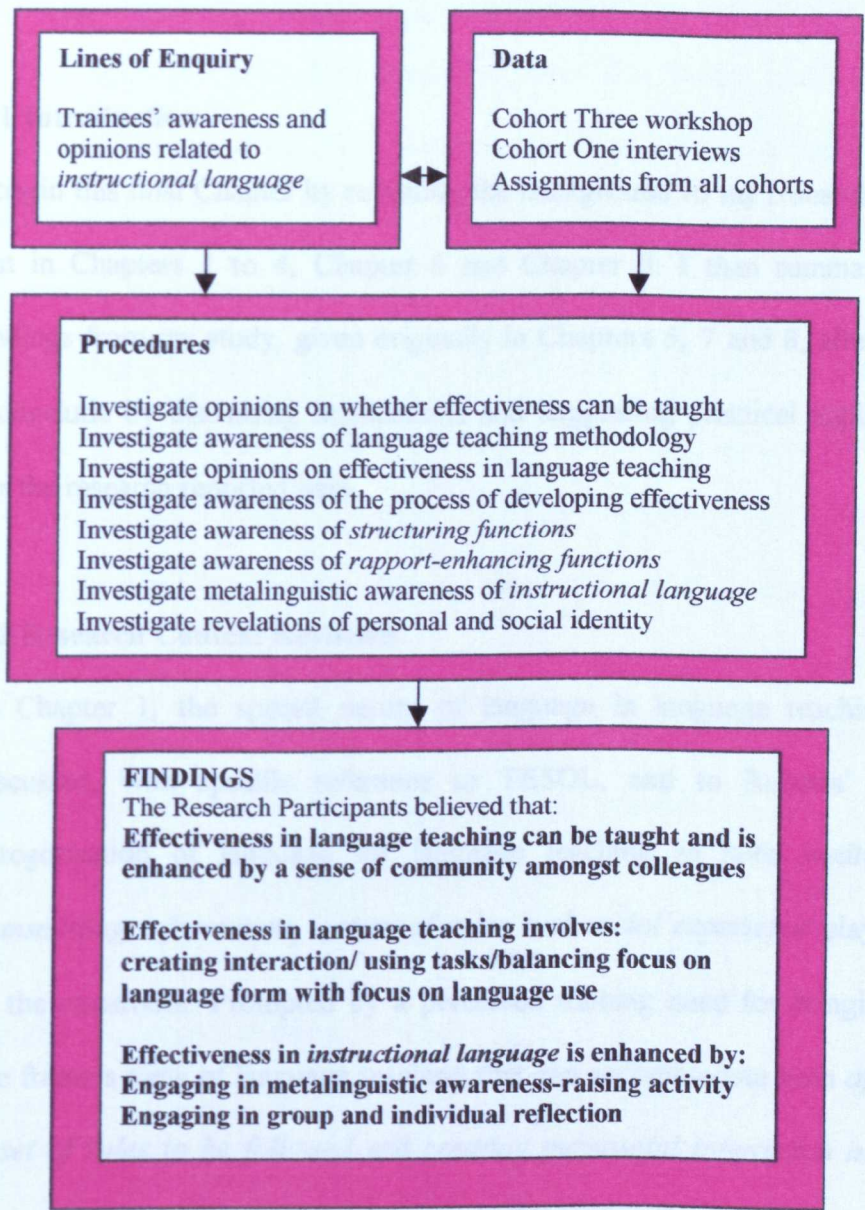
The questions posed in Phase Three of my research were, '*How do teachers define effective language teaching?*' and '*Can it be taught?*' In terms of effective teaching, Trainees felt that this could be acquired, and that they themselves were developing in effectiveness. Effectiveness for them related to class management and management of interaction, with special reference to setting up tasks clearly and keeping students productively on task. The Teacher-student relationship also figured highly in discussions of effectiveness in teaching. In terms of their own progress, Trainees *borrowed* metalanguage that was useful for them in the process of acquiring awareness and competence in teaching. There was evidence that ability to analyse *instructional language* may have been enhanced by the tools demonstrated in the dedicated workshop session. In terms of the role of individual and social identity in acquiring effectiveness, a sense of community had been evidenced verbally in the observational data. Trainees showed in the interpretive data that they appreciated and benefited from the sense of

community gained from carrying out Observation and Teaching Practice in groups, with peers and/or Tutor. Trainees also showed through their reflective practice that they had been able to chart their progress and come to a deeper understanding of themselves, in their identity as teachers.

This Chapter has presented supporting evidence from interpretive data for the usefulness of the findings given in Chapters 5 and 7, which addressed the earlier research question, '*How do teachers use language to manage learning relate to individuals and foster interaction in the language classroom?*' I have additionally reported on the trialling of one practical activity for use in Teacher Education.

It now remains for me, in the final Chapter, to acknowledge the limitations of my research, to suggest future directions and further practical applications, and to draw together the *connections* I have made in this thesis.

Figure 8.9.1 Iterative Research Framework Revisited, End Phase Three



CHAPTER 9: CHECK

Question: “Well, that’s it then?”

9.1 Introduction

I begin this final Chapter by revisiting the background to my research, as set out in Chapters 1 to 4, Chapter 6 and Chapter 8. I then summarise the findings from my study, given originally in Chapters 5, 7 and 8, after which I conclude by discussing implications and suggesting practical applications for the research reported here.

9.2 Research Context Revisited

In Chapter 1, the special nature of language in language teaching was discussed, with specific reference to TESOL, and to Roberts’ (1998) categorisation of language for language teaching as both *medium for transmitting information*, *system of rules*, and *social experience* played out in the classroom. Prompted by a perceived training need for bringing into the frame a view of language teaching that can accommodate both *applying a set of rules to be followed* and *creating purposeful interaction in which learning takes place*, I introduced my intention of probing, through its verbal manifestations, the complex interplay of *head* and *heart* that language teachers bring to their classroom practice. I explained my intention of discovering *rules* that might benefit novice ESOL teachers in developing competence in using *instructional language*. I also conceptualised my intended study with reference to the work of Wittgenstein, using the metaphor of chess. In Chapter 2, I described my general research stance and

approach and my intended research instruments. I then discussed some attendant limitations, notably in generalisability, arising from the small scale, context-bound nature of the case I intended to study. In Chapter 3, I charted aspects from the history of the Philosophy of Language that have a bearing on my research. The importance of local context to my case was discussed, with reference to Britton's (1998) description of British language classrooms as *interactive learning communities*, and to Mercer's (2000) notion of *interthinking* in such settings. I also brought into the frame perspectives from the worlds of Business Management and Neuroscience, including TA and NLP. I announced my intention of investigating aspects of Teachers' *saying and doing* through observational data, and aspects of Teachers' *being and thinking* through interpretive data. Inspired by Wittgenstein's work, I explained my intended procedure of classifying my data in terms of two *paradigms*: Paradigm 1, concerned with:

- identifying forms and seeing patterns of distribution in the language Trainee Teachers use;

Paradigm 2, concerned with:

- analysing lesson transcripts in terms of functions that Trainee Teachers perform through language;
- considering how separate utterances fit into the larger picture of interaction in whole lessons.

In Chapter 4, I introduced the intended participants and data sets for my research, and discussed methods of data collection. In Chapter 6, I situated my research within the context of developments in Western Language Teaching Methodologies and of my own teaching career, acknowledging the

influence of Linguistic Philosophy on both of these. I explored the contribution of task-oriented learning, adopting a broad definition of *task* as embracing both simple and complex, form-focused and communication-focused language work. I noted categorisations for teacher-generated language, by Brown and Armstrong (1978), Willis (1992), Oliver and Mackey (2003) and Walsh (2003a) respectively, as *structuring, teaching and social; inner and outer; content, explicit language, communication and management; managerial, materials, skills and systems, and classroom context*. Finally, in Chapter 8, I referred to the Applied Science, Craft and Reflective Models for Teacher Education. I noted the distinction between *knowledge-centredness* and *person-centredness*, and listed attributes relative to *self-generated*, as compared to *other-generated knowledge*. Adopting the role of Co-Learner and applying aspects of the NLP Meta-Modelling process, I conducted an awareness-raising workshop on *instructional language* with a group of Trainees, from which findings and subsequent written assignments were fed into my research process.

9.3 Research Focus Revisited

The focus and scope of my research was expressed as '*the interrelationship of teacher-generated language, language instruction, management of learning and interaction in teacher-fronted classroom discourse, and its status as knowledge*' (see Fig. 4.14.1). The primary data for Phase One comprised eight audio-recorded and transcribed ESOL lessons. These were analysed via seven operations, designed to reveal aspects of teachers' *management of learning and fostering of interaction* in the language classes

under investigation. In Phase Two of the research process, fourteen further lessons were transcribed and analysed. The seven original operations were repeated, and nine more operations were undertaken. These supplementary operations were relevant not only to Trainees' *management of learning* and *fostering of interaction*, but also to *relating to individuals* through rapport. The secondary data comprised interviews and reflective assignments, interrogated in Phase Three of the research in order to reveal Trainees' notions of what *effectiveness* might be and how it might be acquired, with specific reference to *instructional language*.

9.4 Research Findings Revisited

A brief general summary of the findings from my research is given below. I refer my reader to Chapter 5, Sections 5.3-5.8; Chapter 7, Sections 7.2-7.13, and Chapter 8, Sections 8.2-8.3, and 8.5-8.8, for the relevant detailed analysis. The summary responds to each research question in turn:

- *How do teachers use language to manage learning in the language classroom?*

The Novice Teachers in my data planned their lessons using models from input sessions, lesson observations, Teachers' Resource Books and wider reading. In lessons lasting between twenty to sixty minutes, they evidenced methodological evolution by combining content, activity and role in various ways. The unifying factor in staging lessons was the use of teacher-independent learning activities, with attendant structuring of lessons into teacher-fronted and teacher-independent segments. The Teachers made use of macro and micro *classroom discourse markers*, employed in predictable

sequences and associated with lesson stage, degree of pre-planning, and task complexity. In the setting up of tasks, eight *structuring* functions and typical exponents were identified.

- *How do teachers use language to relate to individuals in the language classroom?*

Novice Teachers in my data personalised lesson content for their learners by nominating them or referring to their involvement in shared experience. The Teachers acknowledged and/or praised learner contributions, and also related to their learners by taking on their voices, by verbally giving face, by self-disclosing commentary, and by the use of inclusive *we*. Eight *rapport-enhancing* functions and their typical exponents were identified.

- *How do teachers use language to foster interaction in the language classroom?*

The Novice Teachers in my data staged their lessons in up to six different *global interaction patterns*, associated with teacher role, task/lesson content and focus, and amount and nature of student involvement. With reference to my language Paradigms, eleven *detailed interaction patterns* were identified in the data. Classes where large numbers of these patterns were in evidence gave learners exposure to, and/or opportunity to use, language in genuine communication, to manipulate language forms, and to use metalanguage appropriate for describing language systems and/or skills. Interaction was also fostered via adjustments in speech rate, pausing, repetition, elicitation and checking. Such elements were revealed as capable of having multifunctional use, i.e. they were used in the data both for relational purposes, for teaching and for managing learning.

- *How do teachers define effective language teaching?*

For the Novice Teachers in my data, effective teaching entailed a variety of interaction patterns, a balance of teacher-fronted and teacher-independent activity, and a friendly, respectful relationship between teacher and learners.

- *Can effective language teaching be taught?*

According to the Novice Teachers in my data, effective Language Teachers can be trained, preferably from a base of good subject knowledge, good communication skills and a desire to teach. In their own progress towards effectiveness, metalinguistic awareness, gained either via explicit input or via borrowing from more experienced others, was shown to be helpful to the research subjects. A sense of community amongst peers and Tutors was another contributing factor. The amount, nature and usefulness of teacher-generated language, with special reference to the setting up of tasks, was an issue for these Teachers, as was the formulation of pedagogic goals.

9.5 Discussion

The questions posed in Section 9.4 are situated within the wider frame of a more general question, namely, ‘*How do teachers use language in the language classroom?*’ I have noted several perspectives on this issue at various points in this thesis (see Section 9.2, above). They contain from two to four categories, which I have mapped against one another in Figure 9.5.1.

Figure 9.5.1 Views of Language in Use

Brown and Armstrong	Structuring	Teaching	Teaching	Social
Willis	Outer	Inner	Inner	Outer
Oliver and Mackey	Management	Content	Explicit language	Communication
Walsh	Managerial	Skills and Systems	Materials	Classroom Context

My own, tri-partite, categorisation of teacher-generated language in teacher-fronted segments of language classes is given in Figure 9.5.2.

Figure 9.5.2 Instructional Language

INSTRUCTIONAL LANGUAGE
CATEGORY ONE: TEACHING (explicit <i>Instructive</i> function) Helping students to construct, extend or activate knowledge and understanding
CATEGORY TWO: STRUCTURING (<i>Instructing</i> function) Structuring and managing procedures conducive to learning
CATEGORY THREE: RAPPORT-ENHANCING (implicit <i>Instructive</i> function) Creating and maintaining positive affect through rapport

The first category, that of *teaching*, has not been focused on in my study, since my main concern has been with pre-task language, which prioritises the last two categories: I take the view though that *structuring* and *rapport-enhancing* represent fundamental, underpinning competences, without which it is difficult to achieve effectiveness in *teaching*. The prioritising of these three categories by individual language teachers will be influenced by professional and socio-cultural constraints, together with personal factors.

Given the predominance of teacher-independent learning activities in my data, and in current coursebooks such as those used by my subjects, and given the difficulties evidenced in my data with formulating teaching aims, I suggest that novice ESOL teachers be encouraged to conceptualise their language use in terms of *pre-task*, *in-task* and *post-task staging*, rather than in terms of *pedagogic goals*. Developing concepts such as the TS global interaction pattern being associated with the role of Controller and with pre-

task; the ST interaction pattern being associated with the role of Co-Participant and with in-task student reports; the STTS pattern being associated with the role of Facilitator and Evaluator in post-task feedback, and so on, would seem achievable for novice teachers.

In terms of limitations, I acknowledge the weaknesses in this research resulting from researcher bias. The staging and interaction patterns identified from the audio-recorded lessons, for example, are capable of being classified in other ways by other Researchers. There is also a danger that, by looking primarily for those features that were of interest to me from the observational data, I may have overlooked other equally important aspects in the interpretive data. Moreover, there are limitations to the research reported here arising from its breadth of scope and from the small and context-bound nature of the data. In terms of breadth, I have only been able to treat each of my operations in limited fashion: they could have been researched in much greater depth and with larger data sets. In terms of size and context, my findings are very much the product of British-based ESOL teaching, delivered through English, by English native speakers. The type of methodology, the nature and variety of interaction, and the quality of the teacher-student relationship are all variables that affect the usefulness of my findings for Teacher Educators (McKay, 2002). However, in the spirit of the reframing exercise that I have been engaged in throughout this thesis, some of my limitations can be reframed as strengths, since many of the operations I have performed on my data are capable of being replicated by other Researchers and by other Teachers, in their own contexts. The use of

rapport-enhancing functions, for example, can be researched in bi-lingual contexts, just as well as monolingual ones. Some lines of enquiry arising from my research that I believe may prove fruitful are:

- To investigate the effect of task-type and complexity on pre-task language output from teachers. (This is a recommendation made by Samuda, 2001 and towards which I took some early steps in implementation by creating the grid given as Fig. 7.2.2);
- In the context of English taught through English, to use concordancing software to compare the specific functions and uses of the macro and micro discourse markers identified here with those obtaining in other contexts and through the medium of other Englishes. (Biber et al., 2004 have recently undertaken a related study that has revealed a richness and variety of multiword sequences in class teaching, when compared to both conversation and academic writing. Their work is also relevant to the next point.);
- In the context of English taught through English, to investigate further the multifunctional use of rapport-enhancing functions that are capable of simultaneous use as classroom management devices;
- In bilingual contexts, to investigate how the balance of *head* and *heart* moves is achieved linguistically, e.g. which language is used for teaching, which for structuring, and which for enhancing rapport.

The research reported in this thesis is relevant to the Cambridge ESOL Assessment Criteria listed in Chapter 4 (Fig. 4.10.1), and the workshop conducted in Phase Three of my research was designed to address Criterion

5f from that list. I offer, in Appendix Q, some further tasks for Teachers and Teacher Educators to use for exploiting the information given in this thesis to address other criteria from that list.

I would characterise the main contribution of my research as follows:

- Foregrounding the importance of taking whole lesson contexts into account when researching effectiveness in language teaching via the occurrence of discrete phenomena: perceived ‘weakness’ in one area may be compensated for by ‘strength’ in another;
- Evidencing the richness and variety of teacher-generated language that can serve as implicit *instructive* input to learners, in the context of language classes taught through the target language by proficient users of that language;
- Revealing the importance of the rapport-enhancing nature of multi-functional language exponents previously thought of as merely managerial or pedagogic;
- Identifying functional language and providing relevant metalinguistic information that can be useful to novice language teachers, in developing their competence in the language of *instructing*;
- Providing a metaphor within which novice teachers can frame knowledge about *head* and *heart* moves for use in the *instructional language game* appropriate to their context.

9.6 Towards a Knowledge Base for Language Teachers

As a final summary of the main ideas presented in this work, contextualised within my chess metaphor, I present as Fig. 9.6.1 my suggestions for a knowledge base appropriate to Language Teachers, explained thus:

Language Teachers embody both internalised and visible *personal knowledge* of various kinds which underpins their practice, and which I have characterised as *being, thinking, doing* and *saying*. I have included *playfulness* in these personal qualities, which are the result of knowledge gained from *others* as well as from *self*. The results of teachers' being and thinking are directly observable only through teachers' saying and doing, in the context of language classes. Language has a public but also a personal meaning for its user and receiver. This affective, *identity*-related dimension of teachers' language use is trans-paradigmatic.

Level 1: At the level of *knowledge of philosophy*, as well as the issue of the *interrelationship of thought and language*, two paradigms are shown: Paradigm 1 concerns Wittgenstein's atomic facts, working from parts to whole, and focusing on systems, forms and patterns of distribution; Paradigm 2 concerns Wittgenstein's exhortation to observe rather than theorise, to consider the role of context, and to understand forms in terms of their functions.

Level 2: At the level of *knowledge of language*, language has *form* and *function*. It is described, according to the two paradigms, in terms of its formal structure and also of communication and intention.

Level 3: At the level of *knowledge of language in teaching*, I refer to Roberts' three elements: a system of *rules*, a *medium for instruction*, and a *social experience* played out in the classroom. The first of these exists as an external factor, independent of teacher variables. The last two are inextricably bound up in the teaching process, and so I have characterised them as dependent on teacher variables, one of which is language proficiency. My own characterisation of teacher-generated language is: *helping students to construct, extend or activate knowledge and understanding, structuring and managing procedures conducive to learning, and creating or maintaining positive affect through rapport*.

Level 4: At the level of *knowledge of teaching a language class*, I started the quest reported here as a result of comparing my own frame of reference for a language lesson with that of a Trainee, and pondering the role of autonomy in Initial Teacher Education. This knowledge needs to accommodate both *applying a set of rules to be followed*, and *creating a purposeful interaction in which learning takes place*. Richards' core knowledge base domains, namely, *theoretical and subject matter knowledge* and *teaching and communication skills* are the focus of this thesis. To the first domain I relate *lesson content* and *classroom activities*, because:

- The content of language classes has to deal with both form and function; language learners also need to have theoretical knowledge about language form and function, but in addition they need to know how to put this knowledge into practical use. The lesson content may be language as system (relevant to my Paradigm 1) or language as communication (relevant to my Paradigm 2), and may be teacher or learner-centred;
- In language classes, theoretical and practical classroom activities, or tasks, are undertaken in order that content may be learned. Lesson organisation is often characterised as having three elements, and the activities themselves as having pre-task, in-task and post-task phases. Tasks vary in several ways along a continuum from simple to complex.

To the second domain I relate teacher *role* and *patterns of interaction*, because:

- The teacher shepherds learners through the various tasks and takes up various roles, e.g. that of knower or pedagogue;
- For carrying out these roles, the teacher uses suitable accompanying patterns of interaction.

Of the two knowledge domains, the surface and observable outputs are: the classroom activities, i.e. tasks; and the patterns of interaction, from which I have extrapolated teacher-fronted segments. These segments may contain teacher-generated target language that is *instructive*. In those teacher-fronted segments where the setting up of tasks takes place, this teacher-generated language is largely devoted to the *structuring* functions relevant to

instructing, but may also contain social elements in the form of *rapport-enhancing* functions. Within their own context, individual teachers balance *head* (structuring) and *heart* (rapport-enhancing) in ways that are unique to them.

9.7 Coda

Wittgenstein's two best known works, the TL and the PI, apparently so different, are nevertheless the product of the same mind: ways in which the one work evolved from the other, over the course of several years, are currently being discussed as more of Wittgenstein's writing comes to light. As Stroll (2002:3) reminds us, Wittgenstein was actively philosophising up until two days before his death, entering what is now thought of as a new phase. Wittgenstein acknowledged the organic nature of the evolutionary change in his own philosophy, using the analogy of a seed growing in soil.

In NLP too, change has been referred to as a seed planted in Spring:

The seed grows into the summer where it matures, becomes strong and takes root. During the process of its growth, the seed must at times compete for survival with other plants or weeds that may already be growing in the garden. To successfully accomplish this the new seed may require the assistance of the gardener in order to help fertilize it or provide protection from the weeds.

(Dilts, 1999, p.178)

And in the TESOL field, Nunan (2001) uses the organic metaphor of a garden:

From such a perspective, learners do not learn one thing perfectly one item at a time, but learn numerous things simultaneously (and imperfectly) ... flowers do not all appear at the same time, nor do they all grow at the same rate. Some even appear to wilt for a time before renewing their growth.

