

Teachers' Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output

Leticia Vicente-Rasoamalala

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**TEACHERS' REACTIONS TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNER
OUTPUT**

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Thesis to obtain the degree of Doctor in English Philology

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Years 1996-98

Dedicated to my parents Jeanne Esther & Eduardo and my sister Mónica

Beginning is easy - Continuing is hard
Japanese Proverb

Nothing is so difficult that diligence cannot master it
Malagasy Proverb

ABSTRACT

The general objective of the dissertation is to develop a better understanding of one recurrent practice in formal FL instruction: how teachers react to FL learner output in classroom oral interactions. To this end, the formal features and phenomena involved in Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs) are addressed. 'Teacher reactions' refer to any instructional strategies that handle learner oral productions. In traditional SLA research, this teacher practice has been conceptually examined under the rubric of 'corrective feedback'. This thesis covers multidisciplinary theoretical and methodological approaches related to TREs. Video data collected from a case study of two Senegalese international schools illustrate the differential effects of teacher reactions on FL learner uptake. Through corpus-based evidence from three immersion settings, an attempt is made to discover conditions and means for felicitous TREs in acquisitional terms. Learners receiving metalinguistic feedback appear to generate more uptake than those receiving recasts.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AECI	Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AVI	Audio Video Interleave
CA	Conversation Analysis
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
Cat	Catalan
CD	Compact Disc
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
CHILDES	Child Language Data Exchange System
CLIL	Content Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
DA	Discourse Analysis
DTRE	Disregard Teacher Reactive Episode
DV	Digital Video
EA	Error Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
F	Feedback
FI	Formal instruction
FL	Foreign Language
FoF	Focus on Form
Fr	French
IB	International Baccalaureate
IE	Interaction Enhancement
IL	Interlanguage
IRE	Initiation /Response/Evaluation
IRF	Initiation /Response/Feedback
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
L3	Third Language
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
LSD	Least Significant Difference
MPEG	Moving Pictures Experts Group
NF	Negative feedback
NNS	Non Native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
OE	Output Enhancement
PC	Personal Computer
RQ	Research Question
S	Student
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
Sp	Spanish
T	Teacher
TCU	Turn Constructional Units
TL	Target Language
TR	Teacher Reaction
TRE	Teacher Reaction Episode
TRP	Transition-Relevance Place
UG	Universal Grammar
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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Introduction

Foreign language (FL) classrooms are traditionally characterised by the role that teachers assume: they are considered to be the people responsible for teaching. By this understanding, a series of theoretical and practical educational studies have suggested that learners need teacher assistance to progress in their learning. Therefore, a considerable amount of language classroom research has been concerned with the study of teacher activities, especially those focusing on their instructional methods.

In an attempt to contribute to this research area, the general objective of the present dissertation is to give more insight into one recurrent teacher practice in foreign language classrooms: how teachers react to FL learner output¹ in classroom oral interactions.

In the very first part of the dissertation, we introduce:

- i. the motivation for writing the thesis
- ii. the delimitation of the study
- iii. its structural organisation

0.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE DISSERTATION

To a greater extent, the choice of teacher reactions to FL learner output as the main subject of the dissertation stems from a personal and professional concern, which is: *'Do the teachers provide useful input for learners, and if so, how?'*

In particular, my long experience as a FL student and 15-year experience as a FL language teacher has made me reflect about how formal instruction and specifically 'teacher feedback' might contribute to language learning.

¹ The term 'learner output' covers the whole range of oral and written learner actions or productions.

Thinking back to the way I have learnt foreign languages, I realised that teacher reactions to learner output may be a useful means for FL learners to know for instance whether their target language productions or output might be correct or incorrect. With the intent to highlight the previous research related to ‘teacher reactions to FL learner output’, an extensive literature review of this topic has been undertaken.

Initial studies into teacher reactions have focused on ‘learner error treatment’ (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1988; Dekeyser, 1993; Lamy, 1983). In addition, a significant number of authors dealing with FL acquisition issues have been using the following Hendrickson questions (1978: 389) as starting points for their investigations:

- 1) *“Learner errors should be corrected?”*
- 2) *“When learner errors should be corrected?”*
- 3) *“Which errors must be corrected?”*
- 4) *“How errors should be corrected?”*
- 5) *“Who should correct errors?”*

Thirty years later answering these questions is still intricate. Distinctively, a number of authors have proposed various types and modes of delivering linguistic error correction.

Since the 1990s, a number of studies that adopt a variety of theoretical and methodological perspectives have postulated that oral and written teacher feedback under the forms of error correction might be key factors for FL learner acquisition (Chaudron, 1984; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Donato & McCormick, 1994; Floc, 1995; Koshik, 2002; Lightbown & Spada, 1991; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Different domains have examined teacher reactions to learner errors by employing originally distinct terminology according to the research field or the scholar’s personal preferences:

- i. ‘error treatment’ for early classroom discourse analysts
- ii. ‘corrective feedback’ for education professionals and linguists
- iii. ‘negative evidence’ for L1 acquisition mentalist psychologists and linguists
- iv. ‘negative feedback’ for some groups of L1 and L2 psychologists and linguists

- v. 'teacher repair' for discourse analyst linguists and conversationalists
- vi. 'focus on form' for a group of SLA social interactionist researchers

Nevertheless, these terms are, in the present day, intermixed with studies framed within distinct methodological approaches.

Specifically, we adopt the term 'teacher reaction' that comprises all the teacher strategies that handle FL learner oral productions in the present dissertation. That is, the ones providing 'positive feedback', 'negative feedback' or which might disregard or ignore inaccurate FL learner productions. However, in the present study we will more thoroughly examine: i) the immediate teacher moves that ensued from inaccurate FL learner productions and ii) the subsequent learner uptake forms.

0.2 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

In order to study "Teachers' Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output", we have delimited specific objectives such as:

- 1) To review specialised literature on teacher reactions regarding: i) general and specific components comprising Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs), ii) the features surrounding these instructional moves, iii) their potential benefits for FL learner acquisition and iv) the methodological frameworks previously used to examine the main theme of the dissertation.
- 2) To illustrate and analyse teacher reactions to FL learner output empirically. The general target is to precise the frequency distribution of the teacher and student moves in TREs and their potential effects in FL learner acquisition.

Overall, the present dissertation attempts to address the formal features and phenomena involved in 'Teacher Reaction Episodes'. Nevertheless, we should stress that this study does not only exclusively deal with teacher reaction types but also comprises the examination of:

- i. the ways in which instructors deal with learner deviant forms while providing negative feedback
- ii. the phenomena surrounding TREs in classroom interaction

iii. their potential effects on FL learners

When I set about the initial stages of this dissertation, teacher reaction practices to FL learner output were equated to the notion of ‘error treatment’ or ‘negative corrective feedback’ in the majority of SLA studies. In particular, the most common tendency has been categorising TREs as patterned sequences embodied in systematised models or taxonomies regarding teacher corrective strategies (Chaudron, 1988). On the other hand, linguistic feedback research had been scarce during the 1980s and 1990s since Mentalism was the more dominant view in language acquisition studies. Hence, external social environment factors were deemed to be irrelevant in foreign language acquisition and, therefore, less examined. In that period, a significant part of linguistic studies focused on language acquisition as an abstract concept. For these reasons, starting the dissertation was complicated since the bulk of SLA studies did not consider my area of enquiry and methodologically novel tools such as video recording for creating expository accounts of classroom phenomena. Nevertheless, there has been a shift in SLA research focus since the last decade.

In general, ‘implicit teacher feedback forms’ are being particularly examined vis-à-vis their overall potential in SLA. This issue is stirring a debate about the teacher feedback functions in L1 and L2 acquisition research. Diverse studies conclude that these teacher strategies might potentially trigger learner cognitive development or attract learner attention to their own mistakes. Progressively, the topic of feedback provision has expanded until becoming one active foreign language research area today in which the social nature of linguistic acquisition is taken into account.

In order to exemplify the teacher reactions phenomena, the empirical backbone of the present dissertation is an observational study of teacher reactions to foreign language learner oral faulty productions in two bilingual international schools (one primary school and one secondary school) located in a Third World country.

Being reared myself bilingually in French and Spanish by my parents and having attended one international French school in Spain, FL immersion instruction at bilingual schools is personally for me more appealing as a site of research. In addition, a number of studies suggest that the immersion context is potentially more advantageous for FL learning as more interaction might take place (Carlson & Cole, 1994; Swain,

1985). Hence, seizing the opportunity of the stay in Senegal as a visiting lecturer by the AECI (Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional) at the University Cheikh Anta Diop of Dakar, I contacted several mainstream and international schools in the capital of Senegal to carry out the descriptive study included in the dissertation.

Two international schools which matched the research design requirement of classroom interaction kindly accepted to collaborate in the study. The most challenging aspect for teachers working in such international schools is that their students might have differing proficiency levels of the languages they teach. In the Senegalese international schools, the student body consists of individuals with varied personal and educational backgrounds. A large group are privileged learners that benefit from unusual multicultural and multilingual experiences due to their parents' socioeconomic situations. In most cases, using a foreign language is natural to learners attending these schools since they might have likely chances to meet foreign people, travel or even study abroad.

In addition, teachers instructing in international schools are ideally more compelled to adjust to the learner needs of their students and assisting them in developing functional skills in the languages used in their institution. Commonly, these special schools also offer foreign language exposure through content subjects (for instance, science, history or maths areas) or CLIL (Content Language Integrated Learning) activities.

Another distinctive feature in this educational context is that a significant group of learners intend to obtain one certificate of a foreign country national curriculum that the school also offers, the International Baccalaureate (IB), or expect to apply to foreign universities in the future. For these reasons, students' parents and the school administrators force teachers to increase student performance in the target languages.

Specifically, the study has examined the video recordings collected in three different immersion educational settings at two schools which involve different levels and languages:

- i. Advanced English immersion (Years 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) at the primary school
- ii. Intermediate English immersion (Years 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) at the primary school
- iii. Spanish as L3 immersion (Years 9 and 10) at the secondary school

The database analysed comprises the episodes involving teachers reacting to inaccurate FL learner productions. Learner inaccurate productions act as natural prompts for teacher reactions (i.e., the main theme of the present dissertation), which range from positive or negative feedback and moves disregarding learner previous utterances. The general goal has been to identify some recurrent verbal and non-verbal behaviours that teachers exhibit in three main educational settings examining distinct databases. Subsequently, these types of teacher behaviour have been categorised and analysed according to their forms, functions, and potential to aid students by adopting one interdisciplinary methodology of analysis. The underlying aim of this study is to highlight certain teaching features that seem to potentially 'facilitate' learner self-repair.

In order to get a more global insight in this specific teacher practice activity, the empirical part of this study is completed by a triangulation of data that involves the researcher, the teachers and the learners participating views of the study.

Hopefully, theories and findings of the dissertation endeavour to match the present-day debate on verbal and non-verbal teacher feedback and how they achieve meaningfully this institutional aim in making learners participate actively in the classroom, and their effects on potential uptake.

0.3 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

The examination of TREs will be organised as follows in two main parts:

PART I (Chapters 1-4) puts the main theme of the dissertation in perspective by synthesising the general conceptual multidisciplinary framework of the study. It introduces the literature review regarding theories and research approaches done so far regarding teacher reactions to foreign language learner output. Specifically, this part is structured as follows:

- Chapter 1 defines the crucial terminology included in the title of the dissertation and contextualises the study within the SLA theoretical framework.

- Chapter 2 considers the sociocultural or the Neo-Vygotskian perspective as one alternative novel psychological perspective for describing and explaining Teacher Reaction Episodes.
- Chapter 3 reviews how various approaches have analysed teacher and student SLA classroom interactions. We cover the initial systems of classroom discourse studies, the ethnography of the speech, Discourse Analysis (DA) and Conversation Analysis (CA) approaches.
- Chapter 4 presents diachronically and synchronically the teacher reaction specific features in the light of learner error and feedback studies.

PART II (Chapters 5-8) exposes the empirical study carried out to display the teacher reaction phenomena through the following chapters:

- Chapter 5 encapsulates the statement of purpose, together with the research questions, the theoretical motivations, the research objectives and the underlying hypotheses.
- Chapter 6 describes the study methodology which is based on the observation of 3 language teachers in two private Senegalese international bilingual schools interacting with their students in their FL immersion classrooms. It delineates the general characteristics of the site presenting the macro- (the country Senegal) and the micro- (specific data regarding the classrooms examined) features, the sociological facts, the participants' data (i.e., the teachers and the students), facts of data collection and analyses.
- Chapter 7 portrays the results of the study implemented to analyse the videorecorded database which include Teacher Reaction Episodes and correlations with previous study outcomes.
- Chapter 8 provides a brief summary of the dissertation, the conclusions, the practical implications and the recommendations for future research.

In summary, this dissertation attempts to present research related to TREs by outlining multidisciplinary approaches and illustrating one study taking place in differentiated educational immersion settings.

PART I

The General Conceptual Framework

Chapter 1

TEACHER REACTIONS AND SLA THEORY

This introductory chapter situates the topic of “Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output” within the SLA theoretical framework. We will clarify some essential concepts involved in ‘Teacher Reaction Episodes’ (TREs) such as: i) teacher reactions, ii) responses, iii) feedback and iv) foreign language learner output.

Next, we will elucidate that the notion of ‘teacher reaction’ goes beyond the traditional equation for ‘error treatment’. Namely, those didactic reactions intervening in ‘Foreign Language Learner Output’ cover: i) negative feedback, ii) positive feedback and iii) disregard.

In addition, teacher reactions can be manifested ‘multidimensionally’ (i.e., verbal and non-verbal components take place) as in any face-to-face interaction (Beattie & Shovelton, 2000; Birdwhistell, 1970; Blanco Santos, 1997; Kendon, 1970, 2004; Malandro et al., 1989; McNeill, 1992, 2005; Mehrabian, 1971, 1972; Napier, 1993; Patterson, 1983; Scherer, 1980). Nevertheless, the non-linguistic components have not been yet comprehensively examined in most SLA studies (Gullberg, 2006a; Kellerman, 1992).

Finally, we will introduce relevant Input and Output SLA theories underpinning the main theme of the present dissertation.

1.1 AN OVERVIEW OF THE AREA

Over several decades, there has existed a long-standing controversy in SLA theories surrounding the roles of formal instruction and error treatment in foreign language acquisition. The main theoretical approaches related to it are the following:

- 1) Learners acquire an L2 through subconscious processes, where teaching interventions are unnecessary and detrimental for acquisition (Krashen, 1981, 1985; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Prabhu, 1987; Terrell, 1991).
- 2) Input provision (including teacher interventions) might i) influence SLA (White, 1989) and/or ii) facilitate learner conscious attention to form (Schmidt, 1990, 2001).
- 3) Output is necessary for testing hypothesis about comprehensibility or linguistic well-formedness (Swain, 1993).
- 4) Learners acquire and frame a foreign language in socio-interactional contexts (Long, 1991).