(Nunan, 2001, pp.91-92)

The chess moves and chess pieces offered in this thesis for use in the *instructional language game* will evolve in the hands of the teachers who

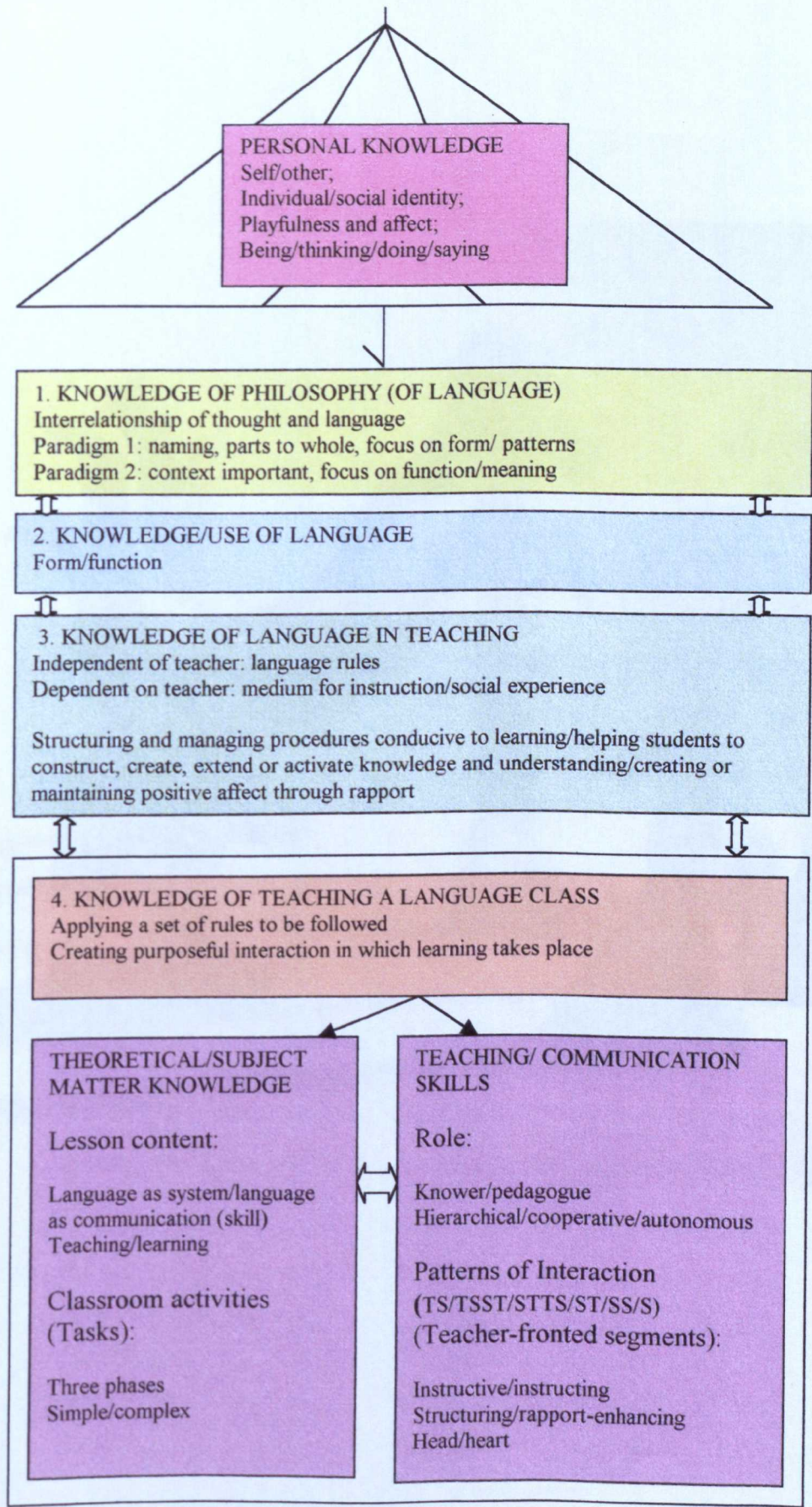
take them up, in the particular context of their local environment and of their personal life histories. I have shown in this study how my own environment and history have shaped my growth, influenced first by Carroll and then by Wittgenstein. It is fitting that this thesis should end with a contemporary visual image of Carroll's work, in the form of Rothwell's sculpture, *Wonderland*, with its plantlike creatures that have their own histories as a result of being formed from recycled material. However, the last *word* belongs to Wittgenstein, in the resolution of his struggle with the notion of *Bedeutung*, or *meaning*. In the TL, he wrote that meaning resides in the proposition (*Satz*), whose sense is an expression (*Ausdruck*) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.2). In the PI, he wrote that meaning is use in the language (*Gebrauch in der Sprache*) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3). I have come in this thesis to a personal realisation of the significance of context to how my work will be received and developed. Wittgenstein also understood the importance of context, as evidenced in a remark made to Malcolm, and cited by him as significant (Malcolm, 2001):

Ein Ausdruck hat nur im Strome des Lebens Bedeutung.

An expression has meaning only in the stream of life.

(Malcolm, 2001, p.75)

Figure 9. 6.1 Suggested Knowledge Base for Language Teachers



Appendix A

DfES/FENTO TESOL Subject Specifications

These specifications state the knowledge and understanding to be included in qualifications aimed at those supporting the teaching of English for speakers of other languages (ESOL). They also specify the personal language skills required for this type of work. The Level 3 specification identifies skill levels to be included in generic post-16 teacher training qualifications for staff, and in the relevant curriculum units for continuing professional development (CPD). The Level 4 specification is designed to be built in to the new FENTO endorsed post-16 teaching qualifications for specialist teachers and to be used as a key element in specialist CPD. The subject specifications are presented in five sections (1-5 below). The following extracts represent, from each of the five section headings, only those specifications that are relevant to my thesis.

<p>1) Theoretical frameworks Level 3: Basic relationships between form and meaning; Understanding context or communicative situation; Understanding the use of discourse markers. Level 4: Language functions and language forms that typically express them; Links between language and thought.</p>
<p>2) Factors influencing the use of English Level 3 n/a Level 4: How language is used to develop and maintain personal, social, group identity.</p>
<p>3) Language and literacy learning and development Levels 3 and 4: Task-based learning and activity based learning; Communicative and functional approaches; Task-based activities</p>
<p>4) English Language skills Level 3: Discourse features or signposts; Turn taking; Concept of communicative competence; Understanding importance of context in choice of function or form. Level 4: Understanding factors that influence choice of function and form - topic, situation, context, setting and relationship between speakers.</p>
<p>5) English Language use Level 3: Ability to recognise other's feelings and opinions and respond sensitively; Use linguistic cues to signal the end of an utterance; Recognise such cues from others; Allow and encourage others to take turns and make contributions; Level of language appropriate to listener, purpose and communication situation; Choice of style and register appropriate to situation; Structured delivery to help listeners understand main points; Speed of delivery adjusted to level of listeners; Use of appropriate rhetorical techniques to emphasise points, impact of delivery, such as metaphors, personification, rhetorical questions and repetition; Use of checking questions and ways of rephrasing to aid understanding. Level 4: Recognise speaker's intention; Awareness of interlocutor's reactions and adjust speech accordingly; Use appropriate questioning techniques and responses; General understanding of how to facilitate conversation, ensure effective participation; Adjust to role at different stages and to number of listeners; Evaluate information needs of different audiences; Use techniques to enhance effectiveness of message and further understanding such as metaphors and repetition; Use grammatical and phonological features to mark significant points; Structure utterances and/or presentation with appropriate discourse markers; Adjust own use of English appropriate to level of understanding of interlocutor; Use a range of strategies to make meaning clear, when communicating and when presenting new information; Provide appropriate models and examples of language use to assist the language development of the learners; Assist others to communicate and express themselves through use of feedback and reformulation; Use a range of strategies including checking questions to confirm understanding.</p>

Appendix B

Syllabus and Assessment Guidelines for the Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA)

The syllabus outlines both the subject knowledge and the pedagogic knowledge and skills required for beginner ESOL teachers. It consists of five units of learning that deal with specific topic areas.

- Unit 1 Learners and teachers, and the teaching and learning context
- Unit 2 Language analysis and awareness
- Unit 3 Language skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing
- Unit 4 Planning and resources
- Unit 5 Developing teaching skills and professionalism.

There are two components of assessment.

Assessment Component One: Teaching Practice

By the end of the 6 hours' assessed teaching practice, successful candidates at pass level should show convincingly and consistently that they can:

Prepare and plan for the effective teaching of adult ESOL learners by:

- 4a identifying and stating appropriate aims/outcomes for individual lessons
- 4b ordering activities so that they achieve lesson aims
- 4c selecting/adapting/designing appropriate materials/activities/resources/technical aids
- 4d presenting materials with professional appearance/attendance to copyright requirements
- 4e describing the procedure of the lesson in sufficient detail
- 4f including interaction patterns appropriate for lesson materials and activities
- 4g ensuring balance, variety and a communicative focus in materials, tasks and activities
- 4h allocating appropriate timing for different stages in the lessons
- 4i analysing language form, meaning and phonology and using correct terminology
- 4j anticipating potential difficulties with language, material and learners
- 4k suggesting solutions to anticipated problems
- 4l using terminology that relates to language skills and sub-skills correctly
- 4m working constructively with colleagues in the planning of teaching practice sessions
- 4n reflecting on/evaluating plans in light of the learning process, suggesting improvements.

Demonstrate professional competence in the classroom by:

- 1a teaching a class with an awareness of the needs and interests of the learner group
- 1b teaching a class with awareness of learning styles/cultural factors affecting learning
- 1c acknowledging, when necessary, learners' backgrounds/previous learning experiences
- 1d establishing good rapport/ensuring learners are fully involved in learning activities
- 2a adjusting own use of language in the classroom according to learner group and context
- 2b identifying errors and sensitively correcting learners' oral and written language
- 2c providing clear contexts and a communicative focus for language
- 2d providing accurate/appropriate models of oral and written language in the classroom
- 2e focusing on language items by clarifying meaning and form in appropriate depth
- 2f showing awareness of differences in register
- 2g providing appropriate practice of language items
- 3a helping learners to understand reading and listening texts
- 3b helping learners to develop oral fluency
- 3c helping learners to produce written text
- 5a arranging physical features of classroom appropriately, to safety regulations
- 5b setting up whole class and/or group or individual activities appropriate to lesson type
- 5c selecting appropriate teaching techniques in relation to the content of the lesson
- 5d managing the learning process in such a way that lesson aims are achieved

- 5e making use of materials, resources and technical aids to enhance learning
- 5f using appropriate means to make instructions for tasks and activities clear to learners
- 5g using questions effectively for purposes of elicitation and checking understanding
- 5h providing learners with appropriate feedback on tasks and activities
- 5i maintaining an appropriate learning pace in relation to materials, task and activities
- 5j monitoring learners appropriately to the task or activity
- 5k beginning/finishing lessons on time, making any relevant institutional regulations clear
- 5l maintaining accurate and up to date records in their portfolio
- 5m noting own teaching strengths/weaknesses via feedback from learners/teachers/trainers
- 5n participating in and responding to feedback.

Assessment Component Two: Classroom-related written assignments

Lessons from the Classroom Assignment

Length 750-1000 words

Candidates' identification of their own teaching strengths and development needs

Reflections on their own teaching

Reflections on the implications for their own teaching from the observations of experienced ELT professionals and colleagues on the course

Candidates can demonstrate their learning by:

- a. noting their own teaching strengths and weaknesses in different situations in light of feedback from learners, teachers and teacher educators
- b. identifying which ELT areas of knowledge and skills they need further development in
- c. describing in a specific way how they might develop their ELT knowledge and skills beyond the course
- d. using written language that is clear accurate and appropriate to the task.

(There are three further written assignments: a learner profile, a language-based and a skills-based assignment. These were not used in the research reported here.)

Appendix C

Exchange Structure System: Alphabetical Taxonomy of Acts

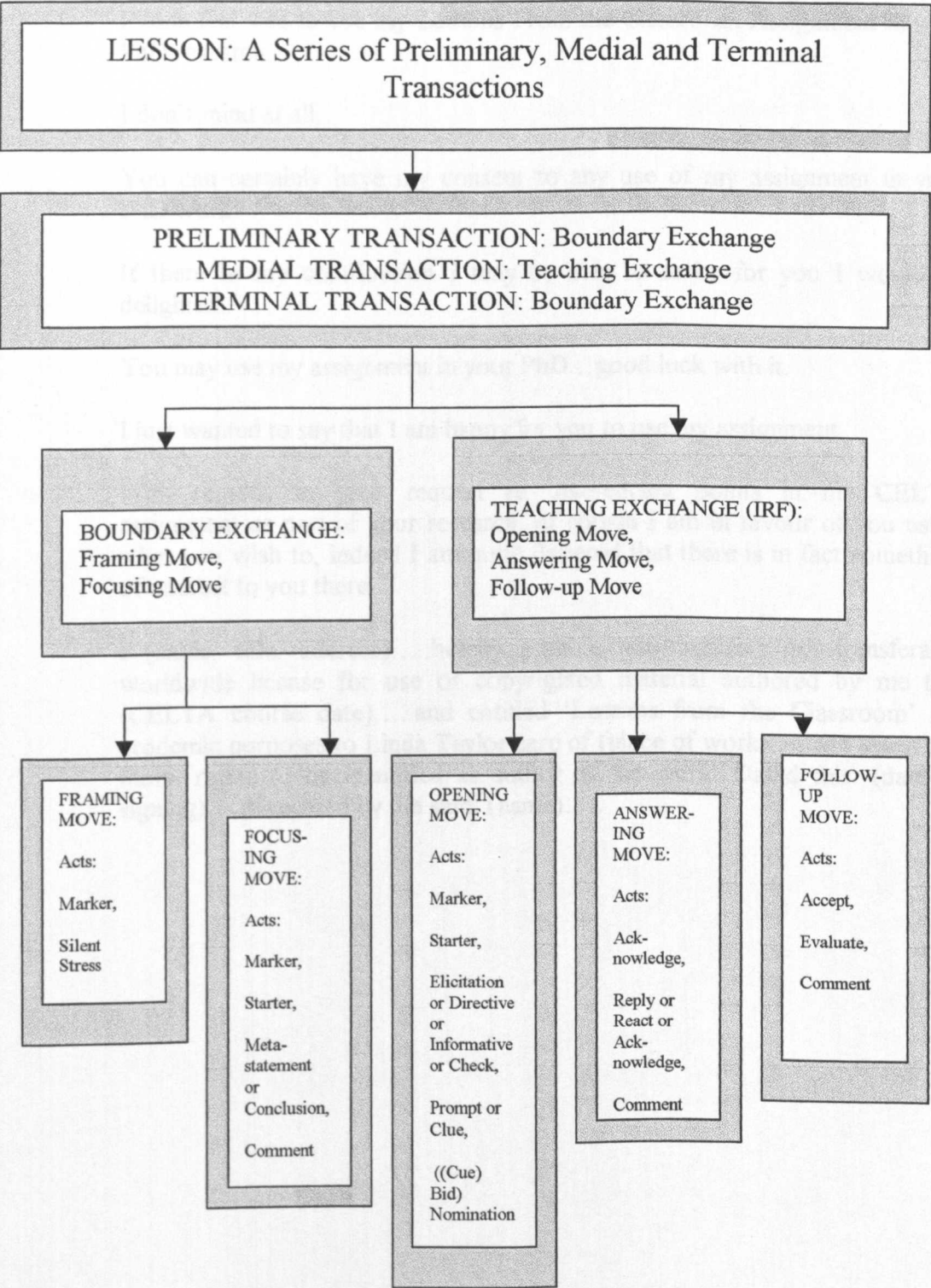
(From Coulthard, 1992, pp.5-21, my tabulation)

ACT	FUNCTION
Accept	Indicates that teacher has heard or seen, e.g. 'Yes', 'Fine'
Acknowledge	Shows understanding
Aside	Teacher talking to self, e.g. 'Where did I put my pen?'
Bid	Signals a desire to contribute, e.g. 'Miss', 'Sir'
Check	Ascertains whether there are any problems via polar question, e.g. 'Ready?'
Clue	Provides additional information that is helpful in achieving response
Comment	Exemplifies, expands, justifies, via statement or tag question
Conclusion	Structures the lesson by summarising and reference to past time, often using 'So'
Cue	Evokes a bid, e.g. 'Hands up', 'Don't shout out'
Directive	Requests non-linguistic response via a command
Elicitation	Requests a linguistic response via a question
Evaluate	Comments on the quality of the reply via statement, tag question or single word, e.g. 'Interesting', 'Good'
Informative	Provides information via a statement
Loop	Returns the discourse to the stage it was previously, e.g. via 'Pardon', 'Do you mean ...'
Marker	Marks boundaries in the discourse, e.g. 'Well', 'OK', 'Now'
Metastatement	Structures the lesson via reference to future time, e.g. 'In a moment...'
Nomination	Calls on or gives permission to contribute
Prompt	Reinforces a directive or elicitation, e.g. 'Go on', 'Hurry up'
React	Non linguistic response
Reply	Provides linguistic response to elicitation
Silent stress	Highlights a boundary via pause following a marker
Starter	Gives information or directs attention via statement, question or command designed to encourage correct response

Exchange Structure System: Rank Order

(Lesson, Transaction, Exchange, Move, Act)

(From Coulthard, 1992, pp.5-21, my visual summary)



Appendix D

Sample Consenting Extracts (copied from participants' e-mails/ letter)

Go ahead and use what you need.

Yes it's fine for you to use my assignment.

Please feel free to use my Lessons From the Classroom Assignment in your PhD research.

I don't mind at all.

You can certainly have my consent to any use of my assignment in your PhD work.

If there is any contribution I may be able to make for you I would be delighted.

You may use my assignment in your PhD...good luck with it.

I just wanted to say that I am happy for you to use my assignment.

With regards to your request re. referencing points in my CELTA assignment as part of your research, of course I am in favour of you using what you wish to, indeed I am quite flattered that there is in fact something of interest to you there.

I (name, title, address).....hereby grant a non-exclusive non-transferable worldwide license for use of copyrighted material authored by me this (CELTA course date).....and entitled 'Lessons from the Classroom' for academic purposes to Linda Taylor care of (place of work).....and assert my moral rights to be identified as author of the work. Dated this: (date of signing).....Executed by the said: (name).....

Appendix E

Four-week Intensive CELTA Course Timetable

WEEK ONE (* We start 9.30 on first day, all other days 9.00. ** Till 12.30 Fridays)

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9.00*	Introduction to the course/ Review precourse tasks	Observation and teaching	Observation and teaching	Observation and teaching	Observation and teaching
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Communicative Language Teaching	Feedback and preparation	Feedback and preparation	Feedback and preparation	EAP Observation and teaching
12**	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
1.30	Join social activity with Foreign Students	Administration, house-keeping and computing matters	Skills and systems/ Classroom language/ Preparation for Friday	Phonemic Chart	Feedback and Review of Week's lessons/ Preparation
3.00	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
3.30	Prepare tomorrow's lesson	Foreign language lesson	Lesson Planning/ Planning with a Coursebook	Speaking Skills	Review of Lesson Planning/ Listening Skills

WEEK 2 – NB Change levels next Monday – observe new level end of this week

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9.00	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Prep/ Feedback	Prep/ Feedback	Prep/Feedback	Prep/Feedback	EAP TP
12.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
1.30	Teaching One to One	Systems and Skills	Cultural Awareness	Levels of Language Learners	Feedback on week's lessons and preparation for next week
3.00	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	
	Dealing with Errors	Grammar Concept Checking	Reading Skills	Graded Readers	Vocabulary/ Vocabulary Concept Checking

WEEK 3

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9.00	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Prep/ Feedback	Prep/Feedback	Prep/Feedback	Prep/Feedback	EAP TP
12.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
1.30	Catch up	Phonology Theory	Writing Skills	Syllabuses	Feedback on Week's lessons/ Preparation
3.00	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
	Language Awareness	Phonology Practice	Language Awareness	Planning a series of lessons	Games/ Drama

WEEK 4

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9.00	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs	TP/Obs
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Prep/ Feedback	Prep/ Feedback	Prep/ Feedback	Prep/ Feedback	Prep/ Feedback
12.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
1.30	Testing	Alternative Methods	Business/EAP	Projects	Final Tutorials
3.00	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
	Young Learners	And Approaches	Careers	ESOL	And Roundup/ Return of books, etc.

TEACHING PRACTICE GRID (Each trainee is allocated a letter, A,B,C on Day One)

WEEK 1: First Level

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
No teaching	A,B,C: 30 mins	A: 30 mins	B: 30 mins	C: 30 mins

WEEK 2: Same Level as Week 1

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
A: 45 mins	B: 45 mins	C: 45 mins	A : 45 mins	B,C,A : 45 mins

WEEK 3 : Change Level

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
C: 30 mins	A: 30 mins	B: 30 mins	C: 30 mins	A,B,C: 45 mins

WEEK 4: Same Level as Week 3

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
B: 45 mins	C: 60 mins	A: 60 mins	B: 45 mins	C,A,B: 45 mins

Appendix F

Participant Information, Cohort One

NAME AND DETAILS	CELTA GRADE	QUALIFICATIONS	TEACHING EXPERIENCE
Elaine UK, Russian mother, Female	PASS	Final Year French English GCSE	Teaching Assistant in French Technical College
Jane UK native Female	PASS B	Final Year French English GCSE	Teaching Assistant in French Secondary School
Kath UK native Female	PASS	Final Year French English GCSE	Some informal one to one teaching
Lavinia UK native Female	PASS	Final Year French/Spanish English GCSE	Teaching with social activities at summer camp in Spain
Leanne UK native Female	PASS B	Final Year French/Spanish English A Level	Teaching Assistant in French Secondary School

Participant Information, Cohort Two

NAME	CELTA GRADE	QUALIFICATIONS	TEACHING EXPERIENCE
Amelia UK, Portuguese mother, Female	PASS	BA Hispanic Studies PGCE Modern Languages in FE	Career Adult Spanish Teacher Some TEFL experience in Ecuador
Bernice UK native Female	PASS B	BSc Management Sciences PG Dip Personnel Management Linguarama TEFL	Trainer, HE Lecturer, Some TEFL experience in UK
Bill UK native Male	PASS	BA Modern Languages, French and German, graduated in current year	1 yr English Language Assistant in Germany
George UK native Male	PASS	BA, graduated in current year A Level Spanish	None
Loretta UK native Female	PASS	BA English and Theatre Studies, graduated in current year GCSE French and German	1 wk Learning Assistant in a Special School
Natalie UK native Female	PASS B	BA Creative Arts, PGCE Art and Design	Career Secondary School Art Teacher
Rosalind UK native Female	PASS B	BSc Psychology PGCE Primary MA in Education	Career Primary Teacher, Literacy Co- ordinator

Brief Participant Information, Cohort Three

Audrey	UK native female, University Administrator
Callum	UK native male, recent Law Graduate
Chris	UK native female, recent Modern Languages Graduate
Holly	UK native female, recent English Graduate
Judith	UK native female, seeking part time work in retirement
Kirsty	UK native female, Administrator seeking career change
Lara	UK native female, Part time Teacher Trainer in Education Faculty
Marie	Vietnamese female educated in India, Physiotherapist wishing to work abroad
Pat	UK native female, Teacher in Primary School
Ralph	UK native male, recent English Graduate
Susan	UK native female, Administrator seeking career change
Vivian	UK native female, recent Arts Graduate

Appendix G

Interview Schedule for Individual Interviews

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. Please find attached a list of questions. I would like you please to think about these prior to our interview. Please make any notes that occur to you when doing so. Please don't mention your responses to anyone else until after I have interviewed all of the volunteers. This silent period is necessary so that I don't contaminate my data! When I interview you, I shall start by asking you for your response, and for any comments you may have on points of interest that trigger your memories of your own learning or teaching experiences. When everyone has done their interview, we can share our findings together over a drink or a meal perhaps?

OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS

Teacher Knowledge

What does a good teacher, of whatever subject, have to know about and know how to do?

What does a good language teacher have to know about and know how to do, in addition to the points mentioned above?

If you were lucky enough to be taught by a good language teacher, how would you know? What specifically would happen in class and what would be your part in it?

Classroom Language

As a teacher of English, which aspects of your own use of English in the classroom are you aware of?

Which of these aspects do you think carefully about when you plan your lessons?

How do you encourage students to speak?

How do you motivate them to say more?

Can you remember a time when you were influenced by what someone said to you either negatively or positively?

Are you aware of having influenced someone else by what you said to them?

Teacher Education

Would you describe your TESOL course as 'training' or 'education'? Why? What has been most valuable to you about what you have learned?

Is it possible to train/educate people to be good language teachers?

Appendix H

Sample Interview Transcript (Jane)

(Key: Trainee words in standard font, Interviewer's in italics)

Can I prompt you about teacher knowledge then

I think that all the good teachers I remember having are teachers who not only have a good knowledge of their subject but also have good general knowledge as well and are interesting people and people who really want to teach I think they need to be especially good motivators to get people into the subject and to be able to have a good rapport and I think they need to be quite approachable people and just to love what they do

And is there anything special about language teachers' knowledge

I think they need to be aware of what it is like to learn a language themselves and be aware of their own pronunciation and grammar and try to avoid especially at low levels colloquial expressions and I think they've really got to be aware of their own language and know how you learn a language and what you need as a learner of languages so they can help you with what you need to reinforce

How would you know that you were in a good language teacher's class

Firstly I think I'd know that they love what they are doing I had a good German teacher you stopped concentrating on learning and you learned and it just sort of flowed and I think sometimes it just clicks and you're not completely conscious you're not writing things down or making an effort to remember things they're just sort of flowing and they're going in and staying there everybody would be working together and it would just flow ... probably be very free if I felt confident in the language I would be trying to talk as much as possible and use as much as what I was being taught as possible not actually being aware but just doing it

Are you aware of your own use of English in the classroom

My voice changes and I definitely try to enunciate and slow down sometimes I think I'm so conscious of the language and I make it worse by trying to simplify it ... I'm also aware of my presence in the classroom I don't want to come across as very formal but at the same time I want to maintain a distance ... I might not actually put it into my plan but I know in my head that I'm telling myself when I put monitor students on my plan I'm thinking about how I'm going to phrase things

How do you encourage students to speak

I just try and reassure them ... my profile student told me I was always said nice things like superb fantastic but I really try to encourage them and show that I'm understanding them even if they're not totally accurate... sometimes I find that by not saying anything sometimes and not filling in the gap you can encourage them to say more and that's where I really have to watch myself teacher talking time because you can stop them saying things

Can you remember ever being influenced by what someone has said to you

Probably most recently it's been in the teacher feedback it's really made a big difference I've really taken things on board not just from the tutors but especially from peer feedback because I suppose when people have said to me you're speaking too fast I've really then tried to talk slower and when people have said things really worked well I've used them again ... it makes you a more confident person in real life anyway when you see yourself through somebody else's eyes and it's not often in life that you're aware of what other people think of you and it's been really useful from the students as well it makes you more aware of yourself of how you come across

Have you influenced anybody else by what you've said

I've probably made my boyfriend a bit more confident and also in teaching myself I've tried to change the way my partner speaks to people ... people have come back and thanked me sometimes if they've been feeling insecure about something they've done

Is our course training or education do you think

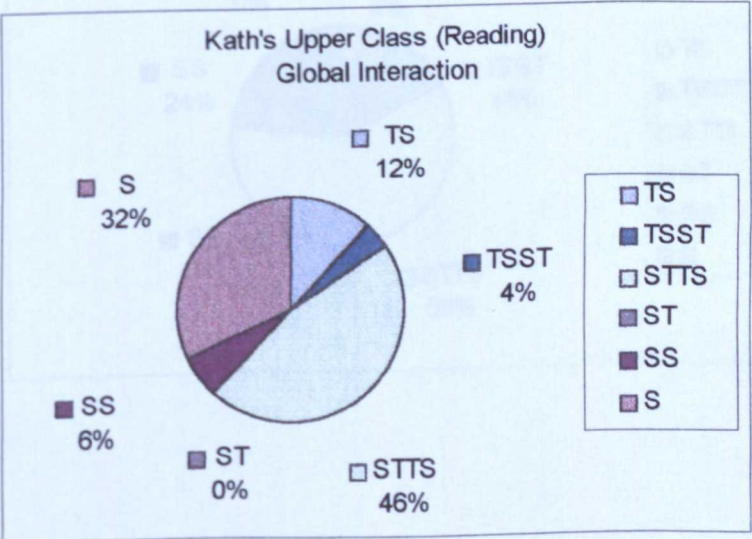
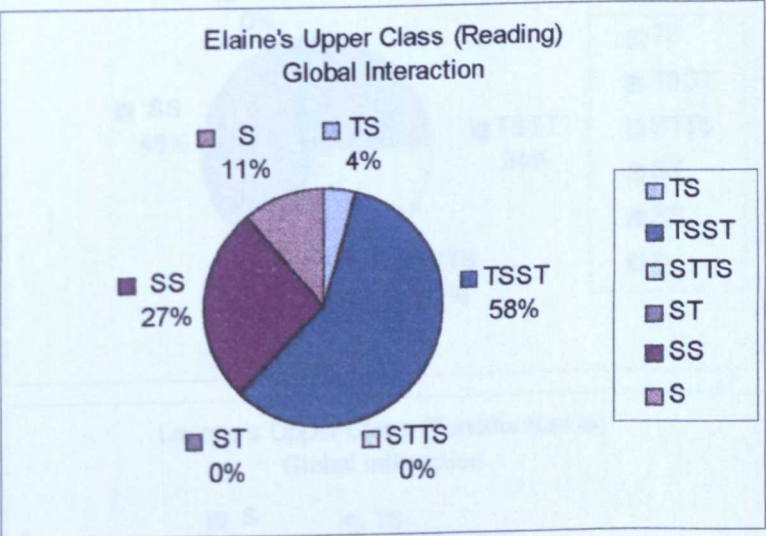
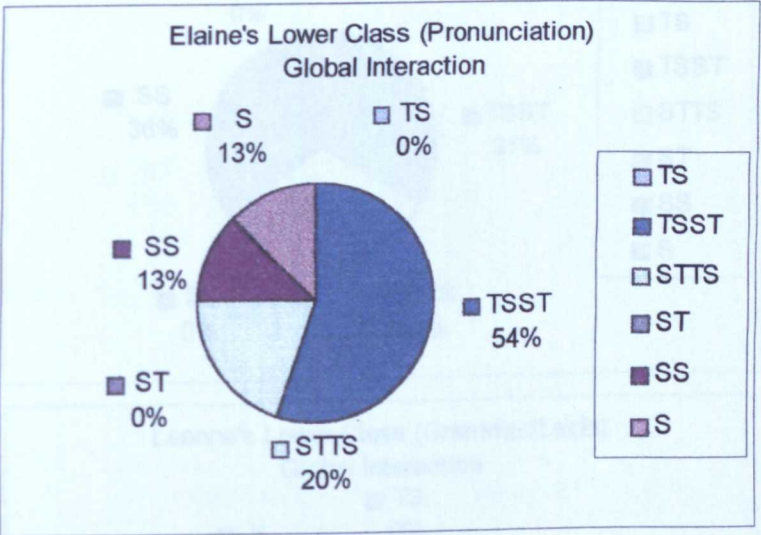
I'd describe it more as education I feel I've been reeducated in some ways ... I've learned about the English language things that I didn't know ... it's changed what I feel about things and things I've never thought about before it's reeducating your perceptions

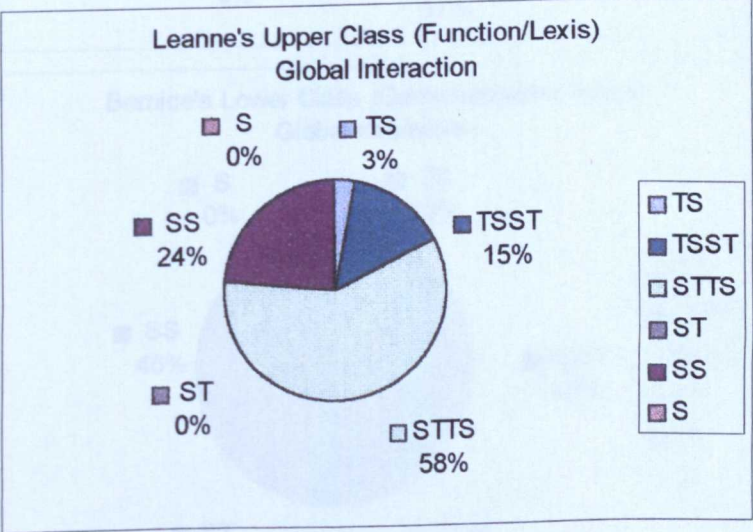
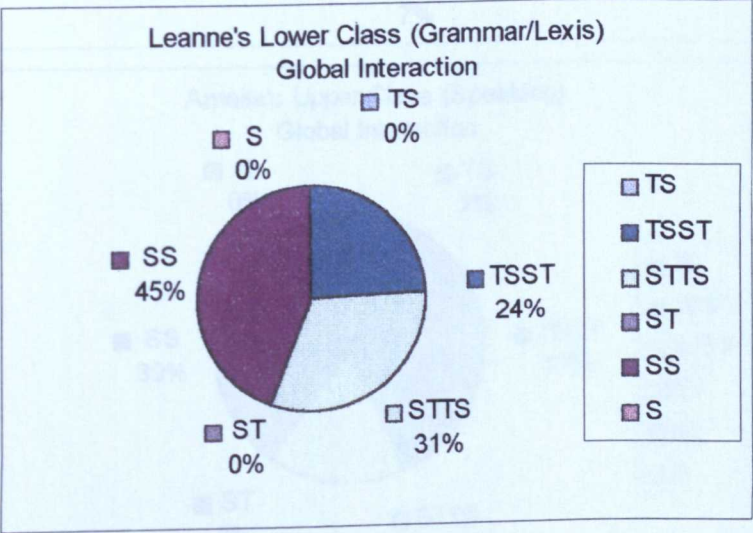
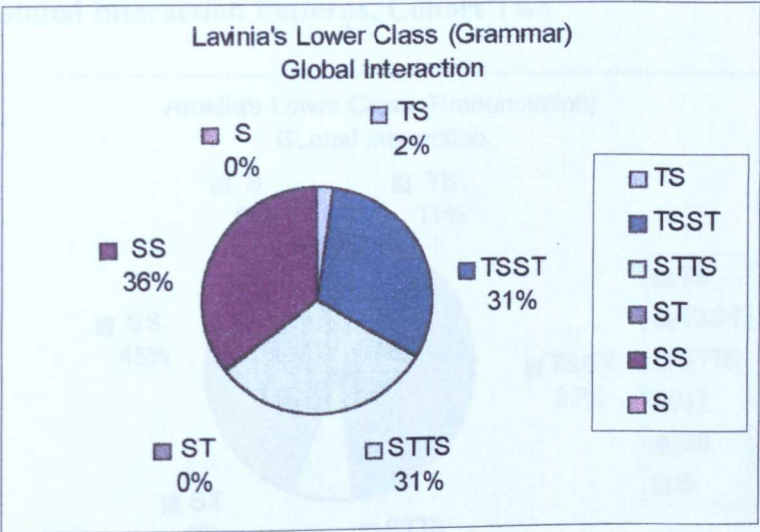
Is it possible to train people to be good language teachers

I do think it is I think you have to have a tendency towards teaching that you want to try and help people and expand their knowledge but there are also people who want to be teachers who aren't capable of doing it ... I've been taught how students are going to respond to different ways of teaching so I think you can train people...you can give them the tools and give them as much help as you can but unless they really are motivated then they won't be as good but I still think they can be teachers

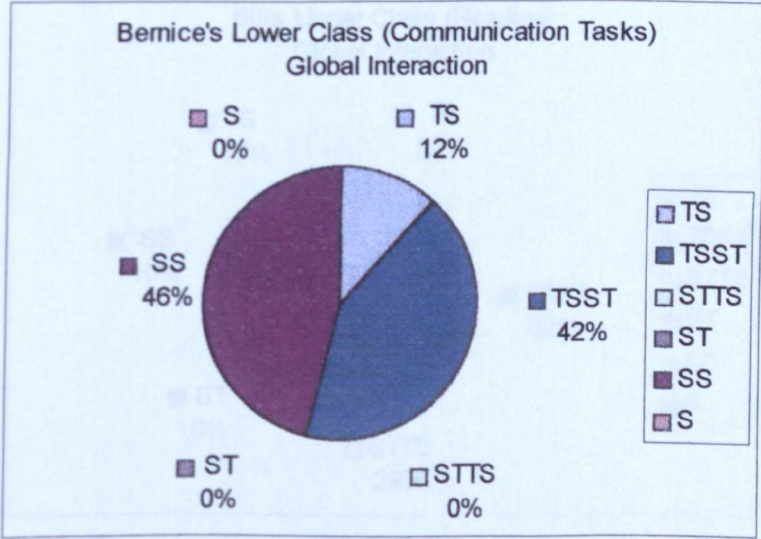
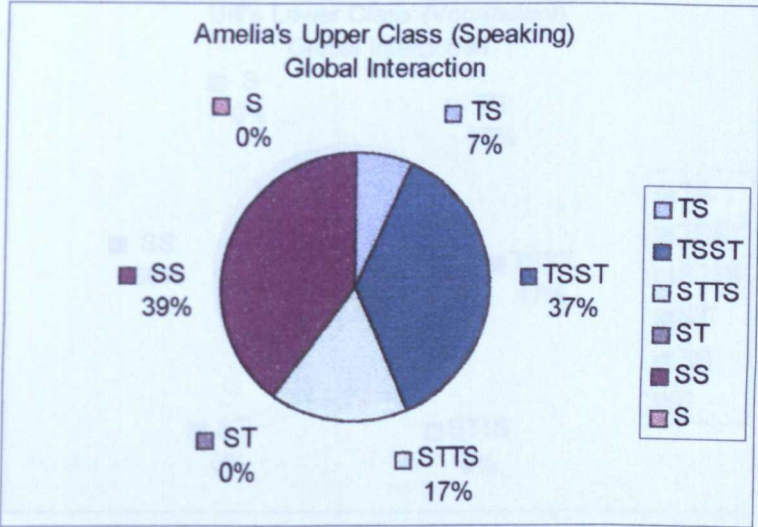
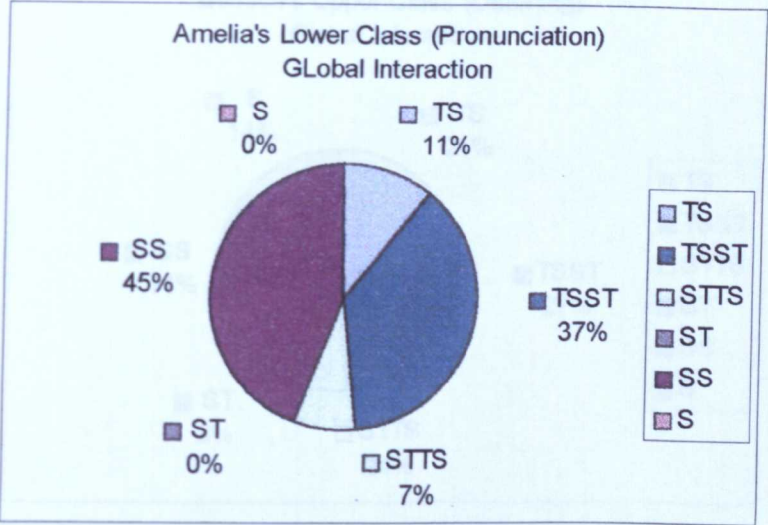
Appendix I

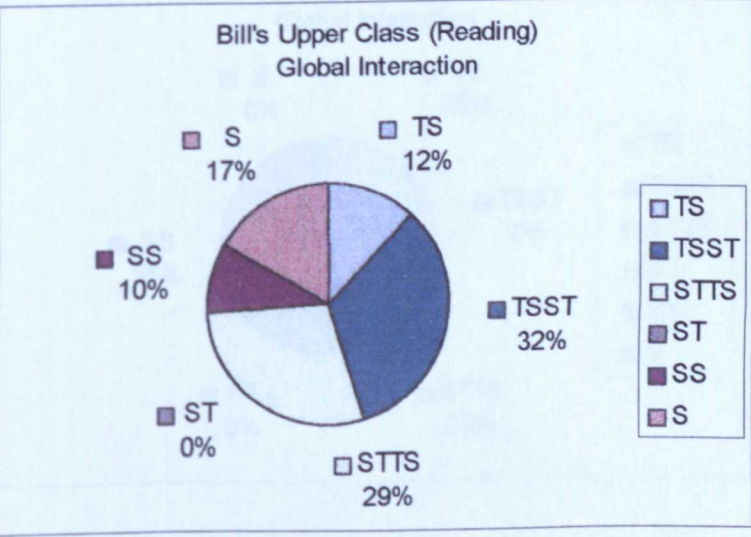
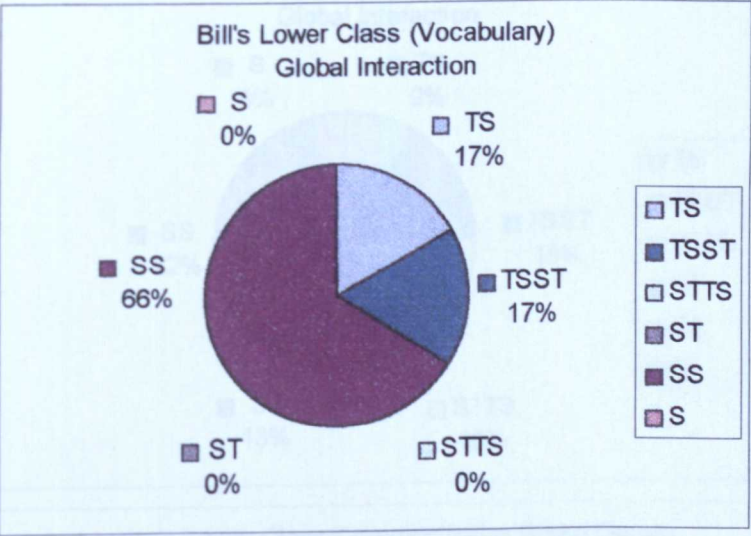
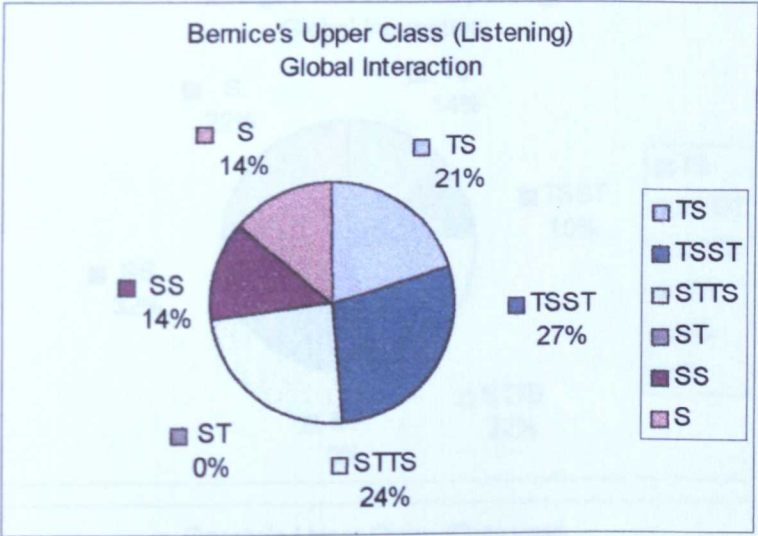
Global Interaction Patterns: Cohort One

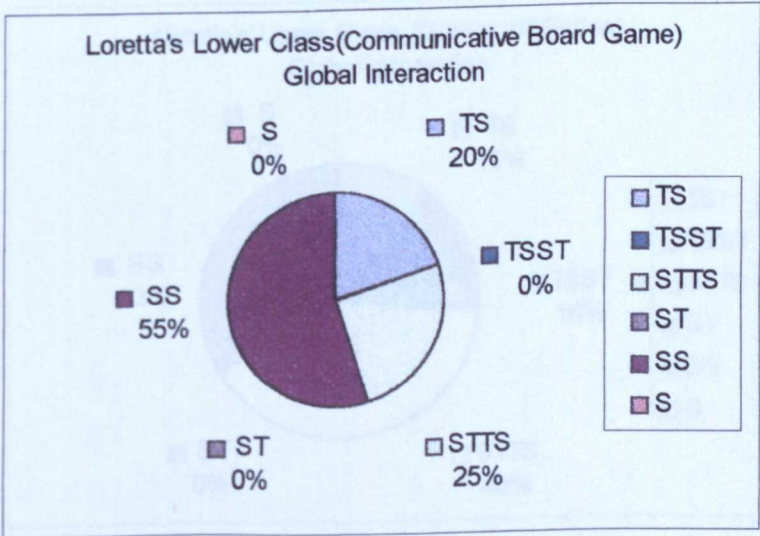
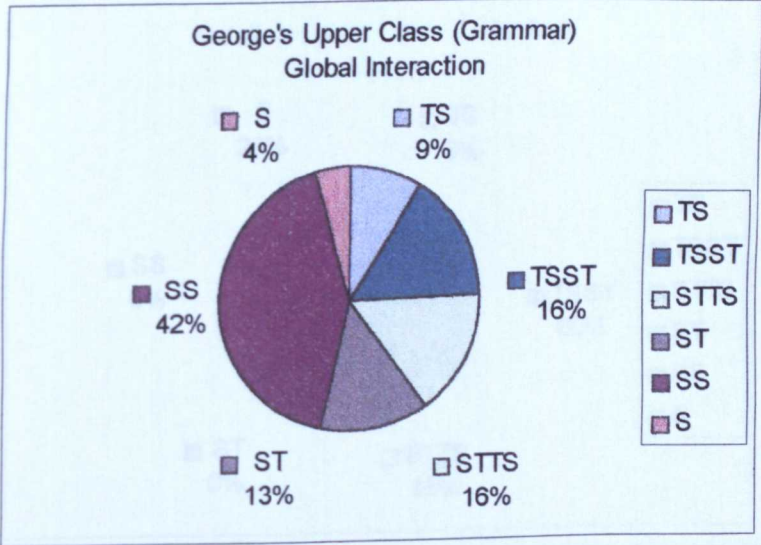
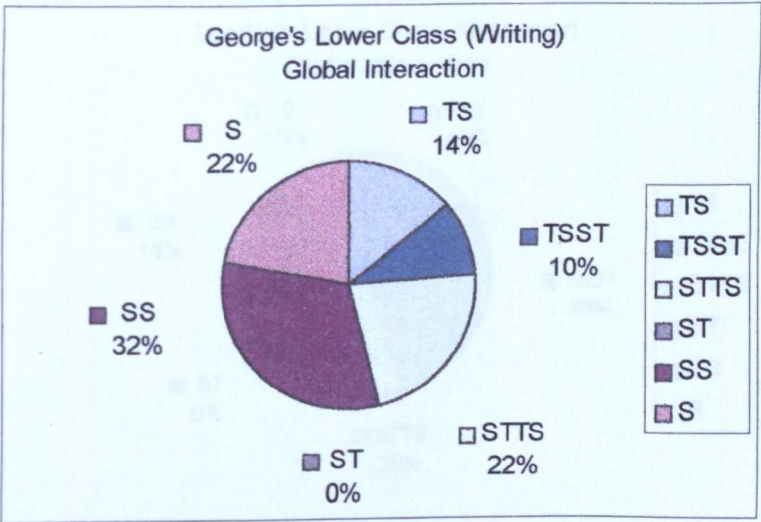


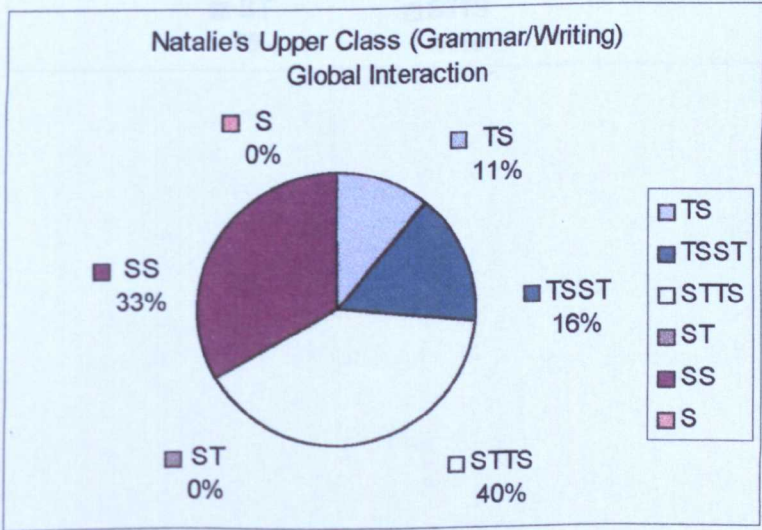
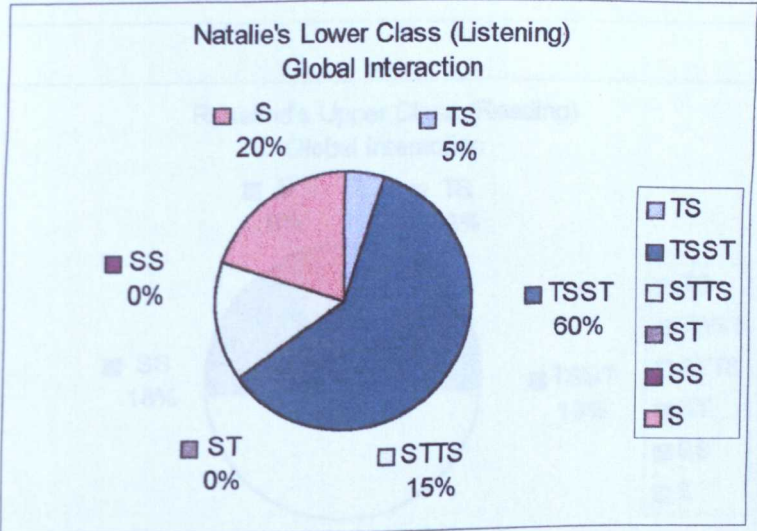
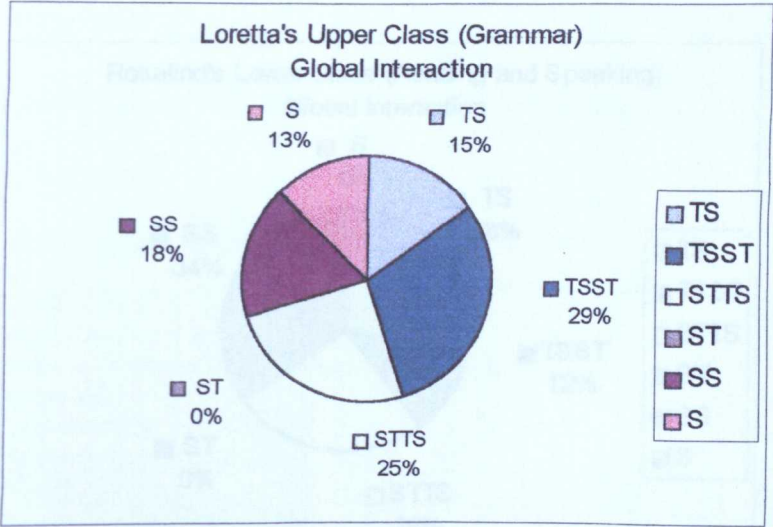


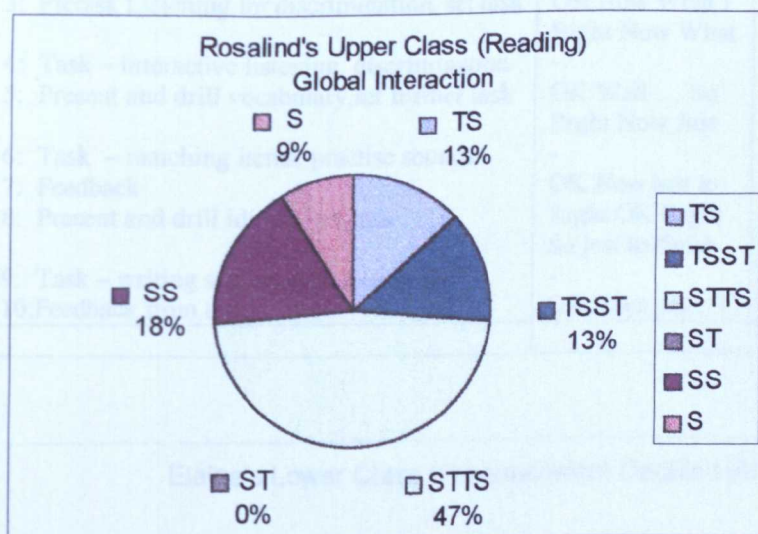
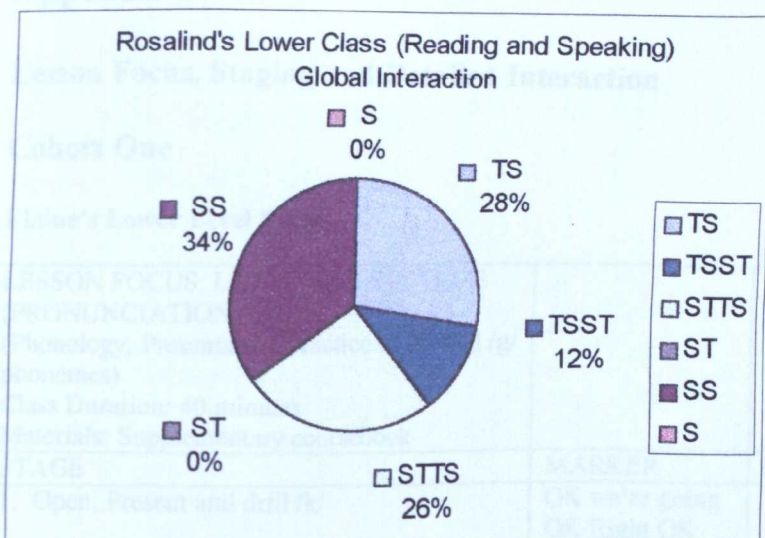
Global Interaction Patterns, Cohort Two











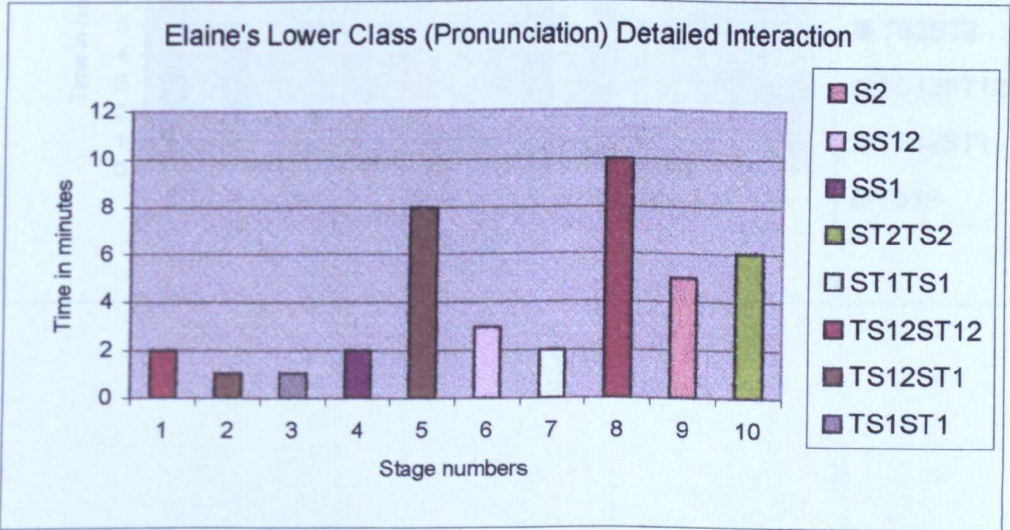
Appendix J

Lesson Focus, Staging and Detailed Interaction

Cohort One

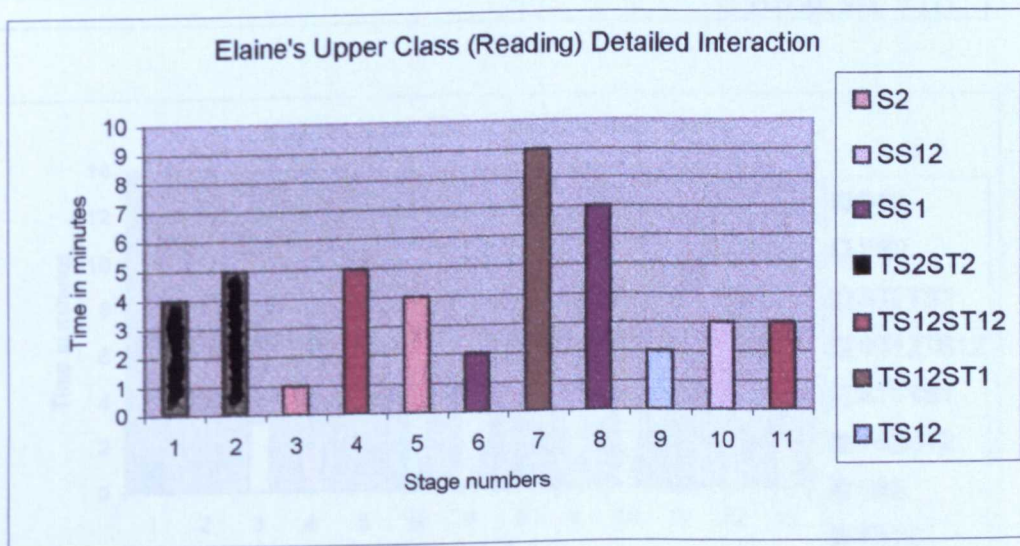
Elaine's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (PRONUNCIATION) (Phonology: Presentation/Practice of /k/ and /g/ phonemes) Class Duration: 40 minutes Materials: Supplementary coursebook			
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	ST's
1: Open, Present and drill /k/	OK we're going OK Right OK	TS12ST12	20
2: Present and drill /g/, contrast with /k/	Now OK Now	TS12ST1	15
3: Pretask Listening for discrimination, set task	OK Now What I Right Now What	TS1ST1	8
4: Task – interactive listening, discrimination	-	SS1	n/a
5: Present and drill vocabulary, set further task	OK Well ... So Right Now Just	TS12ST1	46
6: Task – matching items, practise sounds	-	SS12	n/a
7: Feedback	OK Now just to	ST1TS1	19
8: Present and drill idioms, set task	Right OK Right So just to finish	TS12ST12	24
9: Task – writing sentences to exemplify	-	S2	n/a
10: Feedback from task	OK Have you ..?	ST2TS2	6
		TOTAL STs	138



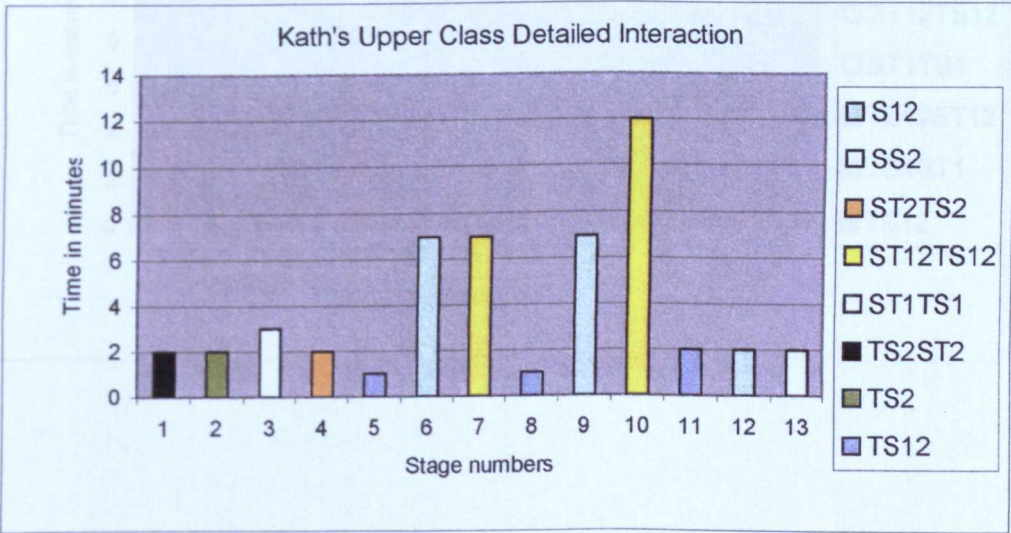
Elaine's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (READING) (Reading ?, Reading for information) Class Duration: 50 minutes Materials: Two (own) texts			
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	ST^s
1: Introductory chat and warm up to topic area	Em First of all	TS2ST2	25
2: Warm up to topic of Text 1, set to read	OK so	TS2ST2	9
3: Task – read Text 1 silently	-	S2	n/a
4: Explanation of text, set to read	Well ... Now so	TS12ST12	9
5: Task – read Text 2 silently, set feedback	OK so	S2	n/a
6: Two students read Text 2 aloud	-	SS1	n/a
7: Explanation of Text 2, set paired task	OK Now	TS12ST1	8
	OK so so what I		
8: Task – students read Text 2 aloud	-	SS1	n/a
9: Set Up further Task	OK I ... OK now	TS12	0
10: Further Task – correct errors in summary	-	SS12	n/a
11: Feedback from task	OK So	TS12ST12	10
	everybody ...?		
		TOTAL STs	61



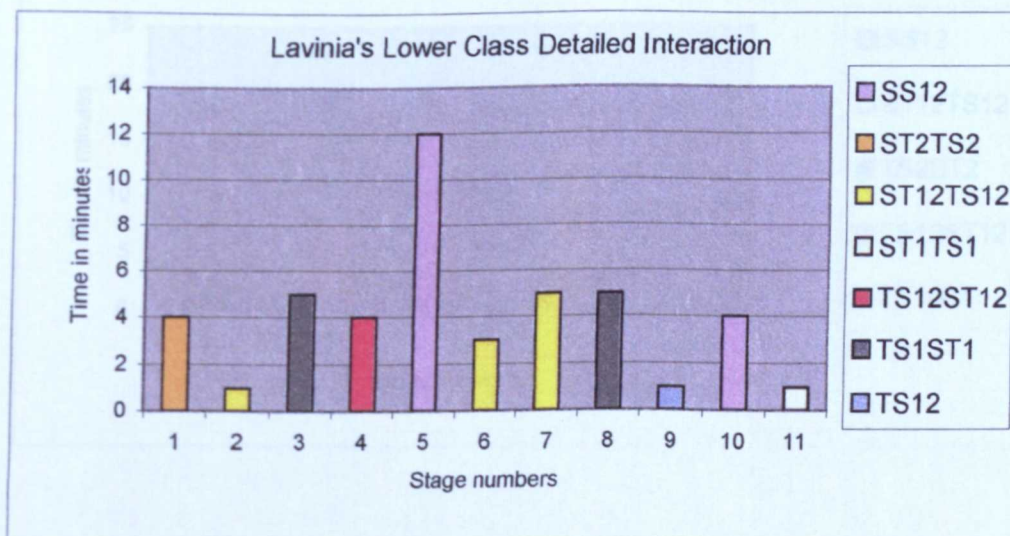
Kath's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (READING) (Prereading, Intensive Reading, Deducing meaning) Class Level: Upper Intermediate Class Duration: 50 minutes Materials: Coursebook			
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	ST's
1: Warm Up to Topic – Whole class discussion	Right so we're OK then right	TS2ST2	21
2: Set Up Warmer Task	OK so if you	TS2	0
3: Warmer Task – Discussion in groups	-	SS2	n/a
4: Feedback	OK has everyone ...?	ST2TS2	22
5: Set Up further Task	OK so em if	TS12	0
6: Further Task - Prereading	-	S12	n/a
7: Feedback	OK shall we ..?	ST12TS12	4
8: Set Up further Task	OK excellent so	TS12	0
9: Further Task - Intensive Reading	-	S12	n/a
10:Feedback	OK has everyone ...?	ST12TS12	39
11: Set Up further Task	OK if you just	TS12	0
12: Further Task – deduce meaning from context	-	S12	n/a
13: Feedback	OK ...	ST1TS1	18
		TOTAL STs	111



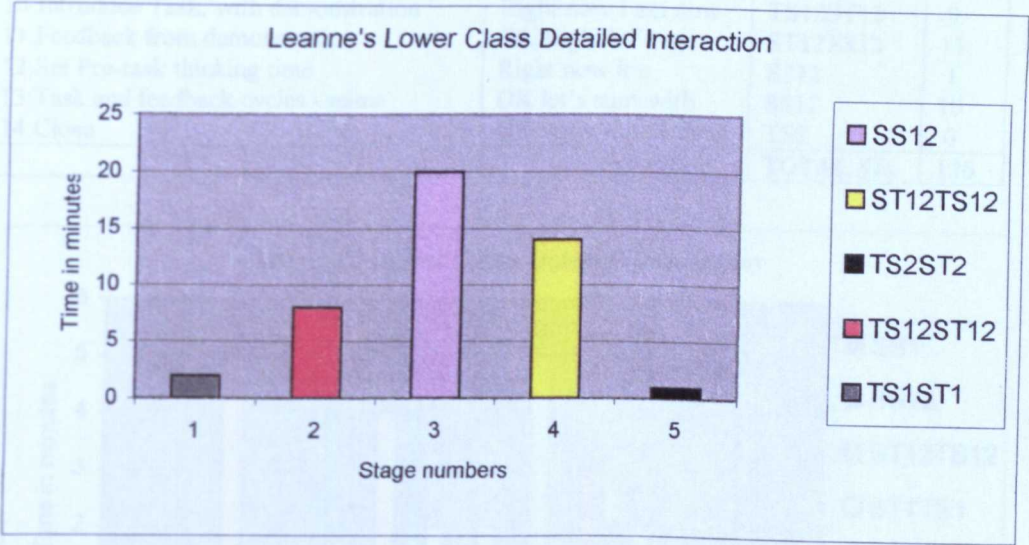
Lavinia's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (GRAMMAR) (Presentation/Practice of Conditionals) Class Level: Lower Intermediate Class Duration: 60 minutes Materials: Own Game Cards, OHT's, Visuals			
STAGING	MARKER	PATTERN	ST's
1: Warm Up to Topic	Right OK em today em	ST2TS2	28
2: Context Setting for New Language	Right now I've	ST12TS12	17
3: Presentation of New Language and drill	So right OK so	TS1ST1	19
4: Set Up Task	Right now I'm	TS12ST12	5
5: Task – practice by matching sentence halves	-	SS12	n/a
6: Feedback	Right this table ?	ST12TS12	10
7: Feedback 2 - Report on Partner	OK and now I	ST12TS12	18
8: Presentation of more Language and drill	OK right now	TS1ST1	7
9: Set Up further Task	Right so now	TS12	0
10: Further Task - Production, Team Game	-	SS12	n/a
11: Feedback	Right if this team	ST1TS1	8
TOTAL ST's			112



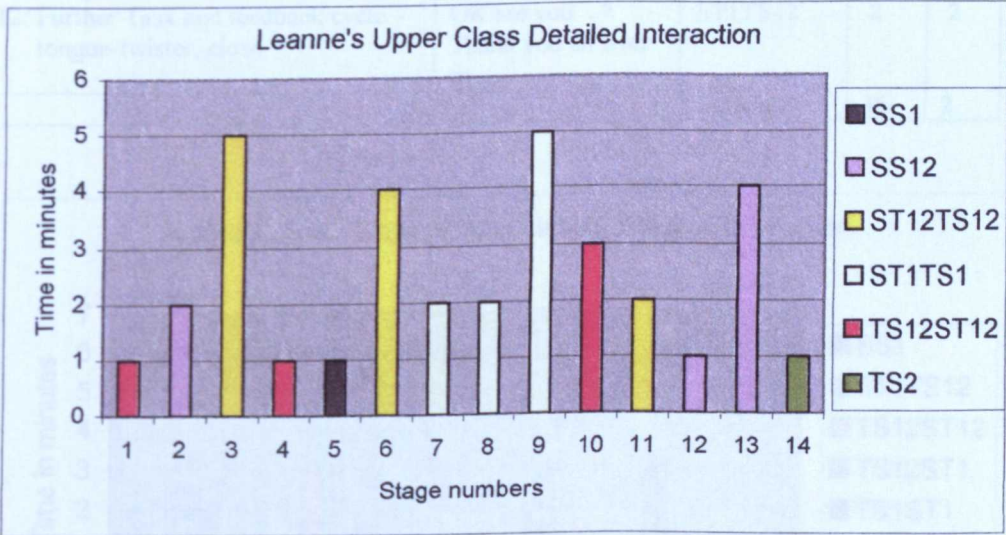
Leanne's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (COMMUNICATION TASK) (Production: comparatives/superlatives, review vocabulary) Class Duration: 45 minutes Materials: Own cutouts and worksheets, workbook exercise			
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	ST's
1: Open, Review vocabulary necessary for task	Right today we're ... and	TS1ST1	12
2: Set up task, further review of language	OK I've got	TS12ST12	67
3: Task – Production	-	SS12	n/a
4: Feedback from task	OK have you finished ...?	ST12TS12	26
5: Close	OK well that	TS2ST2	2
		TOTAL ST's	107