The abovementioned views had an overwhelming influence on the studies dealing with “Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output” and the teaching approaches that derived from it.

In particular, during the 1970s and the late 1980s the first approach led to the mitigation of the possibility that learning a language might be a social activity. Consequently, the major focus of attention in SLA for many years has been on the internal learner mechanisms for acquiring languages (Seedhouse, 2004b). Nonetheless, since the 1960s and early 1970s, classroom discourse research (including FL contexts) has experienced a great boom (Christie, 2002) and new views on this issue have been put forward, as we will examine in Chapter 4.

During the 1990s, there appeared a growing interest in reconsidering the role of the external environment in FL acquisition (Bachmann et al., 1991; Collier, 1995; Consolo, 2006; Eisenhart, 2001; Gardner & Wagner, 2004; Giacobbe, 1992; Johnson, 2004; Muñoz, 2000; Tusón, 2003; Wong Fillmore, 1991). This new SLA model views language acquisition as a social activity developing in interaction.

Notably, a number of SLA studies suggest that teacher feedback provided during interaction might facilitate noticing, acquisition and retention of L2 forms (Iwashita, 2003; Leow, 1997; Mackey, 1999; Mackey & Philp, 1998; McDonough, 2005; Oliver & Mackey, 2003). Such conversational feedback might create meaningful possibilities for the learners to modify their output. Eventually, such actions might help learners become aware of their interlanguage gaps. By this understanding, making errors might

be potentially crucial for developing learner competence. Consequently, an empirical SLA research trend has taken shape and has been labelled the 'Reactive Negative Evidence' (Carroll et al., 1992; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis et al., 2001a; Long et al., 1998; Oliver, 2000). We will also consider this empirical approach minutely in Chapter 4.

Against this background, it is assumed that teacher reactions to FL learner output might facilitate language acquisition in FL classroom conversational interaction. For the time being, the SLA approaches presented in this chapter have not yet provided any conclusive results. On-going and growing research is shedding light on the area to which the present dissertation seeks to contribute.

1.2 DEFINITION OF TERMS: TEACHER REACTION, RESPONSE AND FEEDBACK

We believe that it is worth clarifying the terminology used in the present study since some concepts might seem blurred in the SLA field, and some labels misleading. Firstly, the notion of "Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output" is more attuned to the term 'retroaction'. This refers to the variety of teacher feedback actions triggered by foreign language learner deviant output (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Subsequently, we will define 'teacher reaction' in relation to:

- i. the original notion of Bellack et al. (1966)
- ii. its differences with the term 'response'
- iii. its similarities with 'feedback'

1.2.1 Teacher Reaction original notion

'Teacher Reaction' (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998) is based on the term 'react' that is offered in the classical description of classroom discourse patterns by Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman and Smith (1966). Those scholars found that turn-taking in classroom interaction followed a basic pattern of consecutive moves as shown in Figure 1.1 and Table 1.1.

Fig. 1.1 *Classical description of classroom discourse patterns*

1. **Structure** ⇒ 2. **Solicit** ⇒ 3. **Respond** ⇒ 4. **React**

Example 1.1

T: OK. Now. A conductor. [**Structure**] Pedro, what's a conductor? [**Solicit**]

S: A conductor is the person who is boss in the em (inaudible) for example, in music. [**Responding**]

T: OK. [**Reacting**]

(Allwright & Bailey, 1991: 86)

In addition, 'reaction' has also been employed in subsequent linguistic works to refer to teacher or native speaker assessments of learners' written (Santos, 1988) and oral errors mostly in experimental settings (Albrechtsen et al., 1980; Chastain, 1980; Eisenstein, 1983; Lambert et al., 1960).

Table 1.1 Bellack et al.'s (1966) turn-taking moves

BELLACK ET AL.'S TURN-TAKING MOVES	
MOVE	DESCRIPTIONS
1. Structure	The teacher structures or sets the context for a topic.
2. Solicit	The teacher directly solicits or elicits from the student verbal, physical, or mental responses.
3. Respond	The student usually responds fulfilling the expectations of the soliciting move.
4. React	The teacher reacts to what the student has said in a preceding move, providing a positive or negative assessment.

Significantly, the last three moves in Bellack et al.'s description almost coincide with the classical classroom turn-taking model proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). This latter might correspond to the prototypical 'Teacher Reaction Episodes' (TREs) incorporating learners' utterances (see Chapters 3 and 6).

Sinclair and Coulthard's model has been traditionally labelled as the 'IRF' exchange structure (see Figure 1.2). In this paradigm, there is first i) teacher initiation, next ii) a student response, and finally iii) teacher feedback to the previous response.

Fig. 1.2 Sinclair & Coulthard's IRF exchange structure (1975)

1. (Teacher) **Initiation** → 2. (Learner) **Response** → 3. (Teacher) **Feedback**

The term 'react' in Bellack et al.'s (op.cit.) model is a better fit for the present study, as 'interaction' is viewed as a succession of mutual relationships: "Questions are asked to be answered; assignments are made to be carried out and explanations are made to be understood" (p. 2).

A behaviourist perspective influenced this IRF view of classroom interaction based on a 'stimulus-response pattern' (Ferster & Skinner, 1957). According to this version of events, classroom interaction has been traditionally viewed as containing highly fixed patterns of behaviour governed by rules (Stubbs, 1983). In addition, the long-established model has closely mirrored the strict teacher controlled mechanical styles of classroom communication in teacher-fronted instruction².

Currently some studies prove higher variation and comprehensibility of teacher moves in the FL classroom context (Van Lier, 1988). Moves might range from three-part exchanges to larger complex ones. Furthermore, it seems to be the case that sequences involving teacher reactions to foreign language learner output are unpredictable, contrary to what traditionally most classroom discourse studies have stated. Evidence concerning this matter will be presented in the following chapters.

1.2.2 Reaction vs. Response

In a large number of linguistic acquisition studies, the term 'response' has been used indistinctively instead of the notion of 'teacher reaction' (Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988; Chaudron, 1977; Ferris, 1995; Jarvis & Robinson, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998).

The notion of 'response' has also prevailed in SLA studies possibly due to the initial experimental research focus on this issue. In these studies, native speakers assess (or 'respond to') tape scripts containing foreign language learner utterances (see Chapter 4). Additionally, studies related to CALL³ issues have lately been using this term in a similar sense (Hamzah, 2004). However, there are grounded reasons that have led us to opt for the term 'reaction' rather than for 'response':

- i. Firstly, etymologically, 'response' comes from the Latin "responsum", which bears the meaning of 'answer'. Looked at in this way, the term 'response' as a synonym of 'teacher reaction' is not quite accurate. Some studies have reported that teachers might keep silent or occasionally skip feedback after a student intervention in the FL classroom context (Chaudron, 1988). Therefore, the

² In the present day, this classroom pattern is still prevalent in some non-Western cultures such as those of East Asia.

³ Computer Assisted Language Learning software.

teacher does not always 'respond' to learner output in foreign language classroom interaction. Hence the term 'reaction' seems to better characterise the teacher behavioural range of modifications vis-à-vis foreign language output.

- ii. Second, a number of SL studies have traditionally adopted Bellack et al.'s (1966) description of classroom discourse (Chaudron, 1988) (see Chapters 3 and 4).

Overall, the term 'reaction' includes the teacher actions contingent to what a student has previously done regarding L2 production whether or not incorporating learner output.

1.2.3 'Reaction' as educational feedback

To a certain extent, the term 'teacher reaction' in this study may be a synonym for 'feedback'. We are aware that Bellack et al. (1966) and Chaudron (1988) used 'feedback' exclusively to describe teacher error treatment strategies. That is, 'negative feedback'. Nevertheless, teachers do not always react by providing feedback when FL mistakes arise as we mentioned. Consequently, we do not uniquely cover a restricted sense of feedback (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998), but one which encompasses teaching strategies showing: i) provision of feedback and ii) non-incorporation of learner utterances (that is, teacher indifference or abandonment of feedback provision).

The precursor of comprehensive FL classroom studies on negative feedback⁴ (Error Correction) was Chaudron (1977) with his *Descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learner errors*. However, this author did not refer to teacher moves as 'feedback' or 'reactions' but as 'features' and 'types' during the treatment of FL classroom oral errors. Some of his categories might correspond to the types and features of 'explicit negative feedback' and 'implicit negative feedback' as we understand them in the present day. In his 1977 classification, 'feedback' was used as meaning explicit or implicit support to the learning process but he made no further clear-cut distinctions at that time. Later Chaudron (1988), similar to other authors (Lyster, 1998a), classified the notion of 'feedback' as not only covering 'negative

⁴ 'Negative feedback' for Chaudron (1977) only covered 'corrective feedback'.

feedback' central to most SLA research, but also 'positive feedback' (i.e., appraisals of the FL product).

In summary, the broad range of teacher reactions to learner output that might arise in foreign language classrooms can be:

- 1) negative feedback
- 2) positive feedback
- 3) disregard

'Disregard' means that in some cases teachers do not take account of learner products. To be more exact, the teacher may show indifference versus the student output or simply abandon his/her task of providing feedback to the student. As a consequence, a teacher reaction does not always involve provision of feedback. In this understanding, 'feedback' covers the different range of teacher responses that learners get when they attempt to communicate. Moreover, it gives birth to the qualifying terms 'explicit' and 'implicit' types of feedback.

Table 1.2 *Degrees of feedback directness*

DEGREES OF FEEDBACK DIRECTNESS	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Explicit feedback	Teaching strategies in which direct and explicit treatment is involved.
Implicit feedback	Indirect instructional strategies requesting learner self-correction.

In the main, the purpose of this thesis is to examine the "feedback issue". Since this issue is so large and complex, in the following sections we will only introduce the major types of FL educational feedback. A detailed account of features, examples and studies carried out dealing with 'feedback' will be presented specifically in Chapters 4, 6 and 7.

1.2.4 Foreign Language Learner Output

The central issue of this thesis is 'foreign language output' produced by learners before or after a teacher reaction. The term 'output' is still ambiguously defined in SLA literature. Ellis (1985) interprets 'output' as:

- i. any instance of the L2 learner language (including errors)
- ii. a linguistic system that an L2 learner is creating while acquiring an L2⁵

In this study, we will adopt the first definition of Ellis (op.cit.). Therefore, the notion of 'output' might comprise any FL learner utterance, writing and forms in his/her mother tongue used as a learning mediator.

By extension, 'output' can be treated as synonymous to the expression 'student products in the L2'. Nevertheless, we assume that any utterance that students produce in their first language engaged in the resolution of a FL task can be viewed as 'output'. Therefore, 'foreign language output' to be considered as such should be contingent on a given FL learning activity. In some cases, the output the student generates might be significant for researchers and teachers. In particular, to infer how learners might perceive and interpret a given FL task.

1.3 THE MANIFOLD NATURE OF TEACHER REACTIONS

Diverse studies on feedback have situated the manifestations of 'teacher reactions' in written or oral contexts. Chaudron's model (1977) is a first attempt to illustrate that teachers react linguistically to learner errors in many ways in oral contexts. However, it must be pointed out that in given situations, 'teacher reactions' might deploy non-verbal components. For instance, the teacher might make gestures, draw or also write on the blackboard as a teacher reaction strategy or as a feedback aid.

In addition, some psychological studies, such as McNeill (1992) in his book *Hand and Mind* claim interconnections with thought, language and gesture. Distinctively, language and gesture interact in everyday communication (Bavelas, 1994; Bavelas & Chovil, 2000; Bavelas et al., 1992; Davis, 1993; Goldin-Meadow, 2004; Kendon, 1980; 1994, 2001, 2004; Kita, 2000; Morris, 1994; Wilcox, 2004; Wilcox & Howse, 1982). Those ideas are being marginally considered in SLA studies (Antes, 1996; Barnett, 1983a; Gullberg, 2005, 2006a, 2006b; Harris, 2003; Kellerman, 1992; Stam, 2008).

It seems that in any face-to-face interaction, including classroom interaction, components such as pragmatics, prosody and non-verbal communication might be vital

⁵ Ellis equates 'output' with 'interlanguage' - a term coined by Selinker (1972).

in exchanges (Alcón Soler, 2002; Andersen, 1999; Cestero, 1999a, 1999b; Hurley, 1992; Valenzeno et al., 2003).

With reference to TREs, the teacher might provide feedback through nodding, back-channelling or making eye-contact (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 2006). This dissertation tries to bridge the gap for the lack of attention paid to the non-verbal components in TREs by analysing their effects on learner behaviour.

1.4 PROMINENT SLA THEORIES AND TEACHER REACTIONS

The following sections will introduce SLA approaches and models that hypothesise the role of “Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output”. Models stem mainly from two SLA research perspectives that we label as⁶:

- i. **The ‘intrapyschological perspective’**, which considers the internal processes taking place within learners’ minds.
- ii. **The ‘interpsychological perspective’**, which examines the external environment that might contribute to acquisition.

The enquiry into the intrapsychological domain has been the most influential theoretical approach in SLA research. This perspective mainly encompasses the mentalist or generativist L2 acquisition accounts (Bailey et al., 1974; Chomsky, 1980; Cuenca, 1992; Lightbown & White, 1987; White, 1987) with two major present-day lines of research: i) the ‘Input theories’ (DeKeyser, 1998; Gass & Madden, 1985; Gass, 1998, 2000, 2003; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Krashen, 1982; Kupferberg & Olshtain, 1996; Schmidt, 1990) and ii) the ‘Output theories’ (Swain, 1985). In contrast, the interpsychological approach considers the components taking place in teacher-student interactions (Hall, 2000; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; Long, 1981, 1996). The latter view appears to revive the 60s and 70s truncated observational studies into classroom educational patterns.

⁶ Both terms are taken from Vygotskian terminology as they appear to suitably describe the current state of SLA research.

1.4.1 The SLA intrapsychological and interpsychological approaches

In the past intrapsychological and interpsychological SLA approaches were confronted and this situation considerably influenced research into TREs. Nevertheless, the majority of theoretical current accounts seem to suggest an interrelation between the individual and the environment in SLA theory. The external linguistic environment might affect the scope of innate linguistic (mentalist account) processes and/or cognitive processes (cognitivist account) within learners. Works inspired by these two approaches have attempted to gauge the effects of teacher reactions on learners' minds.

Reviewing the SLA theory literature, we observe that most works dealing with this topic are based on a mentalist, generativist, nativist or intrapsychological tradition. This SLA view is often inspired by the conception of the learner as an individual who internalises input in his/her mind. It often vindicates 'competence' or 'innate linguistic knowledge of the learner' as crucial in SLA.