Leanne's Upper Level Class

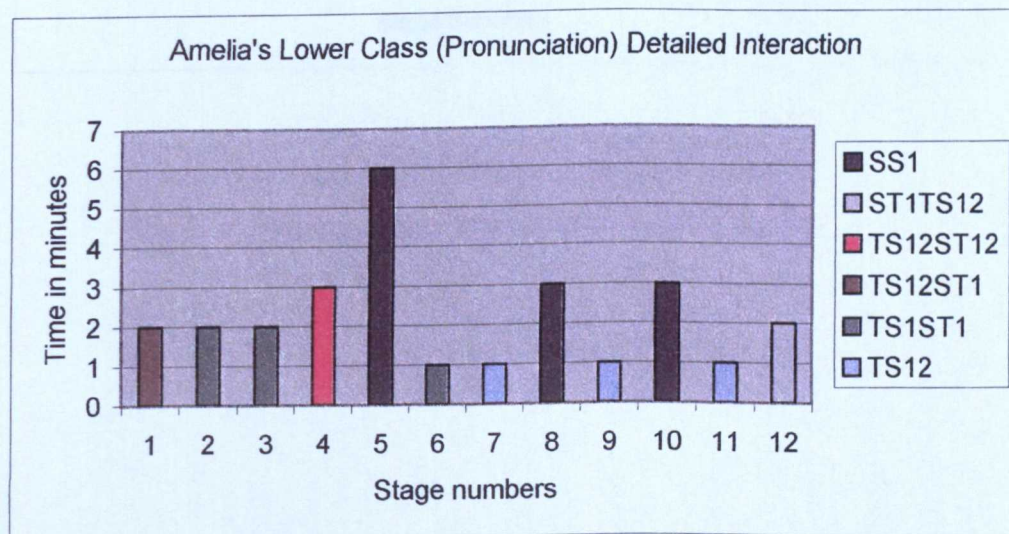
LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (FUNCTION) (Grammar/Vocabulary Presentation /Practice – expressing likes/dislikes, leisure words) Class Duration: 35 minutes Materials: Own			
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	ST's
1: Introduce topic and Set Up Task	Right today we So what I would	TS12ST12	5
2: Task – brainstorming vocabulary	-	SS12	n/a
3: Feedback from task	OK has everybody..?	ST12TS12	21
4: Set Up further Task	OK now we're going	TS12ST12	2
5: Further Task – brainstorming exponents	-	SS1	n/a
6: Feedback from task	OK OK different	ST12TS12	12
7: Elicit further functional exponents	Right now if you	ST1TS1	24
8: Elicit further vocabulary	OK so if you look at	ST1TS1	3
9: Practice vocabulary and function	OK so using these	ST1TS1	28
10: Introduce Task, with demonstration	Right now I am now	TS12ST12	9
11: Feedback from demonstration	OK Right let's see	ST12TS12	11
12: Set Pre-task thinking time	Right now it's	SS12	1
13: Task and feedback cycles - mime	OK let's start with	SS12	10
14: Close	OK Right then I think	TS2	0
		TOTAL ST's	126



Lesson Focus, Staging and Detailed Interaction, Cohort Two

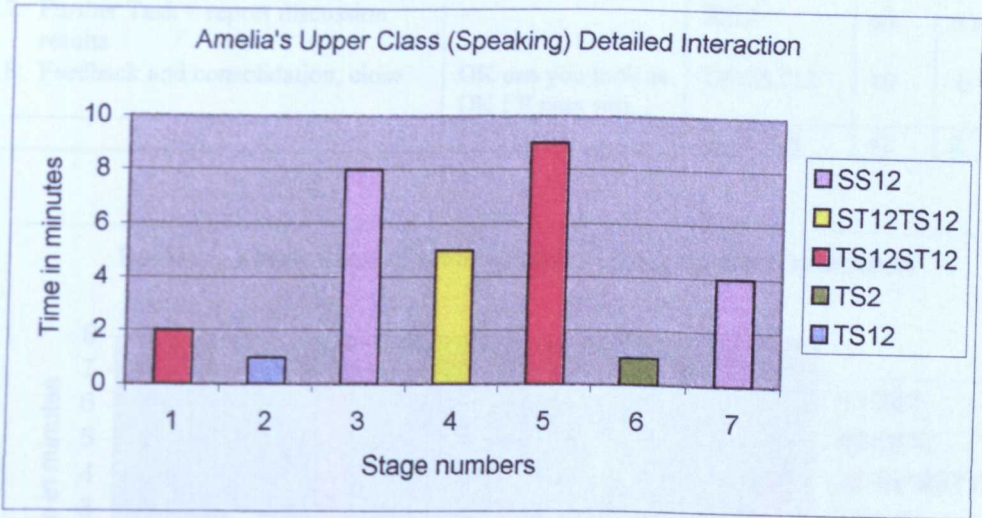
Amelia's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (PRONUNCIATION) (Pronunciation of phonemes /l/ and /i/) Class Duration: 27 minutes Materials: Own				
STAGING	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Open and introduce topic	You've been ... so we're going to ... OK so first of all	TS12ST1	11	0
2: Set up Task, includes drill	Now do you know..?	TS1ST1	14	0
3: Task and feedback cycle, interactive discrimination	OK I'm just going OK so what we're .	TS1ST1	2	0
4: Set up further Task	-	TS12ST12	3	0
5: Further Task – paired production	-	SS1	n/a	n/a
6: Feedback	OK stop where you	TS1ST1	15	0
7: Set up further Task	OK so right we've .	TS12	1	0
8: Further Task – group error correction	-	SS1	n/a	n/a
9: Set up feedback	OK after you've	TS12	0	0
10: Peer feedback	-	SS1	n/a	n/a
11: Set up further Task	OK now to end our	TS12	0	0
12: Further Task and feedback cycle – tongue-twister, close	OK are you ..? Thank you all over so	ST1TS12	2	2
		TOTALS	36	2



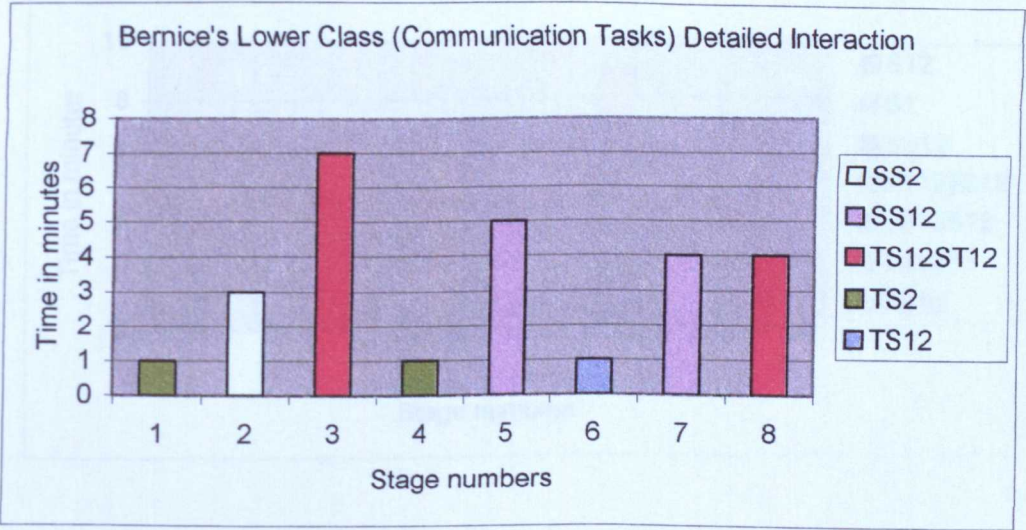
Amelia's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (SPEAKING) (Discussion to provide opportunities for expressing opinion) Class Duration: 30 minutes Materials: Own				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Open and warm up to topic	OK today er you	TS12ST12	0	2
2: Set up Task	OK Right so what I	TS12	1	0
3: Task – mingling, opinion gap	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
4: Feedback	OK let's get OK	ST12TS12	10	4
5: Vocabulary development	Right so having ...	TS12ST12	33	4
6: Set up further Task	OK in a group of	TS2	0	0
7: Further Task – Group discussion	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
		TOTALS	44	10



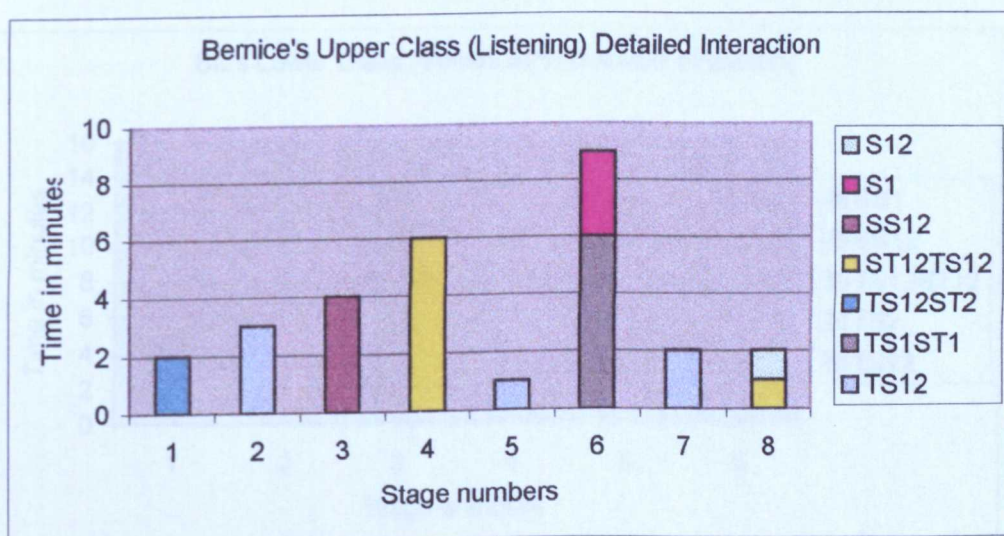
Bernice's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (COMMUNICATION TASKS) (Speaking, incorporating previously learned language) Class Duration: 26 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Introduction and set up Task	Right good morning.. OK first of all	TS2	0	0
2: Task – discussion, warm up to topic	-	SS2	n/a	n/a
3: Introduce language for further task	OK we'll bring that OK right have a ...	TS12ST12	32	2
4: Set up further Task	OK going to do an	TS2	0	0
5: Further Task – paired discussion	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
6: Set up further Task	OK there's some	TS12	0	0
7: Further Task – report discussion results	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
8: Feedback and consolidation, close	OK can you look at OK I'll pass you ..	TS12ST12	10	0
TOTALS			42	2



Bernice's Upper Level Class

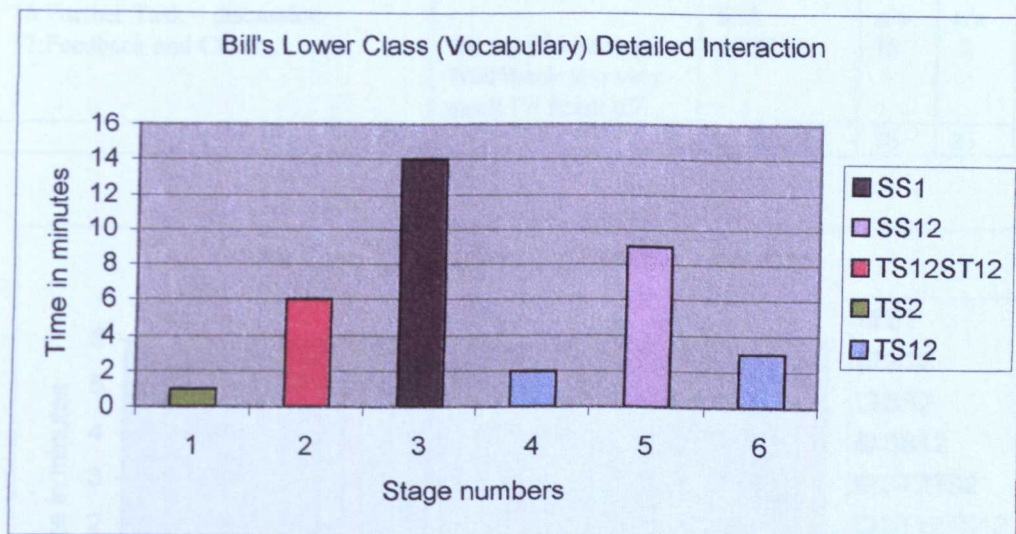
LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (PRONUNCIATION) AND SKILLS (LISTENING) (awareness of politeness formulae/intonation) Class Duration: 29 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Opening, setting context	OK good morning	TS12ST2	4	0
2: Set up Task	OK Right with	TS12	0	0
3: Task – mingling	OK around the ...	SS2	n/a	n/a
4: Feedback	-	ST12TS12	34	10
5: Set up further Task	OK would you like	TS12	0	0
6: Further Task and feedback cycles – listening for exponents	OK Right let's ...	TS12	0	0
7: Set up further Task	OK er when I play	S1/TS1ST1	22	1
8: Further Task and feedback cycles – listening for intonation, drill	OK we're going to	TS12	0	0
	OK we'll do one	S12/	12	1
	example to start ...	ST12TS12		
		TOTALS	72	11



NB: At Stage 6 of this lesson, there is a form-focused listening activity. This is not done as a teacher-independent task, with students listening to all the items first, with whole class feedback at the end. Instead, students listen to the first item from the audio-recording and note down language they hear (coded S1). Then the Teacher stops the recording and elicits whole class feedback of the language form (coded TS1ST1), before proceeding to the next item, and so on. Therefore, this stage of the lesson consists of both task and feedback within a single stage, hence two interaction patterns are shown.

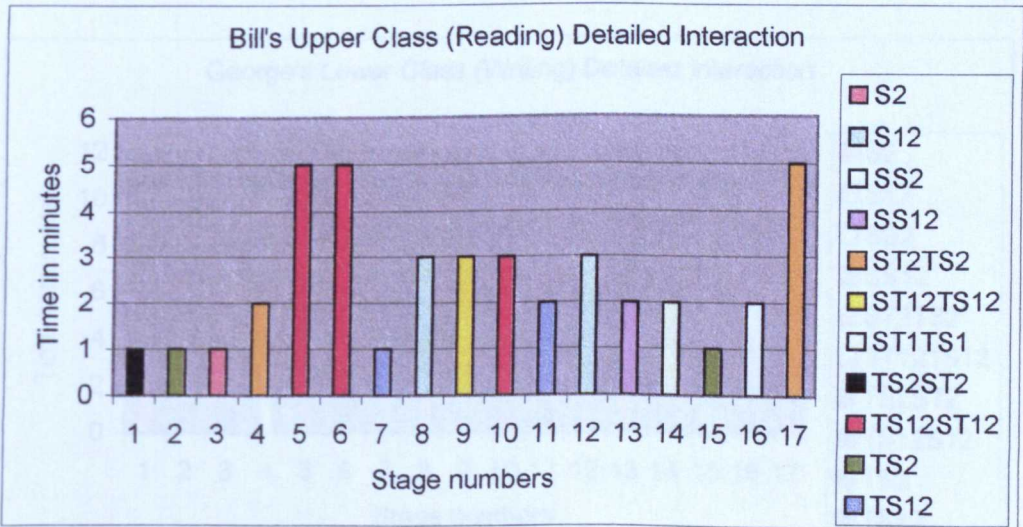
Bill's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (VOCABULARY COMMUNICATION TASK) (Review Vocabulary) Class Duration: 32 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Preamble	I've got a quick ...	TS2	0	0
2: Introduce and Set up Task	OK have we all .?	TS12ST12	5	2
3: Task – finding definitions in groups	-	SS1	n/a	n/a
4: Set up further Task	Right I'm going to ...	TS12	0	0
5: Further Task – report, information gap crossword	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
6: Feedback and Close	Right going to have ..	TS12	0	0
		TOTALS	5	2



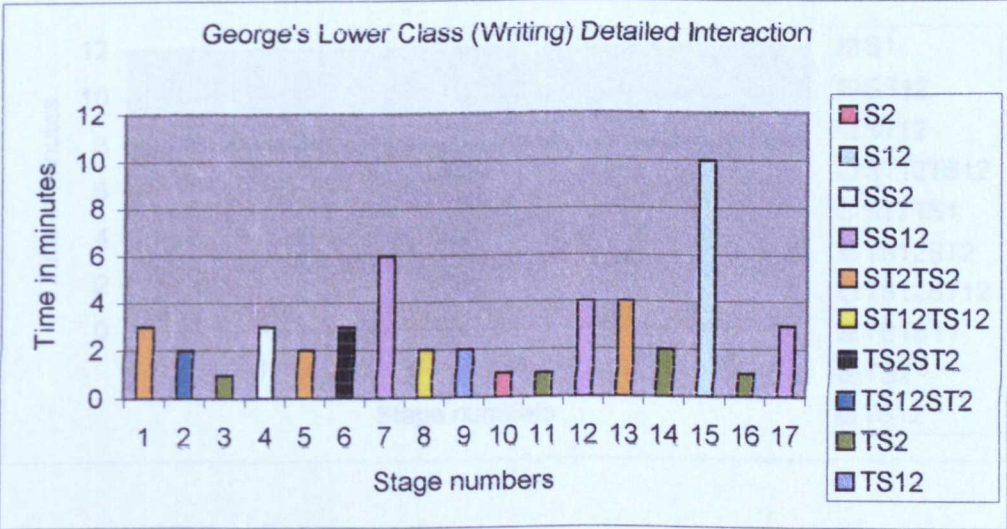
Bill's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (READING) (Prereading, Gist reading, Reading for detail) Class Duration: 42 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: General chat	(inaudible)	TS2ST2	7	0
2: Set up Context setting Task	OK let's kick off	TS2	0	0
3: Task – memory game	-	S2	n/a	n/a
4: Feedback	OK if you could stop	ST2TS2	7	1
5: Warm up to topic of reading text	So I've got here on	TS12ST12	10	4
6: Preteach vocabulary	So er yep so what I'd	TS12ST12	20	7
7: Set up further Task	So what I'm going to	TS12	0	0
8: Further Task – reading for gist	-	S12	n/a	n/a
9: Feedback	OK stop there	ST12TS12	7	4
10: Consolidation	OK so if I give out ..	TS12ST12	4	2
11: Set up further Task	So what I'd like to do	TS12	0	0
12: Further Task – reading for detail	-	S12	n/a	n/a
13: Peer check, report	And then once you've	SS12	0	0
14: Feedback	OK has everybody ..?	ST1TS1	7	0
15: Set up further Task	And to finish off	TS2	0	0
16: Further Task – discussion	-	SS2	n/a	n/a
17: Feedback and Close	OK could you stop ... Well thank you very much I'll finish off..	ST2TS2	18	7
		TOTALS	70	25



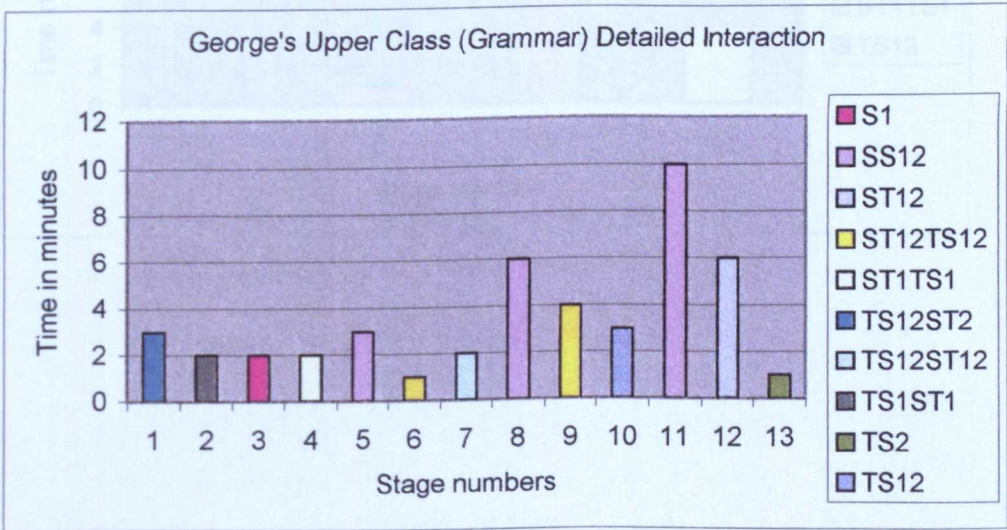
George's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (COMMUNICATIVE WRITING TASK) (Writing a problem, function of giving advice) Class Duration: 50 minutes Materials: Own				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Introductions	Hello everyone Hi	ST2TS2	12	0
2: Warm up and set context	OK so now we're	TS12ST2	5	0
3: Set up Task	Right so just for	TS2	0	0
4: Task – discussion	-	SS2	n/a	n/a
5: Feedback	OK that's fine em	ST2TS2	7	0
6: Set up further task	OK Can anybody..?	TS2ST2	4	0
7: Further Task – reading model	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
8: Feedback	OK most people	ST12TS12	6	2
9: Set up further Task	OK I'm going to	TS12	2	0
10: Further Task – reading for gist	-	S2	n/a	n/a
11: Set up further Task	OK Hands up every	TS2	0	0
12: Further Task – mingle to report, match problems with solutions	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
13: Feedback	OK so everyone..?	ST2TS2	13	8
14: Set up further Task	OK Right What I	TS2	0	0
15: Further Task – writing	-	S12	n/a	n/a
16: Set up further Task	OK We've got ten	TS2	0	0
17: Further Task – mingle to report, give advice	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
		TOTALS	49	10



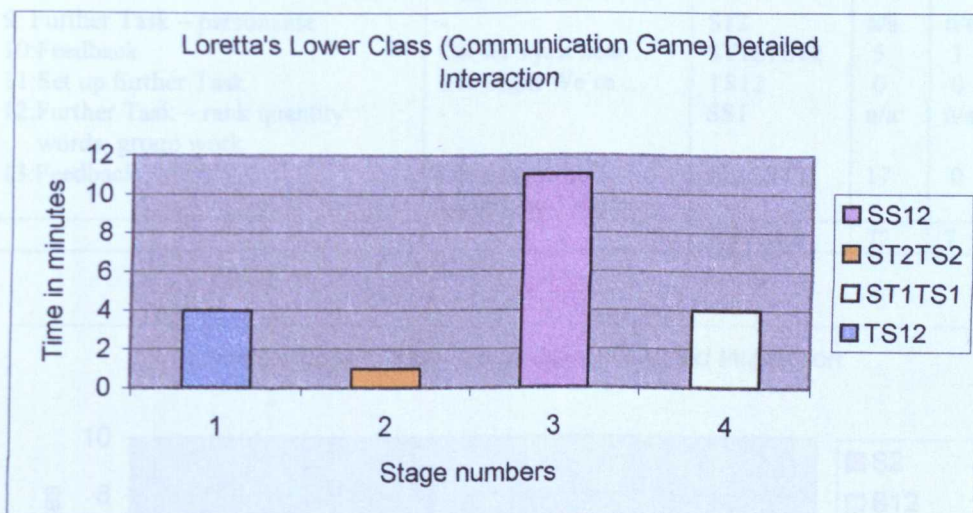
George's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (GRAMMAR) (Presentation/Practice of Present Tenses for expressing Future Time) Class Duration: 45 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Warmer	OK When you were	TS12ST2	21	9
2: Set up Task	So I'm going to ...	TS1ST1	4	0
3: Task – guided discovery of forms	-	S1	n/a	n/a
4: Feedback, leads into further task	OK everyone going to em..OK so in	ST1TS1	9	0
5: Further Task – discovery of uses	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
6: Feedback	OK I think you've	ST12TS12	6	0
7: Set up further Task	OK going to go on	TS12ST12	3	0
8: Further task – gap fill, for practice	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
9: Feedback	OK just before em	ST12TS12	14	2
10: Set up further Task	Right I want to	TS12	0	0
11: Further Task – group production	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
12: Feedback – student reports	OK everyone, are..?	ST12	27	19
13: Collect homework and close	Excellent OK Brilliant is there ..? That's all thank you	TS2	0	0
TOTALS			84	30



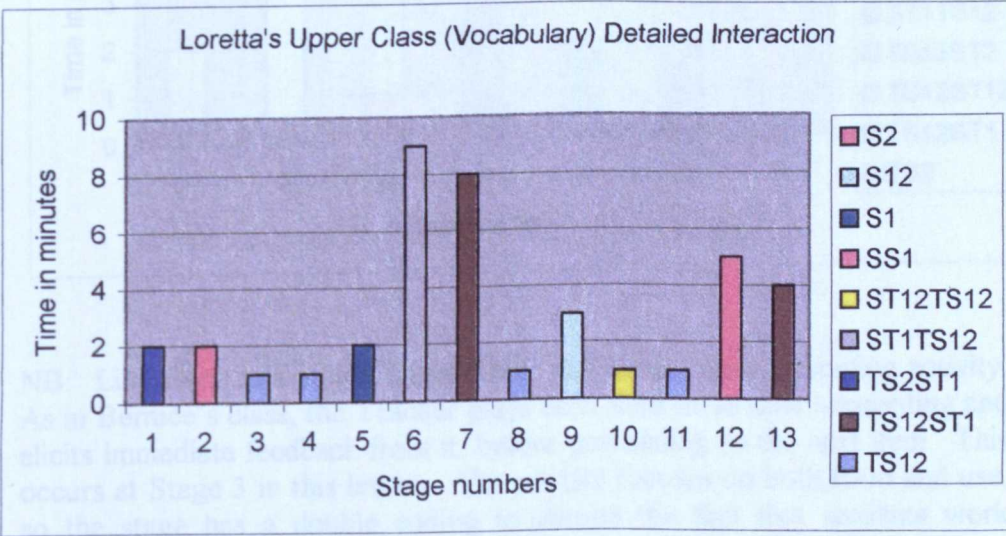
Loretta's Lower Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (COMMUNICATION GAME) (Production, expressing future plans) Class Level: Lower Intermediate Class Duration: 20 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Set up Task, with demonstration	OK What we're ..	TS12	0	0
2: Check students understand game	OK So Does everyone ...?	ST2TS2	5	0
3: Task – board game, review	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
4: Delayed error correction from task	OK just as I went round	ST1TS1	16	0
		TOTALS	21	0



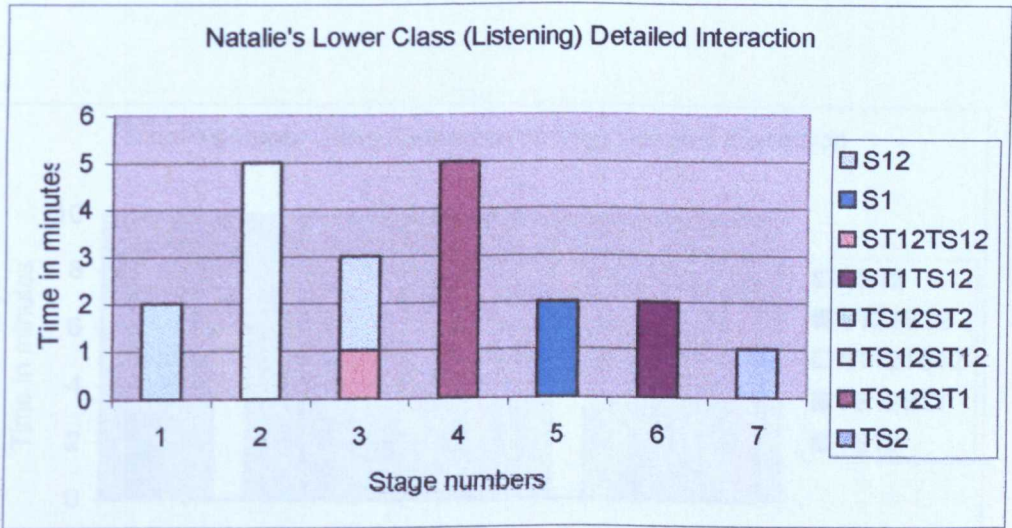
Loretta's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (VOCABULARY/GRAMMAR) (Presentation of expressions of quantity) Class Level: Upper Intermediate Class Duration: 40 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Set up Task	OK so first of all	TS2ST1	2	1
2: Task – fill in questionnaire	-	S2	n/a	n/a
3: Brief feedback	OK How are we ..?	TS12	0	0
4: Set up further Task	OK Now we're going	TS12	0	0
5: Further Task – look at rules	-	S1	n/a	n/a
6: Feedback	OK let's go over it	ST1TS12	22	5
7: Present further rules	OK All right then em just want to ...	TS12ST1	24	1
8: Set up further Task	So OK Good so em what I want us to do	TS12	2	0
9: Further Task – personalise	-	S12	n/a	n/a
10:Feedback	OK let's just hear ...	ST12TS12	5	1
11:Set up further Task	OK Right We're ...	TS12	0	0
12:Further Task – rank quantity words, group work	-	SS1	n/a	n/a
13:Feedback	OK this group's finished so I think ...	TS12ST1	17	0
		TOTALS	72	7



Natalie's Lower Level Class

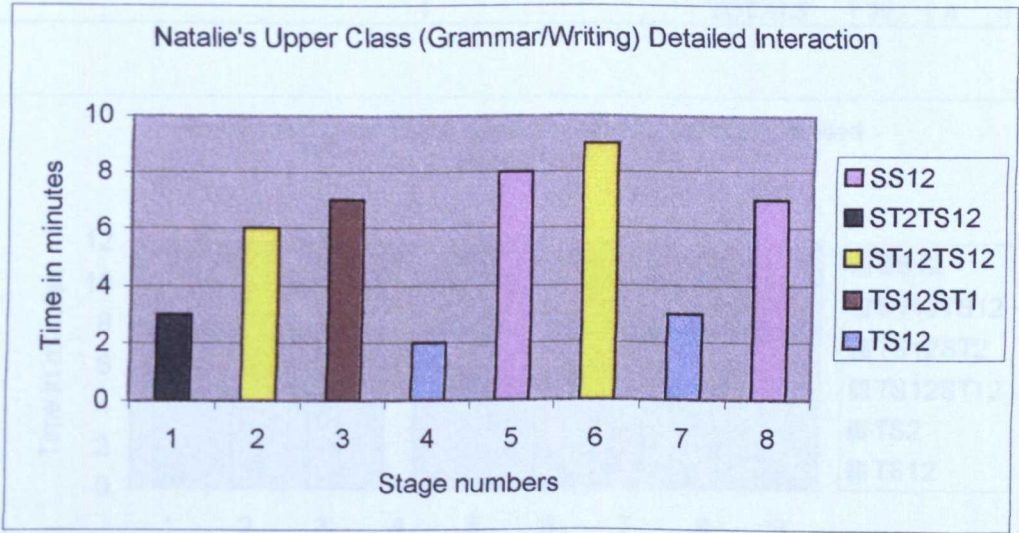
LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (LISTENING) (Listening for gist, listening for specific numerical information) Class Duration: 20 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Warmer	OK we're going to	TS12ST2	2	0
2: Set up Task, preteach vocabulary	OK we're going to	TS12ST12	9	0
3: Task and feedback cycles – gist listening	OK Wendy what ...?	S12/ ST12TS12	10	0
4: Set up further Task	OK Right What we want to do now is ...	TS12ST1	21	0
5: Further Task – listening for numerical information	-	S1	n/a	n/a
6: Feedback	OK let's whizz thro'..	ST1TS12	9	0
7: Set homework – writing postcard	OK you have got .. and ...	TS2	0	0
TOTALS			31	0



NB: Like Bernice's Upper Level Class, this lesson uses a listening activity. As in Bernice's class, the Teacher plays each item of an audio-recording and elicits immediate feedback from it, before proceeding to the next item. This occurs at Stage 3 in this lesson. The activity focuses on both form and use, so the stage has a double coding to denote the fact that students work individually to listen closely to each item (coded S12), followed by two-way interaction in brief feedback after each item (coded ST12TS12).

Natalie's Upper Level Class

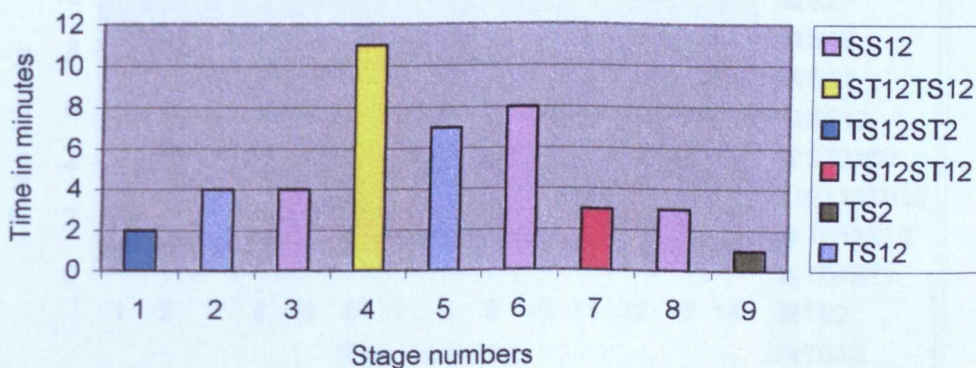
LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS (GRAMMAR) (Review/practice/production,intensifiers/comparatives/superlatives) Class Duration: 45 minutes Materials: Own				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Warmer	Advertising, can anybody tell me ...?	ST2TS12	17	0
2: Contextualise grammar	I'm going to em ..	ST12TS12	17	0
3: Present/review grammar rules	OK put those away	TS12ST1	10	0
4: Set up Task	OK What I want us to	TS12	0	0
5: Task – paired discussion, practice	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
6: Feedback, report	Right OK thenlet's er	ST12TS12	38	16
7: Set up further Task	OK em we're gonna	TS12	0	0
8: Further Task – production, group writing	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
		TOTALS	82	16



Rosalind's Lower Level Class

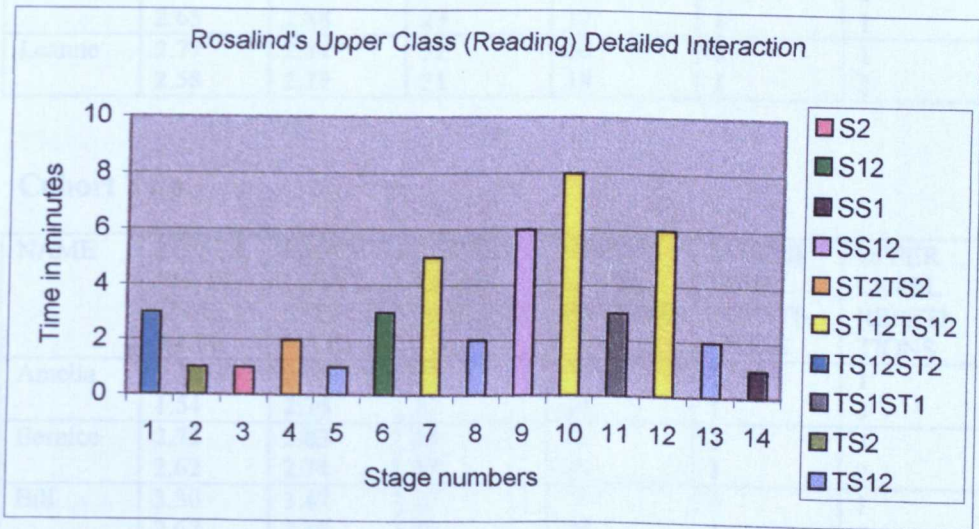
LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (READING/SPEAKING) (Review function and lexis) Class Duration: 43 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Opening and Warmer	Right Good Morning everybody... so we're going to just ...	TS12ST2	6	0
2: Set up Task	Right looking back ...	TS12	0	0
3: Task – prereading, vocabulary item matching	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
4: Feedback	Right you've all got..	ST12TS12	28	4
5: Set up further Task	Right we're going to..	TS12	0	0
6: Further Task – reading for information	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
7: Regroup and set up further Task	Right Are we all ...? Right can you stand	TS12ST12	5	0
8: Further Task – paired report, information gap	-	SS12	n/a	n/a
9: Close	OK Right can we stop..	TS2	0	0
		TOTALS	39	4

Rosalind's Lower Class (Reading and Speaking) Detailed Interaction



Rosalind's Upper Level Class

LESSON FOCUS: LANGUAGE SKILLS (READING) (Reading for gist and understanding) Class Duration: 45 minutes Materials: Coursebook				
STAGE	MARKER	PATTERN	STs	LTs
1: Open and Warm up to topic	OK Good Morning everybody we'll start... em I just want So we're going to	TS12ST2	12	0
2: Set up Task	-	TS2	0	0
3: Task – Prereading, prediction	Right any ideas .?	S2	n/a	n/a
4: Feedback	Right OK having ...	ST2TS2	13	0
5: Set up further Task	-	TS12	0	0
6: Task – gist reading	So picture one ...	S12	n/a	n/a
7: Feedback	Right OK Now what	ST12TS12	11	0
8: Set up further Task	-	TS12	2	0
9: Task – summarising	OK let's have a look	SS12	n/a	n/a
10: Feedback	Good Right Thank you Now if you look	ST12TS12	16	4
11: Vocabulary development	Right if you... .	TS1ST1	7	0
12: Warm up to further Task	-	ST12TS12	10	5
13: Set up further Task	-	TS12	1	0
14: Further Task – reading for understanding	-	SS1	n/a	n/a
		TOTALS	63	9



Appendix K

Interactional Adjustments: Speaking Rates, Pausing, Repetition

Key:

Speaking rates are measured in syllables per second, taken over teacher-fronted segments that display a TS pattern (or, where there is no exclusively TS pattern, the closest to exclusively teacher output that exists in the audio-recorded work of the teacher concerned). These segments are normally those in which an exercise, activity or task is set up. The number of such segments varies in each lesson. The figures displayed here represent the highest rate and the lowest rate in the lesson concerned.

Pauses are measured in number of pauses per 100 words, taken over the same segments (extended over previous or following utterances, as appropriate, to bring the word count to the required 100 words).

Repetitions are measured per 100 words, taken over the same segments. The measurement includes paraphrases, exact repetitions and glosses of previous utterances.

Cohort One

NAME	LOWER LEVEL SPEECH RATE	UPPER LEVEL SPEECH RATE	LOWER LEVEL PAUSING	UPPER LEVEL PAUSING	LOWER LEVEL REPETI- TIONS	UPPER LEVEL REPETI- TIONS
Elaine	2.98	3.03	19	16	4	2
	2.65	2.88	23	17	1	1
Leanne	2.77	2.84	32	20	3	1
	2.58	2.79	31	19	2	2

Cohort Two

NAME	LOWER LEVEL SPEECH RATE	UPPER LEVEL SPEECH RATE	LOWER LEVEL PAUSING	UPPER LEVEL PAUSING	LOWER LEVEL REPETI- TIONS	UPPER LEVEL REPETI- TIONS
Amelia	2.32	2.96	21	13	1	1
	1.54	2.76	27	20	1	3
Bernice	2.72	2.83	25	21	2	3
	2.62	2.74	17	18	1	2
Bill	3.30	3.47	17	13	0	1
	2.67	3.35	22	20	1	0
George	2.85	3.06	21	14	3	2
	2.37	2.64	27	17	1	1
Loretta	2.33	3.19	21	16	1	0
	2.04	2.86	16	16	1	2
Natalie	2.74	3.12	19	21	0	1
	1.94	2.32	32	22	3	1
Rosalind	2.20	2.81	18	19	1	1
	2.02	2.20	20	18	0	1

Appendix L

Alphabetical List of Example Functional Exponents

Checking for Clarification of Learner Input into Lesson Content

Again?
Pardon?
Sorry?

Checking Readiness for Task

Has everybody got a pair?
Has everybody got something to write with?
Have we got all the A's and B's together?
Is everybody listening?
So could you explain please what you've got to do for me?

Checking Readiness for Task Feedback

Are we all coming together now?
Do you feel ready to stop there?
Has everybody finished?
How are we doing now?
OK everyone are you finished?

Checking, Rhetorical

No
OK
Right
Tag question with falling intonation, e.g. 'isn't it', or 'doesn't he'
Yeah /Yes/Yep

Checking Understanding of Lesson Content

Are we all OK with X?
Heard of it before?
How do we know?
Is that clearer now?
So what did she say?

Finishing a Task

Last minute now ... are you finished on this side?
OK don't worry too much about those
OK put those away for me then we'll move on
OK stop everyone where you've got up to
Right OK then let's er let's draw that to a close then

Finishing a Lesson

OK and I think it's now time to finish well done
OK I don't want to keep you any longer
OK so that's the end of my lesson with you
Thank you, all over
Well thank you very much I'll finish off there

Grouping for Task

Can you all come out from your desks and just stand in front of your desks
OK So some of you will have to work in threes
Right so you can go and work together OK?
So will you stand here?
You're over here where Katie is and Katie you're going to go over here

Managing Behaviour for Task

And all I want you to do is work in partners if you can and try and decide which ...
OK does everyone want to turn over their piece of paper and just look at these?
OK so what you have to do
Right have a bit of a go and then we'll try and say it all together
So take one and pass it down don't do anything yet

Motivating Mid-Task

Don't worry too much about ...
If there are any words you're unsure of just ask me
If you have em some problems with the vocabulary try and use the minidictionary
Move on move round quickly cos we want to cover all five please
OK one more minute please find somebody else to talk to

Nominating for Social/Affective Purposes

And as Juan pointed out earlier
Another word for that that Francesca said is
Looking back at what Richard did with you
Shall we have a look at Alex's
You George you've been there

Nominating to Elicit/Teach Lesson Content

And Sofia then what is the adjective
Has anybody found a definition Juan have you
Number three Nadia and Hassan
OK Wendy what do you think it was

Nominating to Manage Behaviour

Eric have you finished
Eyes this way a minute Manuel just look around
Fabienne can you see the board
Jason would you like to do answer one
Lawrence are you all right exercise seven

Praising by Evaluative Commentary

Excellent I like that idea
OK there's some very interesting conversations going on
Very good English well done you were all using the words we'd learned very well
Well we all seem to be getting there
What you said there was very good indeed

Praising by Quick 'Stroke'

Brilliant
Exactly
Excellent
Spot on
That's it

Recapping Behaviour for Task

Just have a look at the pictures and see ...
So Katie Christina are you prepared to go over there?
So you can turn them over and try to remember ...
So you just read on your own for a few minutes first and then discuss together
So in two's with your partner go to the walls and...

Recapping Task Requirements

Just pick three phrases for each
Just practise a little bit
Just say what they did in one sentence
So I'll give you a few minutes to read through the texts
So if you read the statement read the paragraphs and you see ... underline that

Self-disclosure for Modelling Language, Demonstrating or Giving Examples for Tasks

I usually go on holiday to Majorca Spain this year I'm going to Ireland
I'm going to give you an example now with Laura
So if I say I don't like some types of jazz music
So if I was allergic to certain types of food I would put A
The least em intelligent person me probably

Self-disclosure for Social/Affective Purposes (Asides)

For each of these paragraphs ... if I can find it
I suppose I ought to move people around again
Oh I haven't set the overhead projector up what a shame
Oh I shouldn't have done this
Oh I've just told everyone

Starting a Lesson

Hello everyone Hi
OK ...
OK Good Morning everybody we'll start
OK let's kick off
Right Good Morning everybody

Starting a Task

And first of all we're just going to I'm just going to ask you to guess ...
Now what I'm going to ask you to do is ...
OK let's start ... have you...?
OK so what we're going to do now...
OK you're all going to get one of these and ...

Staging a Lesson

OK So right we've got another one
OK Here we go got another thing for you to do
OK after you've done that
OK now to end our lovely lesson
Right OK having done that ...