From the late sixties, mentalist researchers have focused their studies on four areas:

- 1) the comparison of syntactic development between first language and second language learners
- 2) the universal nature of language acquisition
- 3) the impact of the L1 in L2 development
- 4) the central role played by input

As a result, the role of teacher intervention has been disregarded in studies dealing with language acquisition in classroom contexts.

Progressively, since the advent of communicative language teaching, researchers have taken an interest in the role of interaction in SLA ('the interpsychological dimension'). This new SLA approach emerging from the 90s considers the learner as 'a social actor'. In particular, it postulates that learners through interaction with at least another human being develop a linguistic system. In Chapter 2, we draw attention to a comprehensive interpsychological theoretical framework called the 'sociocultural

theory'. It is not included in this chapter since it was not initially devised to portray SLA processes.

In the main, interpsychological studies typically consider the kinds of classroom behaviour that teachers should use to promote learning (Gibson & Pick, 2000). This SLA research area is largely investigated under the rubric of 'input in interaction'. Much of this research has been carried out within the social interactionist framework (Carroll, 2001; Gass, 1998; Long, 1985, 1996; Wong Fillmore, 1982, 1989).

According to this approach to FL acquisition (Allwright, 1984; Ellis, 1985, 1991; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994b; Swain, 1995), 'interaction' is largely considered relevant for learners to obtain data in any language acquisition process. This framework builds up hypotheses about learner linguistic acquisition in interaction. From this standpoint, many studies are looking for classroom conditions that are helpful for boosting interaction. Specifically, they examine the teacher conversational adjustments that Long (1991) claims ease acquisition. The major themes explore the ways in which participants foster 'negotiation of form or meaning'. The issue of 'negotiation' will be developed in depth in Chapter 3.

On the surface, the SLA social interactionist approach seems to deal with the interpsychological dimension. Nevertheless, the theoretical framework underlying 'SLA interaction research' is unavoidably also derived from 'intrapsychological studies'. In particular, issues arise regarding the ways learners confirm or reject a linguistic hypothesis by means of interaction.

1.4.2 Instructional Input as a trigger in SLA: from mentalist to cognitive models

'Input' has been central in the debate around how acquisition processes proceed. We understand 'input' as the language to which the learner is exposed. This linguistic form can be spoken or written. Some theories postulate that input might serve as data for the learner to discover the rules of the target language.

Regarding language learners' appropriation of input, different theories acknowledge its necessity in acquisition. Nonetheless, they differ greatly in assigning roles to it (see

Pérez-Vidal, 2002, “An introductory note: Input and interaction in language acquisition” for a summary).

Early SLA theories assigned key roles to input as ‘stimulus’ and ‘feedback’. In the 50s and 60s, behaviourists (Skinner, 1957) and mentalists (Chomsky, 1959) initiated the enquiry into how input is related to L1 acquisition.

The behaviourist learning theory considers language learning as resulting from a ‘stimulus-response-feedback process’. In the classroom context, ‘imitation together with teacher corrective feedback⁷’ were presupposed to trigger the internalisation of new language items in learner grammar. In this model, learners receive linguistic input through listening as stimulus and learn linguistic items through the imitation of this input.

The audiolingual approach of teaching was inspired by this view. Its main features have been:

- i. listening to excerpts of oral language following a very structured syllabus and grammatical explanations
- ii. ‘modelling’ (that is, repeating correct utterances)

Therefore, ‘negative explicit feedback’ was the most encouraged teacher reaction in this approach because errors were seen as harmful for language acquisition and their production needed to be eradicated.

Throughout the years, criticism over the overemphasis on the role of the environment⁸ in the behaviourist view of language learning gave rise to Mentalism in the sixties. Chiefly Chomsky (1959), the upholder of the mentalist approach, challenged the behaviourist view.

In mentalist views, the hypothesis of ‘innateness’ in language acquisition is central (Yang, 2003). This approach encouraged the study of the individual, which

⁷ Corrective feedback is considered as a reinforcement of learning.

⁸ The term ‘environment’ refers to the phenomena that occur outside the learner’s mind.

subsequently dominated the area of language acquisition research since that period. The major aim was to discover universal and innate human linguistic knowledge.

Mentalist theories stress the importance of the learner 'black box'. It is presupposed that learner brains are almost by themselves especially equipped to learn language. In this sense, the acquisition processes are said to occur inside the learner's mind. By this account, learners need minimal input exposure in order to trigger unconsciously innate, language-specific, learning mechanisms.

Chomsky (1965, 1980) suggested that humans innately possess a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) as previous linguists also claimed (cf. Lenneberg, 1967). The LAD represents the principles and mechanisms taking place during language acquisition. Its main functions are depicted in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3 *Main LAD functions*

MAIN LAD FUNCTIONS	
1.	creating a set of rules for assessing the data provided by the environment before being internalised in learners' minds
2.	helping learners to discover the rules of the target language
3.	transforming the linguistic input in a modular way ⁹ so it can be stored and addressed in production

Errors were seen as necessary for linguistic development; the windows through which process can be examined. Owing to the fact that individual performance does not exactly mirror competence, the LAD has 'transitional competences' constrained by 'universal rules'. Those faculties may be interdependent during the developmental process. For example, development of long-term memory may facilitate acquisition of complex sentences. Finally, it is assumed that the poverty of linguistic stimulus, the environment in learning and feedback types such as correction are secondary aspects in acquisition.

This SLA view has been very popular among L1 and L2 acquisition researchers especially from the 70s until the 90s. Curiously enough, Chomsky has not originally dealt with the question of L2 learning. Nevertheless, his innatist ideas have influenced the role attributed to input by subsequent SLA theorists such as Krashen (1982, 1994).

⁹ The 'mind' is considered modular. That is, it conceives human faculties as autonomous.

The latter author provided groundwork for a great deal of research in the area of L2 interaction as explained below.

Since the last decade, there has been an interesting debate in SLA between two views concerning the role of 'input':

- i. **'Input as a trigger'**. Input setting off some type of 'internal language acquisition device' (White, 1989, 1992).
- ii. **'Input shaped through interaction'**. Interaction contributing to acquisition (Long, 1981, 1996; Pica, 1994b, 1996).

So far, current SLA research takes for granted that in any language learning situation, learners are exposed to input (Kupferberg & Olshtain, 1996; Pica & Washburn, 2003). Input theories consider the language teacher or L2 expert as a source of linguistic input for second language learners in instructional contexts (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1996; Ellis, 1994; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Lightbown, 1985; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994b; Pica & Washburn, 2003; Pienemann, 1989; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Swain, 1995).

The current questions addressed in this view are:

- i. the degrees of input frequency and timing in the learning process
- ii. the kinds of input which lead to successful L2 learner outcomes

Up to now, overall SLA research has not given conclusive answers to two key questions:

- i. whether input provided by teachers as items of instruction lasts for learner acquisition
- ii. whether corrective feedback helps or hinders learner acquisition

In the subsections below, we will discuss what seems to happen inside learners' minds when teachers react to learner output according to the following SLA theories:

- 1) Krashen's Input Hypothesis
- 2) Non-interactive Input Hypothesis

3) Input Enhancement Hypothesis

1.4.2.1 Krashen's Input Hypothesis

The study of teacher-student classroom interaction was prompted to a certain extent by Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis. This hypothesis claims that 'increased input' would result in more language acquisition. This author draws a sharp distinction between 'language learning' and 'acquisition':

- i. 'language acquisition' is similar to L1 and L2 children's unconscious acquisition
- ii. 'language learning' is a conscious process demanding, to a certain extent, 'error correction' and 'the presentation of explicit rules' (Krashen & Seliger, 1975)

This approach defends that what we learn about language does not necessarily affect our acquisition. This position is very influenced by Chomsky's ideas and 1970s' child language acquisition research (Snow & Ferguson, 1977).

In the 1970s and the 1980s, the widespread assumption has been that children largely acquire their first language without overt teaching by caretakers. On the basis of these claims but with no empirical evidence, Krashen suggests that adult learners of an L2 are equally guided by 'unconscious processes' that influence L1 acquisition. This author strongly believed that L1 acquisition had a natural and predictable order which instruction could not alter, and he also in turn claimed that L2 acquisition proceeds similarly. This view has been called the Natural Order Hypothesis which puts forward the concept that the minimal role of error correction and grammatical teaching (Brown & Hanlon, 1970; Brown et al., 1973). In this perspective, teacher interventions are insignificant for linguistic acquisition. Nevertheless, Krashen assumes that teaching might occasionally trigger "conscious learning". In particular, he believed that only correction is helpful for reaching "*the correct mental representation of the linguistic rule*" (Krashen, 1981: 7). Specifically, it is only effective when the learner has enough time to check his output and to correct or repair it according to the target form. The checking function is carried out by the 'Monitor' (Krashen & Terrell, 1983: 30).

The 'monitor' covers two notions:

- i. an innate mechanism that teenagers and adults use to learn languages to edit how they perform consciously in the target language
- ii. the learner conscious mental effort to capture the structural rules of the target language

Accordingly, 'monitoring' describes the manner in which the learner uses 'learnt' knowledge to improve naturally 'acquired' knowledge.

It is also suggested that L2 learners mainly rely on acquired (unconscious knowledge) rather than learning (conscious knowledge) during normal and spontaneous communication. Furthermore, 'learnt knowledge' does not become 'acquired knowledge' because unconscious processes do not become conscious (see Section 1.4.2.3).

In addition, Krashen postulates that successful language acquisition takes place during 'meaningful natural interaction' in the target language. He suggests that learner fluency in production is 'picked up' in natural communicative situations. Along these lines, this author specifies that acquisition takes place 'unconsciously' when the learner 'comprehends' a written or spoken instance of L2 input with features at a level just beyond his or her current level of competence. This view of acquisition is called the Input Hypothesis.

In Krashen's (1977: 21) words:

"... a necessary condition to move from state 'i' (i.e., current interlanguage ability) to state 'i + 1' (i.e., control of linguistic structures just beyond the current psycholinguistic processing level of the acquirer) is that the acquirer understands input that contains 'i + 1 level input', where 'understand' means that the acquirer is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message"

Therefore, interlanguage development can only be attained if the learner "*comprehends*" the language¹⁰ at a slightly more advanced level than his or her current

¹⁰ The notion of 'language' refers to linguistic items such as lexis, syntax and morphology.

competence¹¹ -what he calls 'comprehensible input'. According to this version of events, learners progress in their interlanguage towards the next predetermined stage of development.

It is hypothesised that the right level of input is achieved automatically when speakers:

- i. succeed in comprehending messages
- ii. make themselves understood in communication by means of linguistic adjustments

Consequently, if learners understand messages, language acquisition happens. In contrast, if input is not comprehensible, it may just be noise to the learner.

'Comprehensible input' might take place naturally in:

- i. conversational interaction (with the teacher, native speaker or peer)
- ii. non-interactive discourse (during activities such as watching a film, or listening to music)

Krashen suggests that learner fluency in production is generated from what they have 'picked up' in natural communicative situations. In this understanding, this author defends language learning as being boosted by receptive learner skills rather than by production.

Overall, learner input comprehension becomes central and essential in order to convert 'input' into 'intake'. 'Intake' refers to attended, assimilated and finally used input on the part of the learner. It results from form-meaning connections¹² that learners make during the process of comprehension. This facilitating input is said to activate the Language Acquisition Device (Chomsky, 1965, 1980: 5).

¹¹ The term 'competence' (Chomsky, 1965: 4) refers to 'interlanguage knowledge'.

¹² The form-meaning connections refer to those internal processes that learners make between referential real-world meaning and how that meaning is encoded linguistically.

In connection to the teacher functions, Krashen gives them only the role of 'comprehensible input providers'. Their main concern in the classroom should be to provide a rich variety of language just beyond the learner's present capacity to understand. Therefore, explicit instruction has a secondary role.

Krashen's views have been prevalent in SLA research until the beginning of the 90s upholding the view that corrective teacher feedback was neither necessary nor effective (Terrell, 1982).

In order to illustrate this position, Krashen has referred to several studies suggesting that error correction might have:

- i. Insignificant impact upon learner competence (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Lalonde, 1987; Slimani, 1992).
- ii. Negative effects on learners in affective terms (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976).

With reference to Cohen and Robbins (1976), Krashen concludes that correction of advanced level ESL student papers over a period of ten weeks has no significant effect on student errors.

Regarding Lalonde's study (1987), he suggests that the effect of comprehensive error correction plus special exercises after correction was very small. 10 out of 30 students actually worsened their responses. Furthermore, Krashen (1994) cites Slimani (1992) against feedback that is too implicit as learners do not benefit from it.

Krashen and his followers claimed that correction only serves to provoke anxiety and hinder teacher and student interaction. He backed his views on Cathcart and Olsen's (1976) study that explores the psychological effects of error correction. This study claims that learners disliked constant correction. Despite his arguments against correction, Krashen acknowledges at the same time that learners themselves often say that they want to be corrected in formal and natural learning contexts as Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and Chenoweth et al. (1983) claimed.

Overall, Krashen's Input Hypothesis has been widely criticised (e.g., McLaughlin, 1987; Mitchell & Myles, 1998). The three principal reasons are:

- 1) Its lack of support through empirical evidence.
- 2) Krashen's concepts of 'understanding' and 'noticing the gap' are not clearly operationalised.
- 3) The unclear notion of the learner's present state of knowledge ("i")¹³.

Crucially, Krashen's theory about unconscious acquisition has not been fully proved. The problem arises when the data suggest that the interlanguage model contradicts principles of the UG in many studies. Nevertheless, this learning-acquisition theory has encouraged SLA researchers to investigate subconscious linguistic processes (White, 1989, 2003a, 2003b).

In particular, the role of 'universal grammar' in SLA. This trend resulted in a decline of studies addressing interpsychological factors and learners' conscious actions. For example, the role of 'attention' in second language acquisition and interactions in learning contexts for many years.

Despite the fact that Krashen did not consider that output was essential for acquisition, his Input Hypothesis also triggered research on this issue. Specifically, the role and nature of input in facilitating L2 comprehension. At least in part, 'input perspectives on interaction' and 'negotiation' in language learning stem from Krashen's theories (1981, 1982, 1985).

Many current SLA theories are based on the idea that language learning is directly related to the amount of comprehensible input a learner receives (Long, 1991, 1996; Long & Porter, 1985; Long & Sato, 1983; Pica, 1987, 1991, 1994a, 1994b; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Pica et al., 1993). In addition, many SLA studies focusing on 'teacher talk' have shown that teachers often adjust their speech for L2 learners to make it more comprehensible (Pérez-Vidal, 2002).

1.4.2.2 Non-interactive Input

'Non-interactive input' covers those input forms that take place when the learner has no opportunity to take part in interaction. This term has been used in computer teaching

¹³ Specifically, it is unknown whether "i+1" is intended to refer to lexis, phonology, syntax or discourse.

environments but it appears to describe a situation which also takes place in FL classrooms. We assume that this type of input may cover some linguistic reactions that teachers might exhibit in relation to their learner output. In such situations, there is no teacher-learner interaction.

With reference to the internal processes, some authors have suggested that 'non-interactive input' might be processed in learner minds. From a psychological point of view, they might promote L2 comprehension. According to the theory of Mental Representation (Allen, 1995; Garrett, 1991; Terrell, 1986), this type of input may involve at least two cognitive steps: i) 'binding' and ii) 'mapping'.

Terrell (1986) refers to 'binding' as the connections learners form between the non-interactive input they hear, read or see and what the expressions mean. 'Binding' would lead to the formation of mental representations about how language works. After this step, students must develop a 'mapping' or processing ability.

According to Garrett (1991: 79), 'mapping' is the "*ability to access meaning-form connections held in memory, to process them automatically, and to articulate them in real-life discourse*". During 'mapping', students use the mental representations to express personal meaning independently from external stimuli.

Other psychologists have put forward the benefits of mental representations in L2 acquisition. Anderson (1980) suggests that the formation of mental representations of FL forms is influenced by how the expressions are originally presented to the students.

Some types of non-interactive input that have been more studied are 'bi-modal input' and 'elaborative modification' in CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning). 'Bi-modal input' (Holobow et al., 1984) provides access to the written and spoken forms simultaneously. 'Elaborative modification' covers linguistic strategies as simplification, paraphrase, synonyms and the use of cleft constructions. They are typical of modified input and addressed to foreigners or language learners in oral interaction and written discourse (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). It appears that some types of teacher reactions might act as such. Some SLA authors have referred to this (Chaudron, 1989); in particular, those types of teacher input which do not encourage active learner involvement and interaction.

1.4.2.3 Input Enhancement

A group of researchers (Cadierno, 1995; Ellis, 1994; Gregg, 1984; Herron & Tomasello, 1992; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985; Schmidt, 1990; Sharwood Smith, 1985; Van Patten & Cadierno, 1993) have called into question Krashen's and other mentalist authors' (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Van Patten, 1996) overemphasis of subconscious processes¹⁴ in SLA.

Against this claim, numerous studies state that some linguistic structures cannot be incidentally acquired by learner exposure to comprehensible input (Schmidt, 1990). One hypothesis that has arisen from the criticism of Krashen's mentalist conception is Input Enhancement. This account suggests that factors such as 'noticing' (or 'conscious attention') and 'memory' have crucial roles in acquisition (DeKeyser, 1998; Gass, 1998; McLaughlin, 1987; Rosa & O'Neill, 1999; Schmidt, 1990; Sharwood Smith, 1981; Skehan, 1998; VanPatten, 1996). Schmidt (1995) asserts that 'noticing' is a necessary condition for L2 acquisition. This view is called the Noticing Hypothesis.

In the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, op.cit.), available information enters the learner's brain first as 'input'. After that, it is taken into short-term storage as 'intake'¹⁵ when it attracts the learner attention at the level of noticing¹⁶. Next, it is rehearsed or reinforced in order to be part of the long-term memory storage. For input to be fully internalised into the learner's mind it has to be subsequently driven into the 'implicit or explicit knowledge stores' (Schmidt, 1990).

Schmidt (1994) (cited in Harley, 1998) defines 'noticing' as the "*registration of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory*" (p. 179). Nevertheless, "*target language forms will not be acquired unless they are noticed*". That is, [...] "*what learners notice in input is what becomes*

¹⁴ For Krashen and mentalists, in general, conscious learning has a minimal impact on SLA.

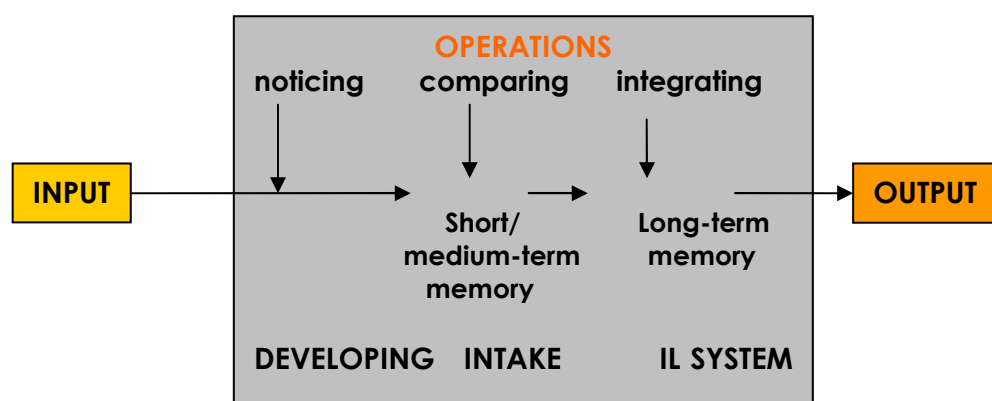
¹⁵ Learner 'uptake' is here defined as learner responses to corrective feedback in which, in case of an error, students attempt to correct their mistake(-s). 'Intake' (Kumaravadivelu, 1994: 37) is "*an abstract entity of learner language that has been fully or partially processed by learners, and fully or partially assimilated into their developing system*".

¹⁶ Schmidt conceives 'consciousness' as limited in the capacity memory system.

intake for learning" (Schmidt, 1995: 20). 'Intake' is defined as "that part of the input that the learner notices" (Schmidt, 1990: 139). Namely, it is the input perceived and processed by the learner.

The following chart by Ellis (2003) is illustrative of Schmidt's hypothesis on noticing in SLA:

Fig. 1.3 Schmidt's Hypothesis (adapted from Ellis, 2003)



In this hypothesis, Schmidt (1990, 1995) distinguishes four types of 'consciousness' involved in language learning: 1) intention, 2) attention, 3) awareness and 4) control.

1) INTENTION

Primarily, there is 'consciousness as intention'. At this stage, learners can deliberately try to learn something or acquire knowledge of something incidentally while their primary attention is focused on some other target item. In 'intention', learners focus their attention either i) on memorising grammar and lexis, or ii) on comprehension for acquiring new L2 knowledge.

2) ATTENTION¹⁷

In Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis, the concept of 'attention' is considered as a key factor in processing input. In this view, linguistic forms should be consciously

¹⁷ 'Consciousness as attention' is usually equated to the notion of 'noticing' or 'noticing the gap' (Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

attended for language learning (White, 1987). Regardless of whether acquisition is intentional or incidental it certainly requires 'conscious attention' to linguistic form(-s).

This expression refers to learner awareness of differentiating between his/her 'interlanguage' and the target form (Roberts, 1995). Such 'noticing' of the features of the L2 input depends on i) the degree of stress of linguistic items and ii) their state of acquisition in the learner's language knowledge. In sum, 'attention' mediates the process of selection and subsequent memory of input.

Specifically, Schmidt (1990) suggested that learners should consciously pay attention to input and have momentary episodes of noticing input for learning. Thus, noticed and comprehended input might be added to the learner's current mental store of linguistic knowledge. Subsequently, this author (Schmidt, 1995) further refines his definition of noticing as being "*nearly isomorphic with attention*" (p.1).

In particular, learners should make use of consciousness to make corrections, to change the output form of the acquired system before writing or speaking. Sometimes they do it after self-correction.

3) AWARENESS

Regarding 'conscious awareness', learners might be aware of features in the input. This author remarks that the function of 'awareness' related to the types of knowledge (explicit and implicit) is a controversial issue. Schmidt (1990) claims that learners need conscious awareness of what they learn in order to convert input into information stored in short-term memory (intake). He also suggests that a higher level of awareness, 'rule understanding', while facilitative for learning is not strictly necessary.

4) CONTROL

Learners should have the instantaneous 'controlled' experience of using knowledge. This type of performance entails the conscious processes of 'selection' and 'assembly'. Schmidt argues that fluent performance is unconscious. In contrast, Andersen (1989) signals theories that consider spontaneous performance as originating during earlier consciously guided performance.

The theoretical view of Input Enhancement has also given rise to explicit teaching techniques that will not be presented in this study since they are not directly linked to TREs (Teacher Reaction Episodes) regarding FL learner output. Such strategies assist learners in noticing specific L2 forms (Schmidt, 1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1995, 2001; Robinson, 2001).

Some authors have recently claimed that linguistic items that are noticed might not be comprehended (Leow, 1997, 1998, 2002; Tomlin & Villa, 1994). Additionally, regardless of the fact that the learner should deliberately attend or not to a linguistic form in the input, it may become intake. In particular, Tomlin and Villa (1994: 185) point out that:

“noticing may not be as critical a factor for SLA as other processes, specifically detection and orientation, attentional processes that can be dissociated from awareness”.

Criticising Schmidt’s premise of conscious attention for SLA, Tomlin and Villa (op.cit.) distinguish three different kinds of ‘attentional processes’:

- i. **‘alertness’** (i.e., general readiness to incoming stimuli or input)
- ii. **‘orientation’** (i.e., directing attention to certain data, ignoring other input)
- iii. **‘detection’** (i.e., the cognitive registration of sensory stimuli related to language registered in memory)

These authors argue that all three processes can take place without awareness or conscious noticing.

In general, research on ‘Input Enhancement’ and ‘cognitive processing’ is still at a very early stage. As we will see in Chapter 3, developments of the Input Enhancement approach claim that ‘noticing or attention to form’ may be facilitated through ‘negotiated interaction’.

1.4.3 Input shaped through interaction: second language conversations

The debate on the relevant contributions of input and interaction to SLA have characterised much of the linguistic research since the mid 1970s. Early studies dealing with interaction deliberately and originally focus on input and interpsychological processes in natural settings.

Initially, they have examined native and non-native and children and parent L2 conversations (Arditty, 1987). Nevertheless, there have recently been more investigations of L2 classroom acquisition, considering both the roles of learners and teachers.

The line of enquiry taking into account interpsychological processes is based on the idea that the nature and the frequency of input affect L2 acquisition and learner output. Those types of studies largely assume that language acquisition takes place as learners actively attempt to communicate in the target language. Thus, acquisition is optimised when learners engage in activities that “push” them to the limits of their current linguistic competence.

1.4.3.1 Hatch’s (1978) Analyses of Interactions

Early SLA research in classroom discourse emanated from the analyses of the interactions between native and non-native speakers. The underlying assumption of those studies is that learners acquire a language through learning how to communicate.

These studies describe first that the interactional exchanges contain ‘moves’ or turns in the discourse. As for L2 research, the analyses of exchanges between foreign language experts and learners have revealed that some of those moves clearly repaired communication breakdowns. Progressively, studies in the L2 field have examined i) what happens when comprehension breaks down and ii) how comprehension is achieved (Hatch, 1978). Therefore, the area of ‘analyses of interactions’ presently covers the descriptions of the adjustments that are found in:

- i. the language addressed to learners (i.e., foreigner talk or teacher talk)

ii. the analysis of discourse involving L2 learners

It is significant that descriptions of language as social interaction and of discourse as a semiotic system to exchange meanings inspired research into comprehensible input. The idea of language as a social mediator has been paralleled to L1 research outcomes of that time. If children do not face a given need to communicate, then the linguistic function for that aim will not develop (Bruner, 1975; Hamers & Blanc, 1982; Karmiloff-Smith, 1979). Linked to this approach, Hatch (1978) suggests that there is a relationship between discourse and L2 acquisition. This author highlights the collaborative attempts of the learners and their expert interlocutors in producing discourse during exchanges.

Hatch (1978, 1992) suggests then that when learners produce discourse they develop syntactic structures. One way in which this can occur is through 'scaffolding'¹⁸. That is, carrying out a given activity with the appropriate regulated help of a language expert. This author illustrates through the analyses of the discourse of caretakers and language learners the kinds of conversation that provide appropriate 'scaffolding' for learning new linguistic forms. In particular, with young learners, caretakers reformulate learner utterances. She claims that appropriate lexical input enables young learners to express themselves and understand meaning during conversations. From those observations, Hatch assumes that learners acquire new linguistic forms attending to them in contexts where the primary concern is message rather than code. Overall, this researcher claims that conversation is an influential aspect in SLA.

From Hatch's studies and similar ones, SLA research interest turned to such speech events and their roles in facilitating comprehension. Nevertheless, those types of studies decreased by the influence of Krashen's theories.

In the 90s, the reconsideration of the roles of interpsychological processes in SLA has been recognised as the 'social interactionist approach to language learning' (Gardner & Wagner, 2004). In this view, "*modified input that learners are exposed to and the way in which native speakers interact in conversations with learners*" (Lightbown & Spada, 1993: 29) are seen as foremost in acquisition. Essentially, this new approach assumes

¹⁸ The concept of 'scaffolding' is a Vygotskian term that explicitly located learning within a social activity (Vygotsky, 1987b [1945]).

that adjustments in conversation may yield better comprehension. The following hypotheses presented are products of this view.

1.4.3.2 Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1981, 1996)

As already explained above, many linguists have described that in formal language learning contexts, learners often encounter communicative problems. In order to overcome them, learners solve troubles with the collaboration of their language expert interlocutor(-s) (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Firth, 1995; Long, 1981, 1996). For instance, participants may model correct target-language forms they hear from more proficient speakers making some input and learner output adjustments in interaction. Thus, it is assumed that language is acquired as learners are actively involved in attempting to communicate in the target language.

In the first formulations of the Interaction Hypothesis (1981), Long suggests that 'comprehensible input' often arises through conversational adjustments of participants. Those adjustments derive from a comprehension problem indicated by speakers. In this interactive process, a listener may request clarification of someone else's message and the original speaker subsequently repeats, simplifies or elaborates upon the original message. Thus, teachers and learners seek and create 'comprehensible input'. In the successful cases, learners receive input relevant to the aspects of grammar not yet fully mastered by them.

Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1981,1996) evolved from the 80s' SLA research concerned with the role of environment in language learning during conversational interaction¹⁹ (Chaudron, 1988; Day, 1986; Hatch, 1978; Sato, 1988). Based on previous outcomes of L1 research (Farrar, 1990, 1992; Nelson, 1977; Nelson et al., 1984), Long suggested that interaction between experts and language learners was the basis for language development.

Long (1996: 45) writes that:

¹⁹ As mentioned, particularly work by Hatch (1978) who supported the idea of the role of conversation in SL, grammar development has been influential in this SLA field.

“demonstrating the existence of negative evidence involves showing that something in the learner’s linguistic, conversational, or physical environment reliably provides the information necessary to alert the learner to the existence of error”.

From this view, this linguist assumes that learning takes place at least among two individuals interacting. This hypothesis attempts to give an explanation of the roles of the learner and expert in language learning. Primarily, it highlights the importance of interpsychological phenomena in acquisition²⁰. In this perspective, instruction is overtly considered as helpful to second language development.