Appendix M

Affective Features, Cohort Two

Checking (Rhetorical)

Rhetorical Checks, Lower Level Class

NAME	OK	Yeah	Right	No	Tag	TOTAL
Amelia	13	9	0	0	0	22
Bernice	8	7	0	0	0	15
Bill	1	1	0	0	0	2
George	12	7	5	1	1	26
Loretta	1	4	1	0	1	7
Natalie	5	6	1	0	0	12
Rosalind	0	0	1	0	1	2

Rhetorical Checks, Upper Level Class

NAME	OK	Yeah	Right	No	Tag	TOTAL
Amelia	6	14	1	0	3	24
Bernice	11	10	0	0	2	23
Bill	4	5	0	0	1	10
George	6	6	0	0	0	12
Loretta	3	23	0	0	1	27
Natalie	9	6	3	0	6	24
Rosalind	0	1	0	1	11	13

Nominating

Nominations, Lower Level Class

NAME	STRUCTURING	TEACHING	SOCIALISING	TOTAL
Amelia	8	0	1	9
Bernice	3	8	2	13
Bill	0	2	2	4
George	9	18	6	33
Loretta	1	2	0	3
Natalie	2	26	4	32
Rosalind	6	19	3	28

Nominations, Upper Level Class

NAME	STRUCTURING	TEACHING	SOCIALISING	TOTAL
Amelia	1	7	1	9
Bernice	4	30	6	40
Bill	3	9	5	17
George	12	16	4	32
Loretta	5	11	0	16
Natalie	2	24	2	28
Rosalind	0	9	0	9

Perceptual Position

Perceptual Positions, Lower Level Class

NAME	I	YOU	THEY	WE	EVERYONE
Amelia	29	102	5	17	0
Bernice	23	51	5	8	3
Bill	29	102	18	8	3
George	56	74	13	11	10
Loretta	40	22	6	19	3
Natalie	5	31	13	25	7
Rosalind	29	129	15	37	10

Perceptual Positions, Upper Level Class

NAME	I	YOU	THEY	WE	EVERYONE
Amelia	10	120	31	6	1
Bernice	36	67	31	15	6
Bill	50	153	22	24	25
George	20	71	2	17	9
Loretta	92	65	17	90	8
Natalie	39	86	13	36	8
Rosalind	17	85	79	27	8

Praise

*In the following tables, the totals refer to the number of **utterances** in which praise occurs, not the total of tabulated items, e.g. 7 of Bill's 25 utterances contain combinations of two or more of these items, e.g. *'well done that's it'*, or *'that's it spot on'*. Therefore the figure in the TOTAL column does not correspond to the number of items added together.

Praise, Lower Level Class

NAME	Thanks	Good/ Great	Fine/ That's it/ correct	Well done	Spot on/ Exactly	Excel- lent	Brilli- ant	Com- ment	TOTAL*
Amelia	1	5	5	0	0	0	0	1	10
Bernice	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	4
Bill	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	7
George	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	3
Loretta	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	1	4
Natalie	1	14	2	0	0	1	0	1	17
Rosalind	2	6	3	0	0	0	0	3	12

Praise, Upper Level Class

NAME	Thanks	Good/ Great	Fine/ That's it/ correct	Well done	Spot on/ Exactly	Excel- lent	Brilli- ant	Com- ment	TOTAL*
Amelia	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	1	7
Bernice	0	5	2	0	0	0	0	0	7
Bill	1	1	19	5	6	1	1	2	25
George	1	2	0	4	0	1	4	2	9
Loretta	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	12
Natalie	1	10	0	1	1	3	0	2	17
Rosalind	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	8

Self Disclosure

Self Disclosure, Lower Level Class

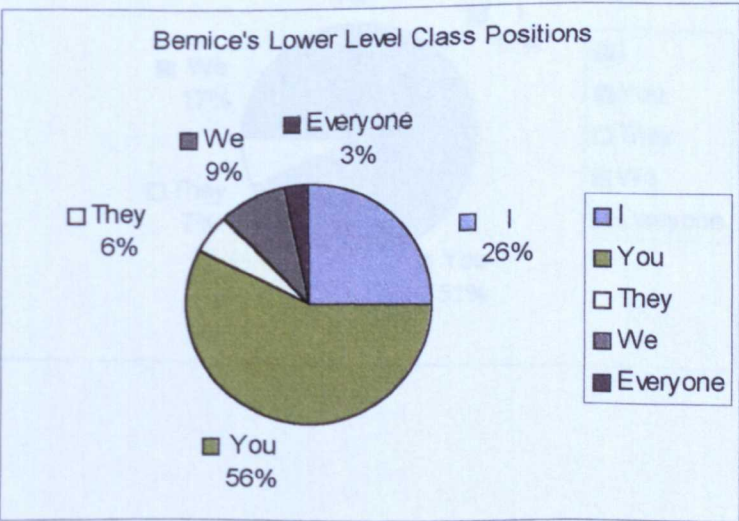
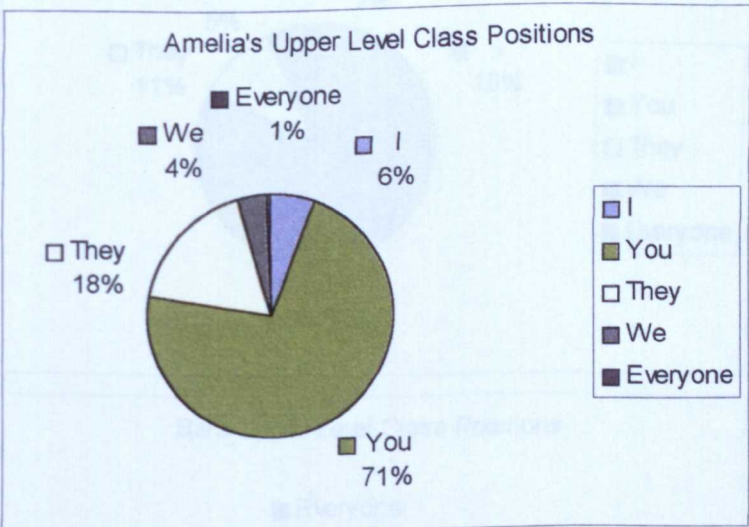
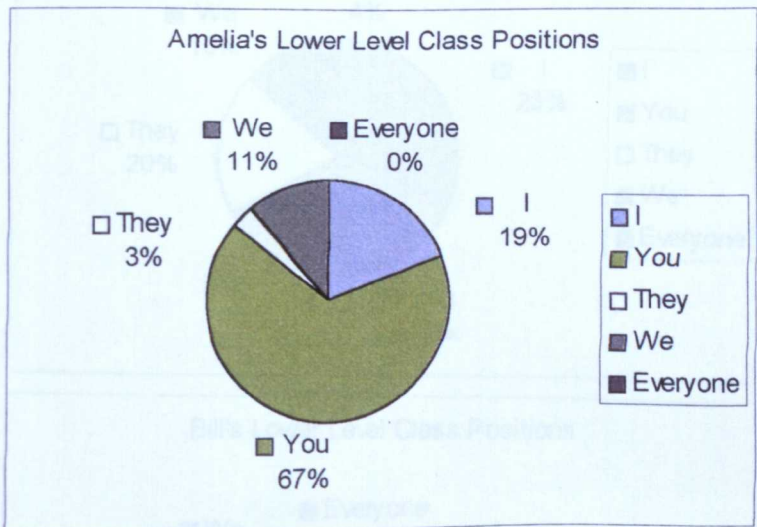
NAME	Personal References	Asides	TOTAL
Amelia	3	1	4
Bernice	2	0	2
Bill	2	0	2
George	2	0	2
Loretta	1	0	1
Natalie	0	0	0
Rosalind	1	0	1

Self Disclosure, Upper Level Class

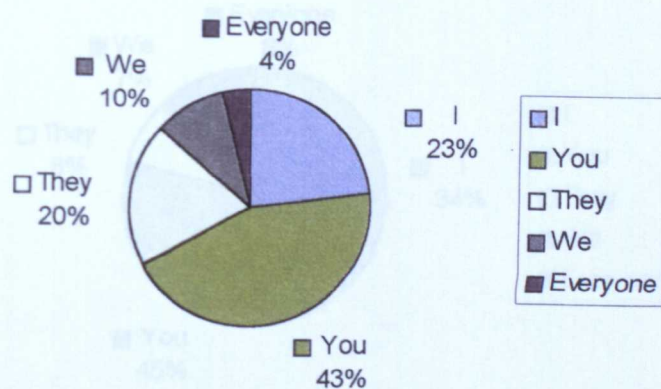
NAME	Personal References	Asides	TOTAL
Amelia	0	1	1
Bernice	1	1	2
Bill	2	5	7
George	0	0	0
Loretta	5	4	9
Natalie	3	6	9
Rosalind	1	4	5

Appendix N

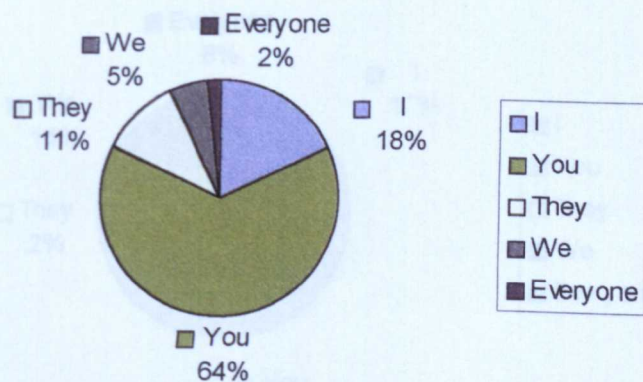
Perceptual Positions, Cohort Two



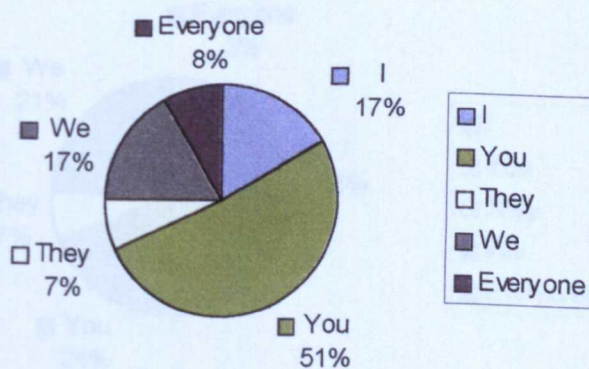
Bernice's Upper Level Class Positions



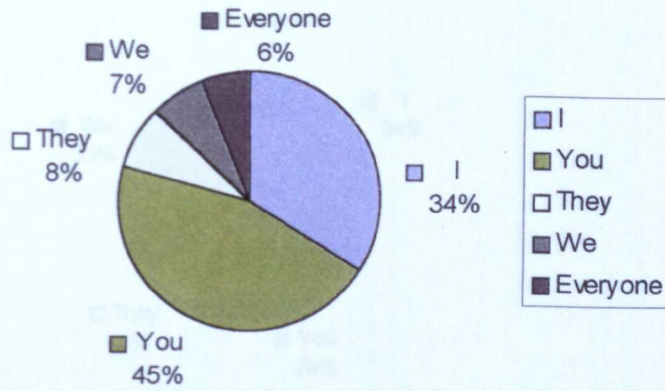
Bill's Lower Level Class Positions



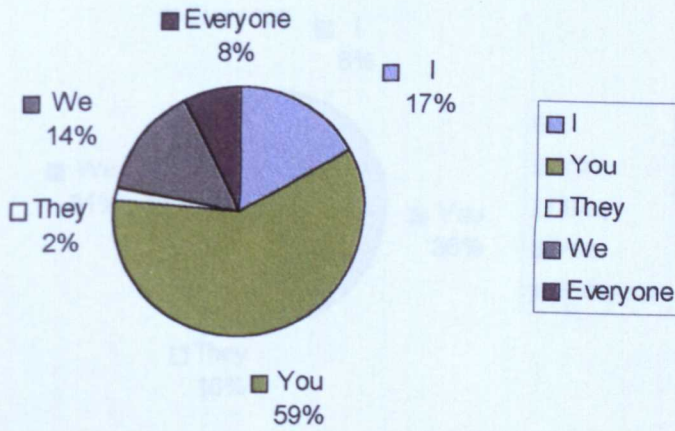
Bill's Upper Level Class Positions



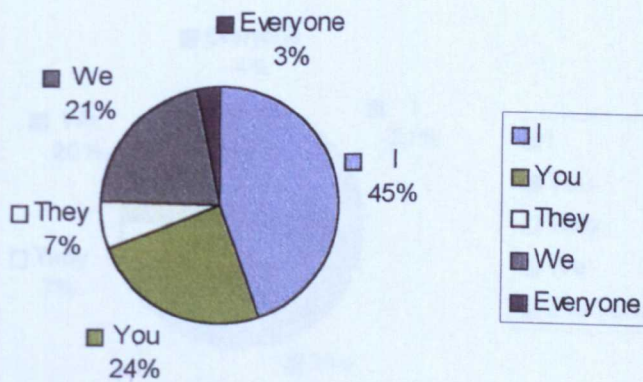
George's Lower Level Class Positions



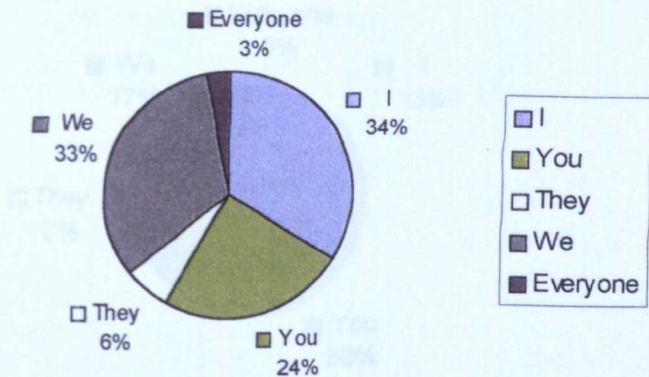
George's Upper Level Class Positions



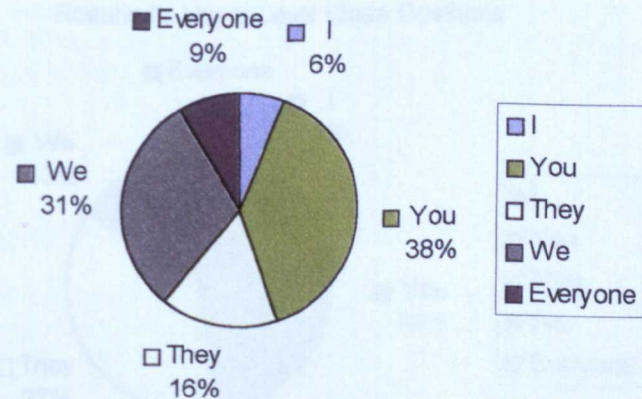
Loretta's Lower Level Class Positions



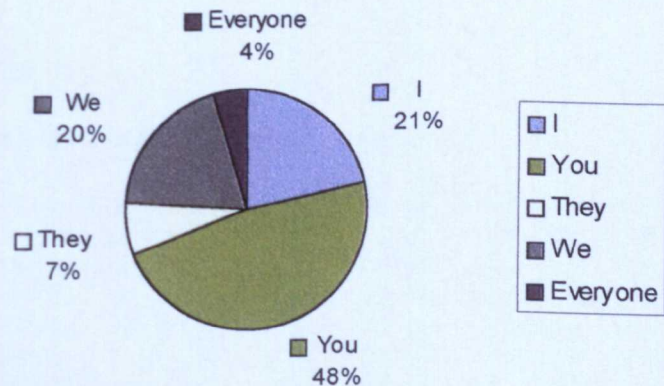
Loretta's Upper Level Class Positions



Natalie's Lower Level Class Positions



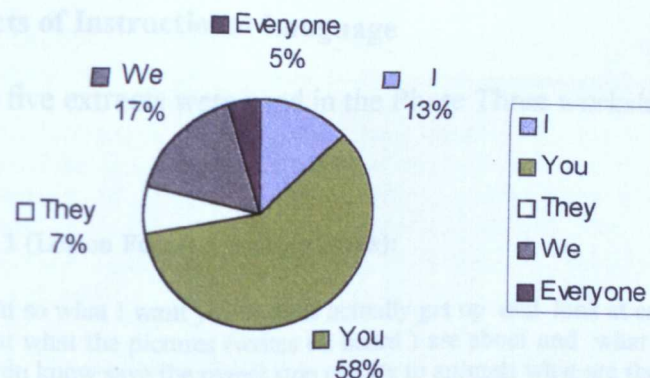
Natalie's Upper Level Class Positions



Rosalind's Lower Level Class Positions

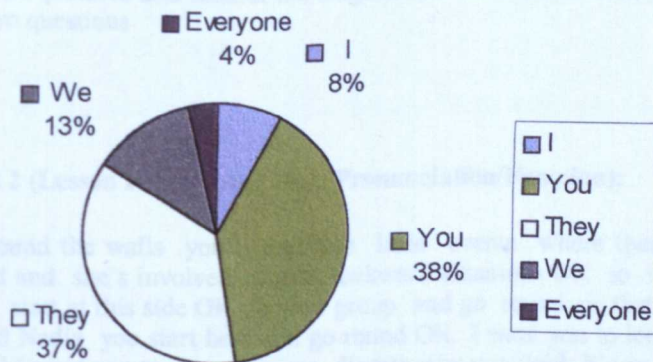
A pie chart titled "Rosalind's Lower Level Class Positions" showing the distribution of five categories. The categories and their percentages are: You (58%), I (13%), We (17%), They (7%), and Everyone (5%). A legend on the right side of the chart lists the categories with their corresponding colors: I (light blue), You (olive green), They (white), We (dark grey), and Everyone (dark brown).

Category	Percentage
You	58%
I	13%
We	17%
They	7%
Everyone	5%



Rosalind's Upper Level Class Positions

Category	Percentage
I	8%
You	38%
They	37%
We	13%
Everyone	4%



Appendix O

Extracts of Instructional Language

(These five extracts were used in the Phase Three workshop, see Chapter 8.)

Extract 1 (Lesson Focus: Speaking Skills):

OK right so what I want you to do is actually get up and look at each one and I want you to look at what the pictures (writes on board) are about and what are these called in the middle you know save the planet stop cruelty to animals what are these called do you know do you know the word for things like that (ST) slogan slogan so they are political slogans slogans slogans OK so and (writes on board) what do the slogans tell you are they (writes on board) for or against an issue yeah so the slogans when you look at the slogans do you think what do you think about what does it make you think about this against abortion is it for abortion yep that kind of thing there are some that are in the middle they're not quite that obvious OK so in twos with your partner go to the walls and look at them look at the pictures and look at the slogans and write down what you think according to those two questions

Extract 2 (Lesson Focus: Language, Pronunciation/Function):

OK around the walls you'll find five little events where there's a girl called Bella involved and she's involved in some awkward situations OK so would Nadia, Michelle and Jay start at this side OK in your group and go round go that way em Maria, Marc, Pam and Nadia you start here and go round OK I want you to look at what's happening here and I want you to do two things discuss why you think it's an awkward situation and what would you say in this situation if you were Bella OK so this is what you have to do in your groups OK so the first group start here and go round and then Nadia's group if you start here at the board and go round that way yeah OK if you'd like to get up

Extract 3 (Lesson Focus: Language, Vocabulary):

OK have we all seen one of these before and done one yep have you seen one of these before a crossword that's it a crossword and can you tell me then Francesca what do you do with a crossword what is the aim of a crossword (ST) that's it and how do you complete a line (ST) That's it you have to complete the blanks or the line using definitions which are given and that's what we're going to do today but first of all today we're going to have two groups so I'm going to give you each a letter either A or B so A B A B A B A B A B I would like all the A's in a moment to meet over here and all the B's congregate and meet over here all the A's now could you stand up and come over here and B's go over here please I know it's Friday morning but a bit more activity (Students move, 22 secs) OK so Have we got all the A's and B's together right OK

Extract 4 (Lesson Focus: Writing Skills):

OK Jo OK (ST) You're ready (ST) yep I'm going to give you all either did you notice how that em text was in two parts a question if you look at your sheet and answer OK going to give half of you questions with Q and I'm going to give the other half answers but they're different so when I give you your question your problem you're going to have to go around the group and find the person who has the answer to your problem OK does that make sense em for example if I gave Mel a question about Mel watches too much TV what should I do right she'd give me an answer about well I don't think you should watch too much TV it's bad for you OK (T hands out sheets, 37 secs) just read your problem to yourself OK now

Extract 5 (Lesson Focus: Listening Skills):

OK right what we want to do now is move onto exercise three OK it's the same tape this time we're going to again think about what numbers we can hear OK 'cos there's lots of information there (11 secs) OK so we're going to listen again and we're going to put these numbers at the bottom into the text let's just read them Vic how would you read that how would you say that (ST) can we say that (ST) Jo thousand (ST) good get that tongue thousand Winnie thousand (ST) good spit it out thousand (ST) good that's it OK em Key how do you say this figure how do we say that number (ST) no this one up a bit (ST) twenty pounds not one pound twenty pounds OK Wendy twenty pounds (ST) pounds (ST) good OK can we all say that (ST) OK Winnie what about this one there yep (ST) yep five hundred say it (ST) Wendy (ST) good OK em Frank what about the one above it yes (ST) fifteen (ST) 1572 ready (ST) good OK

Appendix P

Sample Lessons from the Classroom Assignment Extract

(The extract is reprinted from the appendix to Holly's assignment)

As with a lot of the areas of my teaching practice, instruction giving is something that I have been gradually improving upon over the past few weeks, but still remains something that I can work on. The lesson that I am going to analyse was recorded at the end of my second week of teaching and was presented to a large group of upper intermediate students, aged between about 16 and 28. Its focus was on reading and grammar (obligation). I shall analyse my instruction giving under various different categories, as highlighted below.

a) Focus

Out of about eleven main instructions in this lesson I think there is only one that doesn't start with a focus. Listening back to the lesson it seems that I use the words 'right' and 'so' equally (about 4 times each) and sometimes 'ok' (about twice). I don't believe that I ever consciously begin an instruction thinking 'now I need a focus' but automatically do it as a method of getting the class' attention. It does seem to have generally worked fine throughout this particular lesson although there were definitely a few times when raising my voice more would definitely have helped settle the class before going on to give the instruction.

b) Task Starters

Listening closely to this lesson reveals just how often I use the phrase 'if you could ..' as a task starter (about 12 times). At first I found this sounded quite polite but after a while it did sound very repetitive and not really very authoritative at all, unlike the instruction I had previously observed being given. The one time I stepped away from this groove and used 'I'd like you to ...' I found that I immediately sounded far more 'teacher-like' and in control. I realise now that although trying to be friendly to a class is all well and good (I believe this is what I was doing when using 'if you could ..'), it is far better to assume the teacher role and really lead a class in a task starter. It was also interesting to note that when I did use this alternative phrase, my instructions that followed were far more precise and succinct than any of the others in the lesson ('I'd like you to discuss what you feel children should and shouldn't do, so thinking about the article and what John Roseman thinks, talk about what you think now' – perhaps not first class but a good improvement on a lot of the other waffle I had so far achieved!). Perhaps the best instruction I gave also began with a task starter other than 'if you could', when I said 'now we're going to read the text again to get some more detail, and so if you could look at question five and it says: [I read the question aloud]'. Of course, as can be heard, I did have to stop mid flow here when I realised I had forgotten to get feedback from the previous task (!) but in comparison to my standard way of starting things off this was a nice change, and did make things sound more applicable to the class. However, I would be wary of using this type of phrase too much with this level. In a situation when we would actually do something all together as a class (for example when I said 'we can do this as a class' in reference to feeding back when I was involved) I think this is fine, but if I were to constantly say 'now we're going to do this' without doing anything myself, it could end up sounding slightly patronising.

c) Behaviour management

In general I do seem to be able to specify who exactly I want to do certain things. In this lesson I didn't actually start off all that well, with one student having to clarify 'In our table groups?', but from that point on I think I was more conscious of being clear in this area and every instruction from then on states either 'could you all', 'in pairs', 'as a class' or 'in your groups'. I also reiterate 'pair/group work' to ensure that the students are clear. I think this was the result of becoming aware of such setting up from my observations, as well as a more general awareness on my part of having the right people do the right thing.

d) Voice

Speaking slowly and clearly is perhaps my greatest weakness in teaching, despite having noted how important this is in setting up tasks. However, in this lesson I think I had definitely progressed in this area compared to earlier lessons, and I think that my instructions were well voiced and not too fast. Again it was in bringing the class together that I ran into a few problems, as my voice could have been much louder and assured. In all though I think this lesson proves that when I am focused I *can* speak clearly and at a good pace, although the pace of an upper intermediate class is of course closer to my natural rhythm!

e) Structuring

When asking students to skim read the relevant passage I did emphasise that they should 'read just for those two main ideas' which succeeded in focusing the students on exactly what they were supposed to be reading for. However, in general it seems what while I did pause during instruction giving, overall I was just saying fairly long sentences to the class: I don't think I said anything at all along the lines of 'the first thing to do is...' or 'there are two things I want you to do'. On reflection this seems to be an excellent way to make instructions more precise and less convoluted, as mine could certainly be at times. This is, however, something that I have been attempting to do in my more recent lessons, and I have noted the difference that it makes, so this is definitely something that I shall endeavour to do more in future.

f) Contextualising

I did contextualise instructions quite a few times in this lesson, explaining the background to the reading task (for example, 'this is a man called John Roseman and he thinks he's the ideal parent' or 'now we're going to read the text again to get some more detail'), however, I don't think I linked activities on in the most fluid of ways. It was only really in the very last instruction of the lesson that I highlighted how the task reflected an earlier activity, saying 'so like we did before, the food, the washing, the studying'. Although I think this was a good point, in future it might be an idea to try the approach of 'now you've done that, now do this' a bit more to make students feel that there is true flow to the lesson, and that each part is relevant.

g) Personalisation/humour

I'm not sure that I used much humour at all when giving instructions in this lesson, although I'm not entirely sure that it was needed here. I generally find that humour usually comes in more at feedback, and where I can see that humour may help to settle a class, it does depend on what sort of a task is being set! When attempting to be precise or when giving a complex instruction, I think it best that humour be left until later, or even better, to when it naturally arises! With regard to personalisation, I think I did try to make my instructions relevant to the students, especially my first one of the lesson, which was set in the context of students discussing their own family and home lives. Later on I also grouped the class specifically using everyone's name individually to make things clear and more personal.

h) Demonstration

Using the board when giving instructions was not really necessary in this particular lesson, and previous observations of this class had revealed that when given simple tasks to do, simply pointing out the relevant number and location of the task was often enough to set them on their way. Therefore to ask students to 'discuss numbers one and two in your groups' or 'look at the reading passage in number four' or 'turn over to number six, the grammar focus' often needed no extra example or demonstration. However, when we came to the controlled practice I read out an example for them before they started as this seemed appropriate to focus them on the task.

i) Setting Time Limits

I provided time limits for certain activities in this lesson as needed, informing students that 'I'll give you two or three minutes to do that' and 'we'll deed back on that in a few minutes'. Again this could probably have been done a few more times. Listening back to the times when I did use this technique, it was interesting to notice how the instruction overall did seem clearer as a result.

j) Recap

I think this is a bit of a grey area or me, as I did tend to recap to make things clear, but once or twice did so perhaps too much! At the beginning I think I recapped about three times as not all students seemed to be certain about what they were meant to be doing, and later on I think I overstated things again ('if you could all look at the reading passage', 'so again, if you could just read through that', 'so if you skim read for those two main ideas'). In this respect I think I showed that I was talking sometimes more than I was instructing, as though talking constantly would eventually get the instruction out in full! In future it would therefore be good to know pretty much exactly what I want to say before opening my mouth ... this was also possibly the case at the end when I set the task to 'decide on seven commandments' before realising that 'I don't think we'll have time to do seven ... maybe just three'. On the other hand, I think I had only literally become aware of the time as I was speaking, so this was perhaps more of an ad hoc decision than uncertain instructing.

k) Checking

At the start of the lesson I do think that I could have elicited back the task set to make sure students were clear on what they had to do, especially as, in being the first instruction of the lesson, it occurred at a point at which some students might not have been totally focused or listening properly. Aside from this I don't think I felt the need to 'check' too much as the students generally got going on the tasks set when I had finished speaking (or while I was still talking, they were so enthusiastic!) However, I did use the phrase 'OK?' at the end of a couple of the instructions that I gave. I have learned over the past few weeks that asking 'OK?' is not always the greatest way of checking that students understand instructions, and I could possibly have asked students instead of using this simple form of a check which may have gone unheeded by the class. I did, however, only use this term twice in the whole lesson, and I think it was used more as a marker that I had finished my piece, and not really as a means of checking with students. When I did say it I was also scanning the class to check that all students looked comfortable with what they had to do, keeping an eye out for any confused faces I do think that I should be asking students what they have to do more as a means of checking, but I do not think that it is necessary to do this more than once or twice in an upper intermediate lesson, or if students are indeed looking a bit baffled.

Appendix Q

Tasks for Teacher Education

It is envisaged that these tasks might form part of a series of workshops on Instructional Language, similar to the one described in Chapter 8. They are designed to address the Criteria listed as Fig. 4.10.1.

Task One, Interaction Patterns

Figure 7.14.1 shows the Global Interaction Patterns for Bernice's Lower Level Class, transcribed as Figure 7.6.1. There are no ST or STTS or S patterns here. How would you adapt Bernice's plan to include more of the six patterns available?

Task Two, Communicative, Task Based and Task Assisted Approaches

In her Lower Level Class (Fig. 5.2.1), Jane has an activity in which students describe paintings to each other in pairs. Since both students in each pair can see the same postcard, the activity would be characterised as pseudo-interaction in Willis' terms. Can you suggest a more genuinely *communicative* activity for this stage of the lesson?

Appendix R shows that Jane left out one of the planned stages in her Upper Level Class (Fig. 5.2.2). We have seen in Chapter 6 that form-focussed work can precede a task (Ellis calls this *task assisted* learning) or follow a task (as in Willis' *task based* learning framework). Where would you place it? What would be the effect of placing it elsewhere?

Task Three, Inner Moves

In her interview, Jane says about encouraging students to speak, '*I just try and reassure them ...I really try to encourage them and show that I'm understanding them even if they're not totally accurate*'. How does this attitude manifest itself in her Lower Level Class, transcribed as Figure 5.2.1?

Task Four, Instructional Language in Context

Figure 7.13.2 gives George's warm up to the material from Crace and Wileman (2002), Unit 13, Grammar Focus, p.29, reproduced overleaf. The Teacher's Notes, in full, are reproduced below. George's lesson uses Nos. 6, 7 and 8 of the material. With reference to the *methods grid* on p.296, which elements in this Unit would fit into an acceptable *lesson genre* in your context? What extra help would you give a Novice Teacher in deciding how to set up the tasks you choose?

Grammar Focus

6a: Refer students to the grammar box and ask volunteers to identify each tense.

A present simple B present continuous C present simple D present continuous

6b: Students complete the rules then check their answers in pairs. Go through the answers. Check that they understand that the verb tenses are present but the meaning is future.

- 1 present simple: Sentences A and C
- 2 present continuous: Sentences B and D

Practice

7: Ask students to look at the example. Elicit why the present simple is correct (because it is a timetabled event at the cinema or on TV). Students do the activity and check with a partner. Go through the answers.

- 1 finish 2 'm meeting 3 are you doing 4 starts 5 finishes
6 is coming 7 does your college course begin

Get talking

8: Make sure groups include students who are able to talk about the same river or city. If time, you could ask each group to make a poster advertising their trip.

Here is how George, with no prior teaching experience, puts these Teacher's notes into practice. Notice the *structuring* moves he makes and the accompanying *classroom discourse markers*. Are there any potentially *rapport-enhancing* elements that double here as management devices?

6a: So I'm going to continue now with the words in the box... OK so Lara would you read that first sentence...OK em does anybody know what tense that is ... the tour starts at 7.30 tomorrow ... Do you know which tense it is ... present simple ... It is present simple ... So I just want you to look ... it might be quite easy for you is present simple OK for you ... I just want you probably not very hard for you just to consider B,C and D ... say what tense they are ... OK

6b: OK so in pairs that'll be you two ... you're a three ... Laurence and Edi and er ... you're a pair ... I want you to look at em ... six ... Part One ... You see ... We use the present simple stroke present continuous when we talk about itineraries timetables and programmes ... We use the present simple or present continuous when we talk about more personal arrangements ... so you have to decide ... in which context you use them OK ... Discuss it in your pairs

7: OK going to go onto em exercise seven ... Laurence are you all right ... exercise seven and practise ... em ... you see the example sentence ... you have to complete the sentences using the correct form of present simple or present continuous ... Yeah .. Fabienne could you read out the example sentence ... Right so what tense is that what time does the film start ...present simple and ... can someone tell me why it's present simple ... because it's a timetable yeah if the film is starting at say seven it's a timetable it's not a personal arrangement .. so ... what I want you to do is work through exercise seven with your pair your partner and ... put in ... the correct form of the present simple present continuous ... OK so you're deciding which ... which it should be and fill it in for exercise seven ... going to give you five... six minutes for that

8: OK. Right I want to move onto number eight so ... in groups ... choose one of the following ideas for a day trip ... are we all on the same ... page ... it's either going to be a boat trip on the river .. or a walking tour around the city ... What I want you to do in groups is ... think about the itinerary ... the timetable ... the place that the tour visits how long the trip goes on. ..the start and finish times et cetera ... OK so ... with that you'll be writing ... in the present simple ... Part B is the personal arrangements things that people in your group are doing ... which are not included in the timetable ... OK ... so you're going to be writing this down ... but .. what we need to do is ... choose a place ... so I'm going to try and put you in groups who've been to the same place

APPROACH OR METHOD	LESSON CONTENT AND FOCUS	CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES	TEACHER ROLE	INTERACTION PATTERNS
1. Grammar Translation	Literature, written language	Grammar and vocabulary exercises, translation, memorisation, reading comprehension	Authority figure, uses deductive methods	Teacher to students
2. Direct Method	Situations or topics of cultural interest, spoken and written language	Oral communication through target language only, conversation, dictation, information transfer	Controlling role, uses inductive methods, students participate actively	Teacher to students and students to teacher, but under teacher's direction – students need to learn how to ask questions
3. Audio-lingual Method	Language systems, presented orally, graded in difficulty, everyday cultural information	Language presented in context, pattern drills of various kinds, dialogues, grammar games, oral/aural skills emphasised	Controller and Model of the target language, uses inductive methods, helps students to overlearn language patterns	Teacher to students and students to students but under teacher's directions
4. Communicative Language Teaching	Language in authentic context, skills as well as systems focus, appropriacy of language use, communication as process, language above sentence level, written and spoken language	Games, authentic texts, jumbled texts, roleplay and discussion	Communicator, provider and facilitator of opportunities to communicate, provider of information on meaning, form and function	Teacher to students, students to teacher, students to students in pairs and groups, teacher often does not participate in interaction
5. Learner Centred and Learner Training Approaches	Ways of learning, student generated content, language for academic and social purposes	Projects, information on how to learn language systems and skills, student generated material	Teacher of both language and learning, social engineer, incorporator of students' needs and wants into content of instruction, provider of material to suit individual students' learning styles and strategies	Predominantly student to student in groups, leadership role distributed amongst class and teacher

Task Five, Instructional Language, Setting up a Communication Game

Unit 6 of Cunningham and Moor (2001) includes an optional communication game, printed in the accompanying Teacher's Resource Book, p.140, reproduced overleaf. The Teacher's Notes, reprinted in full, are as follows:

You will need: one copy of the board per three or four students; one dice and three/four counters per group. Put students into groups of three or four. Give each group a board, counters and dice. If one student has a watch with a second hand, make him/her the timekeeper. Students take it in turns to throw a number. When they land on a future square, they have to talk about the topic or question for twenty seconds without stopping. With a less confident class, you can allow students twenty seconds' thinking time before speaking. If a student can't think of anything to say, or stops talking before the twenty seconds are up, then he/she has to move back to his/her previous square. The student who reaches the *Finish* square first is the winner.

How would you go about setting up this game in the classroom? How would you break down the instructions? Practise instructing your peers. Now look at how Loretta sets up the same game in her Lower Level Class. How did your ideas compare with hers? The whole of this extract is delivered in TS pattern, i.e. with no student input at all, up until the point at which it ends. How does Loretta combine *head* and *heart* in her *instructing*?

OK what we're going to do now is ... play a game ... to practise ... what we've been learning today ... practising ... so what we're going to do first of all ... is learn the rules so ... will you ... stand here cos we need a board ... here so ... and yes do you three want to sit here so come round here ... and ... yeah do you three want to sit here cos we're going to play a board game and ... you four as well do you want to come round here ... please just sit straight on the table sit on there ... OK ... so I'll hand out the board and ... you'll need a dice ... and ... some counters ... OK .. and someone needs to have a watch ... have a watch .. in your group ... OK OK does everyone want to turn over their ... piece of paper ... and just look ... at these for a minute turn over the paper... OK .. what we're going to do is practising talking about the future ... the different forms we use ... OK ... and all we do ... is follow the board ... clockwards ... follow the numbers one two three four and say you shake the dice whoever lands on ... whatever square so say I shake four right ... so one two three four ... something you'd like to buy ... OK... so ... I land on that ... someone starts to time me ... and I can talk about something I'd like to buy for twenty seconds ... yes ... so for example .. OK something I'd like to buy ... I'd like to buy a plane ticket to Australia ... to see my auntie ... because ... I don't see her very often ... and ... I cant' afford it but I would like to buy it if I could buy it ... I would buy it and ... I've got ... she's got two children a cousin and yeah two cousins .. Fiona and Paul ... and they're both twenty five years old I think ... and ..if I went I'd see those ... OK ... so I've spoken for about twenty seconds on that ... and I want you to really try to talk for twenty seconds about these things and ... if someone dries up say like Manuel would say how old is your auntie or ... what's her name ...yeah ... OK ... So does everyone know ... roughly what we're doing ... yes ... em Katie can you just tell me what the rules of the game are

Appendix R

Sample Lesson Plans

These plans relate to Jane's Lower Level Class (see Fig. 5.2.1), Jane's Upper Level Class (see Fig. 5.2.2) and Bernice's Lower Level Class (see Fig. 7.6.1), respectively. The original plans listed timing and interaction. Since this information is available elsewhere in this thesis (see Appendices I and N), only the columns headed *Stage* and *Procedure* are reprinted here. The commentaries below are taken from Tutor feedback on each lesson. Elements from the plans discussed in Chapter 8 are asterisked (*):

Commentary on Jane's Lower Level Class, Supervised by Tutor 1

Excellent planning. Your aims could be briefly bullet pointed*. You have used Harmer's ESA to label your stages*. Remember that 'study' refers to the first encounter with new language, when aspects of form are the focus. 'Activate' cannot happen until 'study' has been completed, except where the language is not new. I've altered a few labels – do you agree? Very good elicitation of prepositions. You made sure that the students knew what to say. You also elicited vocabulary well and used the language yourself that you had taught. I felt you needed to give them a couple of texts to take away – a couple of descriptions of paintings using prepositions of place and mood adjectives, for reference. I think we lacked a sense of bringing all the strands together. Perhaps a written task for consolidation?

Commentary on Jane's Upper Level Class, Supervised by Tutor 2

Good lesson plan but students should not be simply discussing* – you need a language point or function - aims were to practise question forms and extend vocabulary. First 'engage' stage good but make sure they understand unusual vocabulary ('spontaneous') The brainstorming didn't produce very much discussion. There wasn't an obvious link between this and the giving out of cue cards stage. The communication activity worked very well and students were engaged and using the vocabulary. Your third 'study' activity was not done. This is really the important part of the lesson as question formation is difficult and students need to be reminded of the forms. To work on: error correction and putting in some real learning as well as practice.

Commentary on Bernice's Lower Level Class, Supervised by Tutor 3

Interesting and communicative lesson. Detailed lesson plan with appropriate lesson aims, logical staging, variety of interaction. (Watch stage aims - for you or students?*) Good use of overhead projector, separate handouts to 'lift activity off the page', realia on holidays. The mingler worked beautifully both as a warmer and a natural way to integrate latecomers. Some words on handout needed pre-teaching ('accommodation'). Pairs well monitored. Speaking up and bringing pair work to the centre were also in place today – very well done. To work on: consider vocabulary that may need to be pre-taught at this level.

Jane's Lower Level Class

Lesson Aims: To elicit prepositions from the students by using objects such as a book and a pen to demonstrate. Also to look at paintings by several artists and to encourage the students to describe them, in addition to encourage the students to describe how the pictures make them feel, recapping some of the adjectives covered in the previous lesson.

Materials: Objects such as a book, pen, bottle, etc. Postcards of paintings such as Manet's 'A bar at the Folies-Bergere', Renoir's 'Luncheon of the Boating Party' and 'Hillside path through tall grass', Van Gogh's 'La maison jaune'.

STAGE AND STAGE AIM	PROCEDURE
Engage Warm up SS for speaking practice	Engage SS in conversation about their weekend
Introduce topic	T introduces prepositions. Present objects, book, pen, etc.
Activate* Elicit prepositions from SS by asking questions, perhaps nominating SS if reluctant to speak	Position objects and ask 'Where is the book?' etc. Encourage SS to answer using prepositions. Prompt SS if have difficulty. Introduce new ones: on, under, next to, between, in front of, behind, above, below, right, left hand side, top, bottom
Activate SS work in pairs, asking similar questions using objects of their choice	T instructs SS to work in pairs of small groups for 5 minutes to ask each other questions. T monitors and supports SS
Activate Recap prepositions to confirm comprehension	Recap prepositions using same method as started with
Study Describe painting	Using Manet's painting, ask SS to describe 'Where is the woman, the flowers, the orange', etc. 'What is in the top left hand corner', etc.
Study Introduce background/foreground. Check by asking a series of questions	T asks 'What is behind the woman?' Write background on board in phonemic script. Test comprehension. Do same with foreground.
Study* SS describe pictures in pairs, practice of language	T distributes postcards of paintings, ask SS to work in pairs or small groups for 5 minutes. Ask SS to describe paintings. T monitors.
Activate SS describe how paintings make them feel. Recap adjectives.	As SS 'Do you think the woman is sad or happy?', etc. Discuss the SS feelings towards paintings

Jane's Upper Level Class

Lesson Aims: To discuss the subject of interests and hobbies*. Allow the students to practise discussing with others their interests and hobbies. Practise asking others what interests and hobbies they have.

Materials: Cue cards (Hadfield, J. Advanced Communication Games), paper, felt tip pens, overhead transparencies of brainstorm definition, of cue cards, of Perfect Partner questionnaire (Lewis, M. and Hill, J., Sourcebook for Teaching English as a Foreign Language)

STAGE AND STAGE AIM	PROCEDURE
Engage*	T asks SS what they did during the weekend. T explains that this is today's topic – leisure
Study	T hands out felt tip pen and places a large piece of paper in middle of table. T asks if anyone knows what 'brainstorm' is. If not T explains. T draws example on the board and shows overhead transparency with dictionary definition
Activate	T asks one S to write Leisure in the middle of the piece of paper. T encourages each S to write ideas.
Study	T gives each S a cue card (Hadfield Advanced Communication Games) with 5 examples of Christmas presents. T shows overhead transparency of all cue cards. T asks SS to name each item. Explain unknown vocabulary, asking other SS if they can explain to others. T explains have to find the right person to give the presents
Study*	T asks what type of question would you ask someone to find out about his/her interests. T writes questions on board and shows prepared overhead transparency
Activate	Ss walk around the class asking questions to find out interests
Activate	Discuss briefly which presents each S would give
Activate	T hands out Perfect Partner questionnaire (Lewis and Hill) and shows transparency. SS look at problem vocabulary. SS fill in form individually. Discuss form.

Bernice's Lower Class

Lesson Aims: To briefly revise present continuous/present simple using new topic area; to practise speaking, listening and fluency skills using the topic area of holidays; to briefly revise cardinal numbers

Materials: Tutor's realia, overhead transparency, Cutting Edge Pre-Intermediate Module 6 with some modifications

STAGE AND STAGE AIM	PROCEDURE
Introduction	Mingling exercise to energise students. 'What do you like most and least about England'. Brief feedback.
To set the scene* for the lesson and activate the schemata	Show students the realia and ask them what they think we will be talking about this morning. Give personal example, 'I usually go on holiday to Mallorca, but this year I'm going to Ireland'.
To practise speaking* in the present continuous and present simple using 'holiday' topic	Ask some students where they normally go on holiday. Student A asks Student B, B asks C, etc. Ask a couple of students, 'What's important to you about a holiday?'
To practise speaking and listening and to develop fluency, whilst talking about their experience of a holiday and what makes or a good holiday	In pairs (mixed nationality) students tell their partner about the last holiday they went on and then do modified version of exercise 1a Module 6 p.49. Ask partner to choose the 2 most important features from the list. Monitor pairwork. Ask for feedback from 2/3 students. T notes down most important factors and puts class results on overhead. T asks 'What's the most important feature for this class?'
To revise/reinforce cardinal numbers from last week	Reinforce, factor X came first, 'What came 2 nd , 3 rd , etc.
To correct errors whilst not inhibiting fluency	Write up any common errors from pairwork onto board, ask students to correct
Filler: further speaking practice	Put students into multilingual groups, each to describe one picture. Exercise 1b. Monitor, and correct in plenary

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