To a certain extent, Krashen’s (1985) Comprehensible Input Hypothesis in SLA is also influential. In Long’s view, ‘input’ becomes a central factor of acquisition as Krashen claimed. Nevertheless, it becomes relevant in interaction.

Initially, Long (1981, 1983) supported Krashen’s Input Hypothesis since he found that Native Speakers (NSs) modified their speech conversing with Non-Native Speakers (NNSs). The former made their speech comprehensible and one level beyond their L2 level as Krashen suggested. Significantly, after NSs used those procedures it appeared that NNSs improved in their communicative skills and comprehension. Thus, the resulting ‘modifications of discourse’ carried out by interaction partners²¹. In addition, learners also obtain significant exposure to new target-language forms. This study entailed other similar studies in natural contexts. In those works, it was shown that when learners signal non-understanding, experts modify their messages to render them more comprehensible (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Ducharme & Bernard, 2001; Gass & Varonis, 1985; Pica et al., 1989; Pica et al., 1987; Polio & Gass, 1998). Therefore, the original argument of Long’s approach is that the learner interacting with another speaker (peer, teacher or native speaker) might take advantage of the comprehensible input that s/he receives.

The type of interaction, resulting from lack of comprehension is assumed to be vital to the learner’s language development. That is, through *“exchanges between learners*

²⁰ This view contrasts to mentalist predominant views in SLA.

²¹ The notion of the ‘L2 expert’ presently refers to teachers, peers or native speakers in the present dissertation.

and their interlocutors as they attempt to resolve communication breakdowns and to work towards mutual comprehension” (Pica et al., 1989: 65).

Significantly, Long (1990) views ‘interaction’ as necessary but insufficient for SLA. He distinguishes three aspects of verbal interaction:

- i. **‘Input’** is understood as the language offered to the language learner by native speakers (or by other learners). Accordingly, L2 learners use the input to form hypotheses about the language.
- ii. **‘Production’** (or **‘output’**) is the language spoken by the language learners themselves.
- iii. **‘Feedback’** is the reaction offered by the conversational partner(-s) to the production of the language learner.

Overall, optimising interaction implies improving the quantity and quality of input, production, and feedback.

In his updated version of the Interaction Hypothesis (1996), Long insists on the strategies used to negotiate meaning in the classroom context. This time this author assumes that learners need to comprehend meaning to internalise L2 forms and structures (Pica, 1994b: 500). These strategies include different types of input and interactional modifications originated by negotiation. Therefore, learners request teachers to clarify linguistic problems and make them comprehensible.

In addition, Long claims that interactive tasks promoting negotiation of meaning among learners can facilitate SLA. This author suggests that negotiation provides the learner with two types of linguistic evidence:

- i. **‘Positive evidence’** (when an interlocutor corrects an utterance by providing the correct form).
- ii. **‘Negative evidence’** (when the learner receives feedback on their incorrect input).

An example of how negotiated L2 interaction may be operating to ease L2 development could be as follows: 1) an L2 learner that does not understand a word

clarification request. Then, 2) the expert speaker *a.* may repeat the word, *b.* elaborate or *c.* simplify the original message²².

These ideas have encouraged empirical studies concerning 'negotiation' in linguistic interaction that will be developed more comprehensively in Chapters 3 and 4. A group of linguists has established an SLA research schedule which is currently identified as the 'social interactionist perspective' context (Lyster, 1998b, 1999; Mackey, 1999; Mackey & Philp, 1998). This approach sees 'interactive negotiation' as the means for the creation of 'comprehensible input' and 'uptake' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Pica, 1994b). From such views, the process of language acquisition is extended beyond the view of a mere interface between input data and the learner mind. Therefore, Long's idea is an important addition to Krashen's model, which placed a great deal of emphasis on comprehensible input, but paid no attention to interaction or output (Krashen, 1981).

Overall, Long (1985, 1996) initially theorises and attempts to prove that conversational adjustments promote comprehensible input that boosts acquisition. In particular, using various kinds of implicit, expert reactions to learner utterances, such as repetitions, expansions, and recasts. This idea is also suggested by some interactionist linguists that defend that 'implicit feedback' can have positive effects. They claim that this type of feedback may promote noticing of L2 forms (Ayoum, 2004; Robinson, 1996; Schmidt, 1995; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Tomlin & Villa, 1994; Tsui, 1985). Nevertheless, the effectiveness of interactional feedback provided in L2 classroom settings has been questioned (Foster, 1998; Lyster, 1998b; Musumeci, 1996).

1.4.4 Output and Interaction Hypothesis

While 'input' is obviously required for noticing in language acquisition, research has also recently proved that 'output' plays an important role in SLA. Nevertheless, it seems that 'output' as a learning factor has been neglected in early SLA research with the exception of earlier researchers such as Allwright (1975) and Hendrickson (1978).

They propose that pushing learners in their output rather than providing the correct forms could benefit their interlanguage development. It must be recalled that the 'input

²² That is, the original word is expanded or rephrased by the expert.

approaches of SLA' minimise the role of learner output. It is usually considered as a secondary and indirect factor in learning (Gass & Mackey, 2007).

Currently, some authors suggest that 'output' facilitates second language learning by providing learners with opportunities to produce 'comprehensible output' (De Bot, 1996; Krashen²³, 1982, 1985, 1994; Long, 1983, 1990; Van Patten, 1996). 'Comprehensible output' is claimed to be necessary to push learners to improve the accuracy of their productions, especially, to make them understood.

In the present day, the areas of output research mainly cover (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Swain, 1985; 1993; 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Van den Branden, 1997):

- i. the descriptions of learner's output²⁴ (i.e., what learners produce in the L2)
- ii. their effects in learning

Additionally, since 'output' exists, a group of researchers justify its study since:

- i. learners produce comprehensible and incomprehensible output in SLA oral and written contexts
- ii. L2 experts react to learner output for assessing L2 learner products and verifying their knowledge
- iii. 'output' is necessary in order to provide 'comprehensible input' in some cases

On the other hand, some cognitive theories suggest that students generating products in the L2 are compelled to reorganise and elaborate upon their L2 knowledge. Thus, learners make an effort to learn. This behaviour is assumed to help learners to gain fluency and accuracy in the L2.

As mentioned, it appears that output helps to raise learner consciousness to notice the gap between what they can say and what they intend to say (Achard & Niemeier, 2004; De Bot et al., 2007; Mackey, 2006; cf. Schmidt). Subsequently, it helps learners test

²³ Krashen (1981, 1984) assigns to output a limited role in promoting acquisition. He claimed that 'comprehensible output' is only a result of acquisition but not a cause.

²⁴ In developmental terms, 'output' is conceived as a synonym of interlanguage.

out hypotheses. Moreover, it is suggested that increased planning time for output allows students to push to higher levels of language complexity.

Largely, 'output' is a documented phenomenon which takes place in L2 conversations, and therefore in classroom interaction. Some authors hypothesise that learners achieve Comprehensible Output by modifying and approximating their production toward successful use of the target language in interaction (Lynch, 1997; Pica, 1994b; Pica et al., 1989; Pica et al., 1993; Pica et al., 1996; Shehadeh, 2001; Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

A pioneer theory of the role of output in SLA is Levelt's (1983) work. In Krashen's time, Levelt suggests in his Monitor Theory a prominent role for output. He assumes that learners may 'monitor' their output. In other words, they have to pay conscious attention to specific elements of the utterance to correct or improve it by making adjustments. Nevertheless, this theory was based on mentalist perspectives. Since it was a more intrapsychological theory, it did not take interaction into account.

Progressively as L2 research has been developing, the role of learner output has been investigated in interaction. Merrill Swain (1985) is the first researcher who considers the role of the L2 expert in relation to output. This author challenges Krashen's position by claiming that production has an important function in forcing the language learner to move from meaning to grammar.

For Swain, Input Comprehension (i.e., processing meaning) does not guarantee further processing of linguistic forms leading to acquisition. In addition, she argues that "*there are roles for output in second language acquisition that are independent of comprehensible input*" (Swain, 1985: 248).

Swain also claims that providing Comprehensible Input is insufficient to the language acquisition process, if there is not at the same time an obligation on the part of the learner to produce Comprehensible Output. The assumption is that some complex linguistic features may not only be acquired purely from comprehending input.

According to this view, "*producing the target language acts as one of the triggers that force language learners to pay attention to the means of expression needed to*

successfully convey their intended meaning" (Swain & Lapkin, 1986: 7). In this quote Swain sketches what she calls the Pushed or Comprehensible Output Hypothesis.

Specifically, this approach suggests that learners need to be 'pushed' so as to produce more complex L2 interlanguage forms accurately. In this understanding, it reorganises the learner's linguistic knowledge in an attempt to communicate (Swain, 1985, 1995). That is, producing output learners may develop certain grammatical features.

'Pushed output'²⁵ also takes place when learners attempt to use forms that they have either previously used incorrectly or of which they have received explicit information. One of the supposed benefits of 'pushed output' is that it helps learners to reconstruct their interlanguage.

In particular, one function of 'pushing output' will be to force learners to 'notice' mismatches between their own and an interlocutor's production (Ellis, 1994; Mackey, 2006; Schmidt, 1990; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Subsequently, this 'noticing' may then lead to learning. In cognitive terms, such modified output allows the learner to focus on, and process, linguistic forms, instead of meanings. Additionally, it might enable learners to revise faulty hypotheses about the target language. Swain (1985, 1993, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995) concludes that learners confronted with communication failure using an L2 are forced to make their output more accurate and comprehensible.

Swain's interest for 'output' made her theorise about it. This author posits three main theoretical roles in language learning (Swain, 1995, 2005) namely: i) 'consciousness-raising', ii) 'hypothesis testing', and iii) 'reflection'.

- i. Firstly, the production of output may contribute to consciousness-raising of the language that learners have just produced. This cognitive process may help learners to notice the gap about what they know and what they can do in the L2. 'Noticing' often results from interlocutors (teacher, peer or simply listener) feedback. However, it may also arise from the speaker's failure to find the right L2 forms (e.g., lexical items, grammatical constructions, etc.) with which to express some intended meaning.

²⁵ 'Pushed output' is sometimes used as an equivalent to 'modified output'. 'Modified output' refers to the learner products after rephrasings or self-corrections of previous incorrect L2 output. In certain cases the teacher has intervened.

- ii. The second function of output relates to hypothesis testing. Swain (1995) considers learner output as an instance of testing out new language forms and patterns as long as learners expand their 'interlanguage' to meet communicative needs. Learners confronted with problems during language production may use their communicative competence in the L1 or L2, and/or cognitive mechanisms to formulate hypotheses about the way L2 works. Consequently, learners test their hypotheses against the interlocutor's feedback using the output itself as a vehicle.
- iii. Finally, learners reflect what works and what does not work about their L2. This 'reflection' can be carried out alone or in interaction with other individuals.

With reference to the implementation of Output approaches, Swain proposes that teachers should design tasks which make students produce language and reflect upon linguistic structures. Such views have been also implemented in 'output techniques' such as i) negotiation tasks, ii) metatalking, and iii) consciousness-raising. Nonetheless, since such procedures are not directly linked to the issue of the study they will not be presented (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi & Izumi, 2004; Loewen, 2005; Shehadeh, 2002; Swain, 1998, 2005; Whitlow, 2001).

On the whole, the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis has given rise to a model that does not deny the role of comprehensible input in language development. The learner becomes the source of the message and it is the teacher who signals non-understanding. Unlike the 'modified input model' in which the teacher makes all the linguistic adjustments necessary for mutual understanding, in the modified output model linguistic adjustments are made by the student (Shehadeh, 2001). However, such adjustments are stimulated by teacher intervention - either triggered by a signal of non-understanding or a request for clarification. On the practical side, teachers and researchers have attempted to identify the teaching strategies that facilitate 'output enhancement', i.e., modified output which optimises SLA (Takashima & Ellis, 1999).

1.4.5 The teacher's reaction roles in the Input and Output Approaches

Behaviourist theories propose a clear relationship between input and output, where we can control from the outside the acquisition of an FL by manipulating the input, and the student is considered a passive agent. In contrast, mentalist theories see input as a

kind of triggering element that starts the internal processing of language. Although it is also suggested that the teacher might play, somewhat, a role in formal learning, it is learners who are in focus, not teachers.

In general, the Input approaches aim at identifying the environmental variables that facilitate SLA learner comprehension. Although many theories recognise the importance of input in SLA, they differ greatly in the importance they allot to them. Few of them defend that 'comprehensible output' alone suffices. Teachers seem to be the external sources of input for learners. Specifically, learners mentally process teacher input. In addition, the transmission process (L2 expert-learner) of input might be made more comprehensible by interaction since the participants can negotiate their comprehension.

Reviewing the literature, we find that most studies dealing with the effects of teacher reactions on foreign language learner learning are inspired by Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis. As we have seen, different studies report the teacher's ways that may make input more comprehensible. One of the current endeavours of SLA linguists seems to be finding out whether the teacher is able to modify his/her language in ways that make it operate as language input. This modified input may affect a student's second language learning in the formal classroom setting (Wong Fillmore, 1982).

Long's Input Hypothesis tries to take into account feedback and interaction. In terms of feedback, teachers may intervene to direct learner attention to form by using corrective recasting or input-processing techniques. It seems that in order to succeed in language acquisition, learners need to attend to input and have access to meaning-bearing comprehensible input.

According to Input approaches, there are three possible learning facilitative roles of teacher reactions to foreign language learner output:

- i. First, the 'comprehensible input' teachers provide eases L2 acquisition.
- ii. Second, the input teachers deliver serves in some cases to draw learner attention to L2 forms. It grants 'negative evidence' to learners, that is, information as to the inappropriateness of certain linguistic forms (Long, 1996).

- iii. Third, input provided through 'negotiation of meaning' leads to teacher interactional modifications that benefit learner acquisition.

On the other hand, the Output perspective suggests that only when learners produce language and are corrected by an L2 expert (teacher or native speaker) they will discover that they have made an incorrect inference. In this understanding, acquisition might also be promoted when input is not comprehensible.

'Non-comprehensible output' can be made comprehensible by interactional modifications. Thus, 'teacher reactions' encouraging learner output 1) help fluency and 2) improve learner accuracy. An increase in accuracy is assumed since output raises students' consciousness. It helps them i) notice the gap between what they can say and what they want to say, ii) test out hypotheses, and iii) provide a means for metalinguistic talk. This approach specifically targets L2 learner production.

One issue of considerable theoretical interest is the extent to which learners consciously attend to linguistic features that are negotiated interactionally (Ellis et al., 2001b; Izumi et al., 1999; Mackey, 2006; Yule & Macdonald, 1990).

Lastly, the Input and Output approaches which take into account 'interaction' are labelled Conversational Interaction (see Mackey (ed.), 2007) *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies*). Both views share L2 acquisition as generated in a given environment and through interaction. At the present time, researchers are still hypothesising about the benefits of oral interaction among students and the teacher.

1.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has defined the crucial terms included in the title of the study. Understanding the terminology is essential to understanding the nature of the present dissertation and its aims.

In addition, we have framed our work within SLA theory. We have reviewed several prominent and conflicting hypotheses concerning the role of comprehensibility in SLA. Namely, Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, Long's Interaction Hypothesis

and Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. Furthermore, we traced how SLA theory has influenced research in the TREs (Teacher Reaction Episodes).

Most studies have been centered on mentalist studies dealing with the intrapsychological side of acquisition. Overall, years of research into abstract views of acquisition have not given yet conclusive results for improving SLA. Although obviating the context and the social nature in SLA, has led researchers to carry out a new line of research and different theoretical views that are still brewing, it would seem that more recent theories are beginning to acknowledge that the social environment might play a role in acquisition. Furthermore, they suggest that learners use and may notice corrective feedback. They also propose that besides providing learners with access to the spoken foreign language, teachers give them support for acquiring the target language.

Finally, it is significant that since Long (1991) in his Interaction Hypothesis postulated that 'implicit negative feedback' was more beneficial in SLA, many researchers have almost exclusively examined this type of teacher reaction.

Chapter 2

TEACHER REACTIONS AND SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

This chapter considers sociocultural theory (SCT) or the Neo-Vygotskian approach as one alternative and new psychological perspective for describing and explaining SLA processes such as “Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output”. We will begin by presenting a brief history of socioculturalism discussing: i) the Vygotskian premise, ii) the notion of ‘activity theory’ and iii) sociocultural applications to educational contexts.

We will focus on the key constructs of this approach such as: i) ‘mediation’, ii) the ‘zone of proximal development’ (ZPD) and iii) ‘scaffolding’.

Furthermore, we will attempt to illustrate how sociocultural theory has been applied to the FL classroom context. We will examine several issues connected with teacher reaction moves such as: i) joint activity and guided interaction and ii) the verbal and non-verbal in communicative teaching activities. On the whole, we will endeavour to give a sociocultural interpretation of teacher reactions.

Finally, the last section will consider how SLA might be reconceptualised in a new sociocultural guise.

2.1 BRIEF HISTORY OF SOCIOCULTURALISM

Socioculturalism, sociocultural theory (SCT) or the Neo-Vygotskian approach is a view of human development which is based on the postulates of the Soviet semiotician and psychologist L.S. Vygotsky (1978, 1987b) and his disciples (Leontiev, 1981a, 1981b; Luria, 1976; Wertsch, 1980, 1985a). Originally, this perspective has focused on child development and L1 natural acquisition and built upon the Piagetian idea of the infant as an active learner (Piaget, 1926). Nevertheless, the Vygotskian perspective has significant divergences from Piaget as Table 2.1 summarises (for further information,

see Castorina et al., 1996).

Table 2.1 *Piagetian vs. Vygotskian child development views*

PIAGETIAN vs. VYGOTSKIAN CHILD DEVELOPMENT VIEWS	
PIAGET	VYGOTSKY
The child is an active independent constructor of his/her own knowledge.	The child internalises concepts preceded by socialisation.
Speaking evidences one's individual psychological development.	Speaking is learnt socially and is subsequently internalised.
Certain knowledge can only be learned in interaction with others.	Knowledge is developed through interaction.

Vygotsky stresses some aspects of child development, such as (Berk & Winsler, 1995; Bruner, 1990; Castorina et al., 1996; Cazden, 1993, 1996; Frawley, 1997; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Meehan, 1995; Newman & Holzman, 1993; Popkewitz, 1998; Rieber & Carton, 1987; Vygotsky, 1987a, 1987b):

- i. the importance of social interaction in learning and development
- ii. the foundations of human thought are established through communication with other human beings and mediation of cultural artifacts
- iii. the existence of biological developmental factors in mental disposition

Curiously enough, Vygotsky has never dealt with the formal instruction (FI) and acquisition of foreign languages (Dixon-Krauss, 1996). Nevertheless, since the 90s, a group of educational, SLA researchers and psychologists, labelled as the Neo-Vygotskians, have appropriated for themselves some ideas encapsulated in Vygotskian terminology in order to interpret learning processes (Wertsch et al., 1995). The primary reason is Vygotsky's conception of 'language' as: i) a tool for learning and ii) an aid to understanding and acquiring knowledge (Daniels, 2001; Lantolf, 2007).

In general, socioculturalism has become a new alternative for L2 cognitivism contrasted to traditional SLA theory. In the Neo-Vygotskian view, language acquisition occurs concurrently and is interactively developed: i) "*in the head*" of a learner and ii) externally "*in the world*" (Atkinson, 2002: 525). In Vygotsky's view, mental processes are shaped socially through practice and context. Looked at in this way, linguistic acquisition is linked to social practices such as interactive mechanisms and learning conditions (McCarthy, 2001). Therefore, the learner is considered a social actor that

develops linguistic skills through interaction with other interlocutors (Pekarek-Doehler, 2000).

2.1.1 Vygotskian perspective

Sociocultural supporters (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991) defend the position that human beings develop higher psychological systems through communication and using verbal and non-verbal semiotic systems. The Vygotskian general theory of human mental development and functioning depicts mental activities as having two sides (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; Johnson, 2004; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Platt & Brooks, 2008; Vygotsky, 1987b):

- i. **'interpsychological'**, i.e., constructed through socialised speech and/ or culturally constructed artifacts
- ii. **'intrapsychological'**, i.e., developed in human brains

Distinctively, Vygotsky (op.cit.) considers 'discourse' as one key component of language learning and human development. He claims that linguistic tools, the social environment, interactants and cultural differences play supporting roles in cognitive development. On the other hand, 'higher mental functions' (i.e., rational thought and learning) originate in the interpersonal plane that is external to the individual (Vygotsky, 1981: 163).

Referring to child development, Vygotsky (1978) has suggested that children's cognitive skills develop through social interaction with more proficient interactants performing a given task. The child learns from other individuals in social interaction and appropriates intramental tools for thinking, problem-solving and remembering (Garton, 1992; Wertsch, 1985b; Wertsch & Tulviste, 1996).

In formal educational contexts, Neo-Vygotskians have reformulated these Vygotskian views and postulated that student-teacher or peer interactive speech are joint-process instances of learning. In this understanding, the learner is aided by a more skilled person at the moment of the interaction (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998; Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995; Meehan, 1995; Moll, 1990; Nykos & Hashimoto, 1997; Robbins, 2003; Rogoff, 1990; Tudge, 1992; Wertsch, 1991).

2.1.2 Activity Theory

Activities have unique motives and goals for participants. Vygotsky's successor, Leontiev (1979, 1981b) formulated Activity Theory as a descriptive framework to study social contexts where learning takes place (Beach, 1995; Engestrom, 1999; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Leontiev, 1979; Luria, 1976; Wertsch, 1981).

Leontiev's theory (1989) suggested that any action we carry out is:

- i. framed within a specific activity context
- ii. defined by the purpose that drives us to perform it making it meaningful

This construct can be considered as one analytical research tool. It reflects that human activities are shaped by goals and motives in a given context (Lantolf & Appel, *op.cit.*).

Regarding child development theory, Vygotsky claims that children learn through interpersonal activity (Kozulin, 1998). For instance, infants might develop through play with adults, triggering potentially mental learning processes. According to this version of events, the child may learn how to control a given concept without the assistance of others (Juan Garau & Pérez-Vidal, 2001).

In classroom research, the 'activity' is becoming the dominant unit of analysis (Coughlan & Duff, 1994; Ellis, 2003; Lantolf & Genung, 2002; Parks, 2000). We can see how teachers, through classroom discourse and non-verbal actions achieve didactic goals. The sociocultural activities are characterised by specific actions such as pupils learning collaboratively or being used by the teacher as a support. We must bear in mind that internal mental activity has its origins in external dialogic activity for Neo-Vygotskians and Vygotsky himself. Specifically, classroom talk is being considered as a 'cognitive activity' geared to solve problems (Platt & Brooks, 1994).

Finally, 'speech activity' appears to be shaped by the participants' goals and the 'mediational means' (Donato & McCormick, 1994; Lantolf, 2001; Py, 2000) to reach these goals (e.g., language, computers, paper, etc.) we will develop in subsequent sections.

2.1.3 Sociocultural applications to educational contexts

In educational contexts, sociocultural perspectives have been mostly introduced in L1, literature, sciences and maths classrooms (Donato, 2000; Forman et al., 1993; Lantolf, 2006; Moll, 1990; Newman et al., 1984; Palinscar, 1998; Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Significantly, Vygotsky only analysed first language acquisition in educational contexts. He showed how the learner confronted with very difficult tasks learns progressively to solve them, if guided by a competent partner. Simultaneously, the learner might develop his/her capacities. Conversely, teacher moves or reactions to learner products are considered as supports for learning. As we will present in Section 2.3, learners in a FL classroom environment need language for comprehension and in order to acquire knowledge.

2.2 THE SOCIOCULTURAL FRAMEWORK: KEY CONCEPTS

2.2.1 Mediation and tools

The notion of 'mediation' is a key concept for Vygotskian theory (Appel & Lantolf, 1994; Donato & McCormick, 1994). Vygotsky posits that humans use tools to act upon the world to satisfy their needs and achieve goals. According to Neo-Vygotskian paradigms human beings are born with certain abilities (Olmedo, 2003). Nevertheless, social and collaborative behaviours can activate innate abilities through interaction (Stetsenko & Arievidtch, 1997).

The means to achieve skills are potentially enhanced if activities are carried out jointly (Engestrom, 1999; Wells, 1993; Wertsch, 1994). If these instruments are used fittingly and appropriately, individuals might improve their personal knowledge, culture and society and, ideally be better species (Scribner, 1985; Vygotsky, 1981; Wertsch, op.cit.). Likewise, our minds are mediated by the social, historical and cultural contexts (Luria, 1982). Therefore, human behaviour is shaped by social and cultural aspects.

Lantolf (2006) presents how cultural factors mediate relationships:

- i. among people

- ii. between people and the physical world
- iii. between people and their inner mental worlds

For Neo-Vygotskians, human mental activity arises as a result of the internalisation of social relationships (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006b; Vygotsky, 1987b). Lantolf (2000: 537) suggests that “*language appears, developmentally speaking, first on the interpsychological plane (i.e., as social speech) and only afterwards on the intrapsychological plane (i.e., as internalised or inner speech)*”.

On the topic of general development, ‘mediation’ might help children to integrate symbolical tools according to their biological characteristics (Aram & Levin, 2002; Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; Luria, 1982). For instance, in social interaction, the child uses speech and gesture to regulate joint attention, to identify and label objects, to classify, to explain, etc. Therefore, innate capacities are socioculturally constructed through ‘mediational means’.

Kozulin (2003: 18) distinguished two agents of ‘mediation’: i) human beings and ii) symbols. According to this version of events, human beings access their worlds in indirect ways through tools. These ‘cultural tools’ “*provide the link or bridge between the concrete actions carried out by individuals and groups, on the one hand, and cultural, institutional, and historical settings, on the other*”.

In addition, activities are ‘culturally’ mediated by (Vygotsky, 1978):

- i. ‘**Symbolic artifacts**’: abstract tools empowering humans to organise and control mental processes. For instance, voluntary attention, voluntary memory, voluntary learning, problem solving, planning and evaluation.
- ii. ‘**Physical tools**’: concrete objects such as computers, books, language, drawings, pencils, etc.

Specifically, Vygotsky (1987b) claims that language is a ‘mediational tool’ for:

- i. thinking (on the intrapsychological plane)
- ii. regulating people’s actions (on the interpsychological plane)

Distinctively, 'language' seems to be the key mediating tool for development in all forms of higher-order mental processing, such as attending, planning, and reasoning (Lantolf, 2003; Vygotsky, 1981; Wertsch, 1995; Wertsch & Stone, 1985). Furthermore, it is seen as a tool that the individual uses to socialise with others. Through socialisation, learners assist each other to perform a shared task.

In particular, the sociocultural approach suggests that language learning is a developmental process, whereby individuals use the language as a tool for socialisation and for cognitive growth (Appel & Lantolf, 1994). Volosinov (1973) refers to language as the main tool that helps us to gain better knowledge or understanding.

In classroom contexts, human behaviours in interaction include various kinds of teacher support or sources of 'mediation' such as referential words, gestures, written media and material tools (for instance, the use of a blackboard or a computer) (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Appel & Lantolf, 1994; Aubertin, 1999; Cheon, 2008; Floyd-Tenery, 1995; Lantolf, 2007; McCafferty, 2002; Sime, 2008).

In summary, 'mediation' covers the use of tools to monitor and/or regulate mental activity (Wells, 1999; Wertsch, 1998).

2.2.2 The Zone of Proximal Development

The 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) is the symbolic space where learning and development might take place through the dialogue between the expert (i.e., the teacher or knowledgeable peer) and the novice (i.e., learner) (Richard-Amato, 1988). Vygotsky (1978: 86) defined the ZPD as "*the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with peers*".

According to the Vygotskian view of child development "*play enables a child to become what he or she is not; it creates a zone of proximal development (ZPD) in which the child explores not-yet-acquired adult roles and values that are socioculturally appropriate*" (Schinke-Llano, 1995: 21). Therefore, the ZPD is the distance between what a learner can do and one's potential to engage the help of the expert of a given

activity according to their actual developmental level (Vygotsky, 1978). In simpler terms, the ZPD is what a person can do with assistance from a knowledgeable other.

Correspondingly, the 'zones of proximal development' are created through interaction with dialogical partners (Chaiklin, 2003). The ZPD has generated several interpretations:

- i. it is not fixed but refers to emerging skills and abilities of the learner potentially unfolded through interaction (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998; Wells, 1999).
- ii. it is jointly determined by the learner level of development and the adequacy of the collaboration (Wertsch, 1985b)
- iii. it encourages the learner to continue interaction until solving a learning task (Chaiklin, op.cit.)

In addition, the 'zone of proximal development' suggests that adjusted collaboration of adults or more skilled peers might help learners in developing 'self-regulation' (i.e., the capacity for independent problem solving) (Wertsch, 1991; Zimmerman, 2000). Throughout the ZPD, learners can use instruction and imitation to enhance their current learning stage. Specifically, learners as children or unskilled beginners can move through the different stages displayed in the following table:

Table 2.2 *Sociocultural regulation stages*

SOCIOCULTURAL REGULATION STAGES	
CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
1.Object-regulation	Learners are tightly controlled first by objects in their environment at the initial stages.
2.Other-regulation	Learners are conditioned by the environment and need support from tools or partners at intermediate stages.
3. Self-regulation	Learners finally gain control over their own social and cognitive activities and can perform learning tasks alone.

According to this, learners have to move from 'other-regulation' to 'self-regulation' to progress in learning. Moreover, learners working in the 'zone of proximal development' are said to be 'other-regulated' when they are led through dialogue with an assistant to complete a task. The transition from 'other-regulation' to 'self-regulation' occurs as a result of 'mediation'.

In educational contexts, the ZPD notion is becoming central in Vygotskian analyses of learner and expert interaction (Doolittle, 1997). It represents a metaphorical way to existence of individual learner capacities and the potential benefits of interaction in learning. Characteristically, the 'zone of proximal development' suggests that only the collaboration of adults or more skilled peers contributes to the development of 'learner self-regulation' (i.e., the capacity for independent problem solving).

Additionally, Vygotsky (1978) has operationalised the 'zone of actual development' (ZAD) referring to what people can do by themselves. Therefore, for the ZPD to turn into ZAD it must be contextualised and supported by practice and action (that is, mental and physical) (Doolittle, op.cit.). Those constructs can describe the functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation in an embryonic state.

In summary, the sociocultural approach acknowledges the potential collaborative and constructive process created between the teacher and learners during classroom instruction. Teaching has become like a window to study episodes of assistance of learners through the 'zone of proximal development'. Furthermore, the ZPD has similarities with the level of acquisition of foreign language learners as we will develop specifically in Section 2.3.1.

2.2.3 Scaffolding

Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) have put forward the metaphor of 'scaffolding' to describe how a tutor and a child jointly constructed a wooden puzzle. This term refers to the *"temporary, but essential, nature of the mentor's assistance as the learner advances in knowledge and understanding"* (Maybin et al., 1992: 186). Therefore, the image of 'scaffolding' suggests a temporary support, which is gradually withdrawn as the child is more able to work independently.

Bruner (1983: 60) has defined it as a *"handover principle", which involves a process of setting up the situation to make the child's entry easy and successful, and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilful enough to manage"*.

According to this version of events, 'scaffolding' is the process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal in collaboration with a more knowledgeable person. Specifically, in 'scaffolding', the more competent partner may help the child to develop cognitive processes and linguistic competence through interaction. Thus, learning seems to emerge as the result of interaction aimed at the learners' needs in a joint process between a tutor and a learner within the ZPD (Cazden, 1981).

In particular, it appears that learning might take place if children are given opportunities of interaction with adults (Bruner, 1986). Initially, adult-child interactions are controlled by adults. Subsequently, children progressively have more space for leading the joint task.

A number of studies have accounted for two types of 'scaffolding':

- i. **'Self-scaffolding'**: the processes where learners internalise support searching for target rules intrapsychologically (Behrend et al., 1992).
- ii. **'Multiple-scaffolding'**: the assisted processes where teacher or knowledgeable partners provide input interacting with learners interpsychologically (Peregoy, 1999).

On the other hand, it appears that the task tutor might adjust the task to the individual level of competence of a learner. Wood et al. (1976) have identified in 'scaffolding' six distinct tutor strategies for facilitating learning:

- i. raising and maintaining the child's interest in the task
- ii. simplifying the task, breaking it down into smaller steps for the child
- iii. reminding the child of the task aims, if attention is wandering
- iv. explaining the key aspects of the task and showing alternative ways of carrying it out
- v. controlling the child's frustration for reducing his/her stress
- vi. proposing in an idealised way how to carry out the task

Therefore, it seems that the notion of 'scaffolding' can define any learning activity intended to support it. Consequently, this concept has been reformulated as the

teacher helping to trigger learning interactively by problem-solving through progressive steps (Baquero, 1996; Cazden, 1991; Mitchell & Myles, 1998; Wang et al., 2001).

In a subsequent work, Bruner (1986: 75) has linked the concept of 'scaffolding' with the Vygotskian 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD). This author shares with Vygotsky the view that learning is a socially constructed process. In this understanding, learners might take profit from social interactions under guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers advancing from one lower level of knowledge to a higher level.

Some scholars have established that 'scaffolding' can be external or mental (Fernandez et al., 2001; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006a). The external aspect is depicted by the conversational moves of the participants to resolve the task. Nevertheless, the characterisation of 'mental scaffolding' (Peterson & Comeaux, 1987) that takes place within the learner's mind is not yet well defined. Some researchers have suggested that it facilitates the student's ability to build on prior knowledge and internalise new information. Nevertheless, their explanations are symbolic and not empirically proved (Ellis, 2003; Peregoy, 1991, 1999; Mitchell & Myles, 1998).

In particular, certain authors (McCormick & Donato, 2000) consider more comprehensively how teacher actions and talk might act as 'scaffolds' to pupil learning. Teaching is considered as "*assisted performance*" (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988: 12). By this definition, 'scaffolding' is considered as a didactic aid in which the teacher gradually removes their knowledge support when the learner demonstrates increased competence and is able to solve the problem alone. In this understanding, the ideal goal of those studies dealing with levels of teacher support is discovering one instructor style that might provide one effective 'scaffolding' for learners (Maybin et al., 1992; Wood et al., 1976):

- i. helping them improve their independent problem-solving abilities
- ii. adjusting to their intellectual development

The notion of 'scaffolding' has been progressively applied to L1 acquisition, mainstream classrooms and L2 acquisition situations (Allal & Ducrey, 2000; Bodrova & Leong, 1996, 1998; Donato, 1994; Gibbons, 2002; Jacobs, 2001; Mantero, 2002; Nassaji & Swain, 2000; Newman et al., 1989; Robbins, 2001). Bruner (1983: 60) refers to first language development saying that: "[*The teacher*] provides a scaffold to assure

that the [learners'] ineptitudes can be rescued or rectified by appropriate intervention, and then removes the scaffold part by part as the reciprocal structure can stand on its own".

Overall, most sociocultural studies report that the expert of a given task, or a teacher, might scaffold to correct or to lead learner thinking towards a specific direction (Johnson, 1995).

2.3 THE SOCIOCULTURAL APPROACH TO THE FL CLASSROOM CONTEXT

Despite the fact that Vygotsky (1978) did not carry out any research into SLA, since the 80s his SLA followers have applied some of his ideas in interaction studies and reformulated several basic notions (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Bange, 1992a; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Donato & Adair-Hauck, 1992; Donato & McCormick, 1994; Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; Froc, 1995; Gallimore & Tharp, 1990; Krafft & Dausendschön-Gay, 1993; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Schinke-Llano, 1995). Nevertheless, only a small number of studies have adopted them in empirical research (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Donato & McCormick, 1994; McCarthy, 2001).

Frawley and Lantolf (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; Lantolf & Frawley, 1984) stand as the pioneer scholars studying SLA issues through a sociocultural lens. Their originality lies in the psychology for SLA research and pedagogy focusing on the primary tool for mediating mental activity: "language" (Mitchell & Myles, 1998). Initially, they focused on how learners cope with difficult FL tasks in classroom contexts. For a while, their work was scarcely taken into consideration. The publication of the book *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* by Lantolf and Appel (1994) finally raised interest in SLA sociocultural research.

In general, most SLA sociocultural studies examine FL classroom communicative patterns that might be susceptible to serve as learning supports. The majority consider the different degrees of learner help (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). The underlying idea is that 'scaffolding' in L2 contexts might facilitate SLA and potentially allow learners to proceed to higher levels of target language development (Robbins, 2003).

2.3.1 Joint activity and guided interaction

The basic tenet of the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective is that knowledge is social in nature. It is primarily constructed through collaboration, interaction and communication among learners and knowledgeable partners (Vygotsky, 1978, 1987b).

Most studies based on sociocultural theoretical frameworks have dealt with oral contexts or with collaborative frames in writing (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Froc, 1995; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Schinke-Llano, 1986). In particular, these pieces of research have dealt with individual error correction in the group setting -except Donato and Mc Cormick's study (1994) attempts to prove tutorial interaction or peer teaching in writing activities and show instances of 'implicit corrective feedback' that are said to be facilitative forms of 'self-regulation'. This similarity relates it to the social interactionist approach of SLA (see Chapter 3, Section 3.5).

According to SLA socioculturalists (Lantolf, 2007), socially constructed L2 knowledge seems to be a necessary condition for interlanguage development. Therefore, the learner is conceived as a social actor that develops linguistic skills through interaction with a more expert interlocutor (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1992, 1994; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2000, 2004; Pekarek Doehler, 1999, 2000). Looked at in this way, FL acquisition is conceived as a product of activities carried out jointly that encourage learning.

In particular, Neo-Vygotskians believe that learners may potentially learn more if the learner is able to profit from the help the expert can offer during learning tasks in interaction (Lantolf, 2006). Therefore, teacher reactions are considered from the sociocultural point of view as learner supports. For that reason, a number of studies describing SL classroom interaction in detail have segmented and analysed SLA joint activities and guided interaction adopting the sociocultural terminology of Vygotsky (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Donato & McCormick, 1994; Froc, 1995; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006a, 2006b; Mattos, 2000; Nassaji & Wells, 2000).

Sociocultural proponents have applied Vygotskian terminology to SLA as it appears to explain some SL interaction processes better (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985) such as:

- i. the communicative patterns that are susceptible to serving as a support for learning
- ii. the different degrees that the learner has to enlist help of an expert or a knowledgeable peer

Distinctively, SL learners find themselves in the 'other-regulated stage' at the initial stages of language acquisition. In this situation, learners need to solicit the help of an adult, a native interlocutor or other peers to settle difficulties in communication or to accomplish a task. On the other hand, learners find themselves in the 'self-regulated stage' when they are able to produce, to interpret statements or accomplish a task in an autonomous way (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Despite 'scaffolding' not having been originally intended to explain foreign language acquisition, Vygotskian perspectives have already begun to be applied in SLA, for two decades (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato & McCormick, 1994; Hall, 1993; John-Steiner, 1988; Kinginger, 2002; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Poehner & Lantolf, 2005; Schinke-Llano, 1993). In this understanding, the teacher acts as a collaborator providing 'scaffolding' that might potentially help the student to acquire greater understanding and knowledge in the L2. Studies in this area are applying 'scaffolding' and the ZPD to L2 research focus on:

- i. feedback strategies in task-based language learning (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Nassaji & Cumming, 2000; Ohta, 1995, 2000a, 2000b)
- ii. assessments of language teaching (Kinging, 2002; Nykos & Hashimoto, 1997)

Initial research in SLA has been more concerned with errors linked to linguistic structures. Those moves might serve as hints of 'discourse regulation' while implementing a task (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). In the sociocultural approach, it seems that a more skilled person can assist a learner until s/he can do it competently on his/her own. Ideally, in line with the novice responses in interaction, the expert tries to improve directives to lead eventually to success in a learning activity.

Progressively, the roles of teachers and learners have been analysed together as joint partners in the L2 learning process in collaborative activities (Donato, 2004). Hence

teachers are not considered merely as 'providers of input' and students as mere 'input receivers'. On the other hand, students are aided during tasks by tutors or more knowledgeable peers. Furthermore, the adjusted expert help of a teacher might encourage the learner to carry on interaction until solving a task. Overall, this approach acknowledges the potential collaborative and constructive process created between teacher and learners during classroom instruction.

The process of 'scaffolding' carried out by teachers has been labelled as 'reconceptualization' by Cazden (1988) and 'reconstruction' by Edwards and Mercer (1987). In those situations, interlocutors stop a task to exchange information to clarify a question and explain the meaning of a term. The episodes leading to cognitive development occurring moment by moment in social interaction have been labelled as 'microgenesis' (Gánem Gutiérrez, 2008) in sociocultural terms.

In classroom contexts, a number of studies have revealed that the usual pattern of linguistic classroom exchanges favouring 'scaffolding' consists of communicative sequences. These sequences involve: i) an initiation, ii) a response and iii) an evaluation (Baquero, 1996; Cazden, 1991; Mercer, 1994; Rojas-Drummond et al., 1998). In this understanding this structure coincides with the IRF classroom discourse pattern (see Chapters 1 and 3).

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) have focused on the role of the teacher in assisting performance in order to further clarify the concept of 'scaffolding' in a classroom context. They present seven activities that might scaffold: 1) modelling, 2) providing feedback, 3) applying contingency management (i.e., rewards and punishments), 4) directing, 5) questioning, 6) explaining, and 7) structuring tasks.

Going further, a group of scholars have hypothesised that 'scaffolding' in the classroom might facilitate to a certain extent some cognitive changes on the part of learners. This learner cognitive activity may involve higher mental processes such as "*logical memory, selective attention, reasoning, analysis, and the metacognitive dimension of problem solving*" (Donato & McCormick, 1994: 456). It seems that 'learner conscious awareness' of the learning task is primordial in this view (Cazden, 1991; Edwards & Mercer, 1987).

Neo-Vygotskians portray and analyse in FL studies how learners are confronted by difficult tasks. These studies depict how learners progressively attempt to solve them while guided by a competent partner and simultaneously develop his/her capacities.

De Pietro, Matthey and Py (1989) tried to identify sequences favouring 'scaffolding' and called them Potentially Acquisitional Sequences ("*Séquences Potentiellement Acquisitionnelles*"). This notion is a term coined by Kallmeyer and Schütze (1976). In this understanding, errors are significant because they can be considered as a learner's efforts to control their mental activity from 'other-regulation' to 'self-regulation'. It seems that 'scaffolding' may be a suitable descriptor of some teacher actions such as "Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output".

Remarkably, the ZPD has received considerable attention from foreign and second language specialists (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Chaiklin, 2003; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; DiCamilla et al., 2003; Dunn & Lantolf, 1998; Lantolf, 2007; Nassaji & Cumming, 2000; Richard-Amato, 1988; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). From this perspective, 'foreign language learning' is viewed as a process by which learners engage in co-constructing their L2 knowledge through socialisation and different levels of help. That is, individuals who have knowledge and skills at a higher level assist those who are less capable or know less.

It appears that through collaborative dialogue, students are engaged in building knowledge jointly through 'scaffolding'. The ZPD notion is becoming central in Neo-Vygotskian analyses linking the individual learner capacities and the potential benefits of interaction in learning.

Particularly, in cognitive terms SLA Neo-Vygotskians suggest that when the learner takes more advantage of FL teacher support, the wider is their 'zone of proximal development' which is less 'self-regulated' in learning. Nevertheless, there is little research concerning discourse strategies that occur in the ZPD and their implications in 'regulation' (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Moving from 'other-regulation' to 'self-regulation' is also described as 'internalisation' (Donato & Lantolf, 1990). In this respect, from the basis of education, people interacting with other people go through their ZPD (Daniels, 2001). In a classroom

context, learning can take place through constructive dialogue among the participants. Specifically, this occurs when the teacher fully caters for the student's needs and assists his/her internalisation of the content (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Furthermore, inspired by Activity Theory (Leontiev, 1979), two SLA sociocultural models have been created:

- i. **'Interaction as Speech Activity'**: talk becomes the tool to carry out learning activities.
- ii. **'Interaction as Apprenticeship'**: interaction and negotiation with other participants are seen as primary vehicles for developing learning.

The model of interaction as speech activity appears to provide a framework to explain the roles of teachers and students during FL activities where speech is a tool for learning and is one of the most basic tenets of the Neo-Vygotskian Activity Theory (Leontiev, 1979; Luria, 1961, 1976; Wells, 2002). 'Interaction as apprenticeship' has yielded two interpretations:

- i. **'Modelling interpretation'**: interactive actions providing opportunities for students to observe and take as their own language, skills, and behaviours of teachers or more experienced peers (Wertsch & Bivens, 1992).
- ii. **'Text-mediational interpretation'**: actions where learners participate to generate new meanings with other interactants (Lotman, 1988).

The model of interaction as apprenticeship refers to the phenomena taking place interpsychologically and intrapsychologically in learning. It is hypothesised that such interactional speech serves three general 'regulatory' purposes (Frawley & Lantolf, 1984):

- i. **'Control of the object'**: learner attempt to define and control the task at hand.
- ii. **'Control of the other'**: participants' efforts to assist their interlocutor in accomplishing the task.
- iii. **'Control of the self'**: learner independent control over functions which were previously regulated by another interlocutor or object.

Characteristically, the 'control of the object' appears to be gauged by the time and effort that students devote to talking during tasks and how they will accomplish them (Brooks & Donato, 1994). Furthermore, 'control of the self' producing 'private speech' (Bedford, 1985; Behrend et al., 1992; Centeno-Cortés & Jiménez-Jiménez, 2004; Diaz & Berk, 1992; McCafferty, 1994, 1998; Negueruela & al., 2004; Platt & Brooks, 1994; White, 1997) is evidenced when part of the learner spontaneous talk appears to be directed to themselves rather than to their partner while solving a task.

One area that is being productive in the SCT covers the L2 features internalised by learners through 'imitation' in private speech (Lantolf, 2006). Nevertheless, the details of the processes triggering the connection between the linguistic features of 'private speech' and the ones deployed by L2 speakers in their social performance are not explained in studies.

In summary, scholars adopting this approach suggest that learner active participation in interaction is crucial to linguistic appropriation (Lantolf, 2007). Nevertheless, an unsolved question in sociocultural theory in SLA is the relationship of ZPD with the real developmental state of learner language (Brouwer & Wagner, 2004). Therefore, the sociocultural aspects in SLA contexts are still being investigated and there are not yet conclusive results in cognitive terms. Nevertheless, it appears that didactic activities contain external 'scaffolding' features that can be identified in empirical data.

2.3.2 The verbal and non-verbal in communicative teaching activities

The sociocultural approach to SLA contexts depicts learning in FL classrooms as constructed through face-to-face interaction among teachers and students. In this understanding, episodes of spoken discourse can co-occur and complement other behaviours while carrying out classroom tasks (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006b).

In FL and CLIL classrooms, it is assumed that language is one prominent tool for 'mediation' (Gibbons, 2003). Therefore, most studies have focused on the linguistic components (Lantolf, 2006). Initial research in this area has been more interested in errors linked to linguistic structures than in non-verbal paralinguistic phenomena (hesitations, pauses, etc.) or conversational strategies such as teacher recasts. These

moves might also serve as hints of the regulation of discourse implementing a task (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Sime, 2008).

One of the few studies dealing with SL discourse is that of Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994) which analyses the communicative dynamics during explicit instruction of a grammatical concept instructed within the ZPD. This study is a pioneer in SLA socioculturalism since it attempts to elucidate how the expert explains something by leading the learner towards full participation, supporting him/her and guiding his/her actions throughout the ZPD.

Curiously, it seems that some researchers claim that the use of the L1 is a mediator in SLA to adjust to the situation of the learners (Antón & DiCamilla, 1998; Auerbach, 1993; Centeno-Cortés & Jiménez-Jiménez, 2004; Di Camilla et al., 2003; Ohta, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). A number of studies reveal that learners adopt it when they are given the opportunity.

According to Kozulin (1990: 116) "*the essential element in the formation of higher mental functions is the process of internalization*" or "inner speech". In particular, the use of L1 in 'internalisation' enables humans to abstract from physical objects and material actions (Lantolf, 2006). On the other hand, Auerbach (1993) suggests different situations for using the mother tongue. We find these among teacher explanations related to: classroom management, task presentation, instructions, teacher feedback, language analysis, explanations about the target language functioning and discussion of cross-cultural issues.

Furthermore, 'scaffolding' may contain non-verbal components that might support the learning activities (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006b; McCafferty, 2002, 2008; Sime, 2008). Besides the tools presented in Section 2.2.1, we find specific assorted FL didactic material tools such as overhead projectors, realia, posters, wall charts, maps, flashcards, puppets, the TV, the video player, the CD Rom, etc. These varied didactic tools might allow FL learners to appropriate new concepts in the target language adjusted to the language levels.

Some studies have mentioned that 'scaffolding' contains gestural components yet do not analyse them fully. Nevertheless, there is one emergent theoretical area in

socioculturalism applied to SL learning that suggests further research about the appropriation and use of gestures as instances of mediation in FL acquisition (Lantolf, 2007; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006b; McCafferty & Stam, 2008).

McNeill (2000) confers different co-functions of gestures coordinated with speech that can be interpreted as follows in 'scaffolding':

- i. In 'inner speech', gestures can be windows into cognitive processes (McNeill, 1992).
- ii. In 'private speech', speakers can generate some gestures while thinking-for-speaking or internalising knowledge (McNeill & Duncan, 2000; Slobin, 1996).
- iii. As a 'psychological predicate', gesture can be used to identify specific moments of linguistic tensions during dialogue (e.g., beats) (McNeill, 2000).

Some Neo-Vygotskian authors have suggested connections between gesture and L2 learning (Lantolf, 2007; McCafferty, 2004, 2008; McCafferty & Stam, 2008; Platt & Brooks, 2008; Sime, 2008). Distinctively, McCafferty (2004) examines "*the use of gesture and space as a self-organizing form of mediation for L2 learning*" (McCafferty, op.cit.: 149). It appears that in his study gestures fulfil communicative functions and students imitate their conversational partners' gestures.

For instance, at the initial levels in the ZPD the teacher extensively uses materials and gestures to capture the student's interest and guide him (McCafferty, 1994, 2002). Those non-verbal tools are supposed to attract learner attention during interaction among the teacher and students in classroom context. Additionally, it seems that learners display gestures that play different roles in 'mediation'. Some gestures may mediate in L2 learning as part of 'self-scaffolding' (Lantolf, 2003; McCafferty, 2004).

2.3.3 Sociocultural interpretations of teacher reactions to FL learner output

In FL contexts, learners are assisted through teacher talk to reach the next developmental level of L2 learning. This process is complementary and asymmetrical and evolves throughout the ZPD. Some studies (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato & McCormick, 1994; Poehner & Lantolf, 2005; Schinke-Llano, 1993) have pointed out that:

- i. the difficulty level gradually changes as the learner progresses towards a higher level of development
- ii. teachers deploy different kinds of semiotic systems in classroom interaction, possibly adjusting to the students ZPD levels

A number of authors (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Newman et al., 1989; Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988) have focused on the role of the teacher as mediator.

Distinctively, Neo-Vygotskians (Donato & McCormick, 1994; Froc, 1995; Schinke-Llano, 1986) assume that when teachers give more implicit forms of feedback to their students during correction treatment, learners take more control over their linguistic activity in the FL.

Schinke-Llano (1986) has claimed that teacher 'overregulation' (i.e., more assistance) in joint cognitive activities prevents L1 and L2 learners from achieving 'self-regulation' or 'self-repair' in activities. This condition is described as less beneficial for learning since the learner may progress less. On the contrary, when the learner has less teacher intervention, s/he becomes more 'self-regulating' and may have more opportunities to advance in SL development.

Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994) have examined how a foreign language expert negotiates and mediates a foreign language grammar explanation with a novice speaker within the ZPD. These scholars noticed that teachers provide verbal and non-verbal cues to express to the novice that s/he is participating correctly.

Some authors have observed some general features of teacher talk (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Gibbons, 2003; Walsh, 2002) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3):

- 1) abbreviated speech
- 2) more indirect directives
- 3) questions to assist the student
- 4) confirmation checks
- 5) longer pauses
- 6) appraisals to maintain student engagement on the task

The outcomes of these series of studies have led a group of researchers to shift their focus on how L2 learners receive corrective feedback collaboratively. It seems that teacher help is gradually tuned and provided through a dialogic interaction between the tutor and the tutee.

Distinctively, Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) investigated 'scaffolding'. They found this type of assistance in the form of corrective feedback. These researchers developed a Regulatory Scale (see Table 2.3) to detect 'learner microgenetic development within the ZPD'.

Table 2.3 *The five transitional levels of development through the ZPD*

THE FIVE TRANSITIONAL LEVELS OF DEVELOPMENT THROUGH THE ZPD by Aljaafreh & Lantolf (1994). (Adaptation from the original text)	
LEVELS	DESCRIPTIONS
Level 1	The learner is not able to notice, or correct the error, even with the intervention of the teacher. The student is completely teacher-regulated. He or she cannot interpret the teacher moves devised to help him or her or probably he or she has no awareness that there is a problem. The teacher, therefore, must assume full responsibility for correcting the error. The tutor rather than providing corrective help focuses learner attention to the target form and, in so doing, the process of co-constructing the ZPD with the learner starts.
Level 2	The learner can notice the error, but cannot correct it, even with teacher intervention. This situation suggests some degree of development. Though the learner must rely heavily on the teacher. In contrast to level 1, a first move is provided for the teacher and the learner to begin negotiating the feedback process and for the learner to begin to progress towards self-regulation. The help required may be towards the lower, explicit, end of the regulatory scale.
Level 3	The learner can notice and correct an error, but only under other-regulation. The learner understands the teacher's intervention and can react to the feedback offered. The levels of help needed to correct the error move towards the strategic, implicit, end of the regulatory scale.
Level 4	The learner notices and corrects an error with minimal, or no obvious feedback from the teacher and begins to assume full responsibility for error correction. However, development has not yet become fully self-regulated, since the learner often produces the target form incorrectly and may still need the tutor to confirm the adequacy of the correction. The learner may even reject feedback from the teacher when it is unsolicited (e.g., "Let me see if I can do it alone").
Level 5	The learner becomes more consistent in using the target structure correctly in all contexts. Often, the individual's use of the correct target form is automatized. Whenever aberrant performance does arise, however, noticing and correcting of errors do not require intervention from someone else. Thus, the individual is fully self-regulated.

This instrument measured different kinds of teacher help from an implicit level to more explicit ones. The degrees of help have been represented in this analysis tool as a continuum consisting of 13 levels (see Appendix A). We present the reduced instrument version that starts from the most implicit help (Scale 1), where the learner is on the threshold of 'self-regulation'. When the learner progresses to the most explicit level of help, s/he can be 'other regulated'.

In addition Aljaafreh and Lantolf (op.cit.) have assumed that the five transitional levels might be subsumed into three general stages of learner development displayed in the table below.

Table 2.4 *The three stages of learner development*

THE THREE STAGES OF LEARNER DEVELOPMENT	
STAGES	DESCRIPTIONS
1 st (levels 1 to 3)	Other-regulation. At these levels the learner must rely in some way on another individual in order to perform. Without help from someone else, the individual is not able to notice or correct his or her errors.
2 nd (level 4)	Partial self-regulation. At this stage learners are fully capable of detecting and correcting their own mistakes without outside feedback. Still, their performance isn't still automatised.
3 rd (level 5)	Fully self-generated and automatised. Mistakes emanate from legitimate slips of the tongue, or the pen, rather than from incomplete learning.

In relation to the results of their study, Lantolf and Aljaafreh have determined that both 'explicit' and 'implicit' feedback are relevant for linguistic development. Notwithstanding, for feedback to be relevant it must be negotiated between the novice learner and the expert knower of the language, taking into account the learner's stage of development.

It appears that teachers use more positive feedback to reward learner efforts in the task in the third stage (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994). Conversely, learners ask for clarifications. In addition, teachers often: i) repeat some learners' utterances, ii) assist them through extensive questioning and iii) provide explicit hints.

The major drawback of Lantolf and Aljaafreh's study is its fairly descriptive nature. Specifically, there has been no comparison between corrective feedback delivered within the ZPD and corrective feedback provided regardless of the ZPD. Furthermore, there is little information elucidating how:

- i. the foreign language teacher mediates in the ZPD
- ii. interactive discourse facilitates the learning process

Aljafreeh and Lantolf (op.cit.) have conceived feedback as social and dialogic in nature. They have found that the teacher challenged the student to solve the problem on his own. Nassaji and Swain (2000: 35) have argued in relation to this measurement tool that *"error correction is considered as a social activity involving joint participation and meaningful transactions between the learner and the teacher"*.

Other series of studies have concluded that peer interaction either in groups or pairs results in the emergence of a ZPD (e.g., Brooks, 1992; Ohta, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Wasser & Bresler, 1996). These works of social interaction demonstrated L2 development in the ZPD. As a result of collaboration, learners gain language competence with the assistance of others. Furthermore, in her recent study Ohta (2000a) argues that the expertise of the peer or expert, the nature of the task, and the goals of the learners affect their ZPD.

Overall, studies reviewed assert that collaborative learning is beneficial in SLA contexts. Through 'collaborative scaffolding', learners expand their linguistic and cognitive skills to engage in problem-solving situations that can be related to other SLA approaches such as the social interactionist one (Long, 1996; see Chapters 1 and 3) (e.g., negotiation of meaning and form). The last goal of the investigation in the area of corrective feedback is to identify the different levels of regulation from the tutor in an attempt to optimise the teacher-student dialogic activity or interaction.

2.4 RECONCEPTUALISATION OF SLA RESEARCH: OLD IDEAS IN A NEW SOCIOCULTURAL GUISE

In recent years, we have been experiencing changes in SLA research in which different approaches such as Conversation Analysis and the SLA social interactionist approach acknowledge the influence of the environment in learning (see Chapters 1 and 3) (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Lantolf, 2007; Long, 1996). The underlying theoretical assumptions claim that certain types of teacher behaviours intervening in foreign language learner productions may be potentially more beneficial than others to apprenticeship.

The main thesis in the Neo-Vygotskian paradigm that substantiates this new SLA conception is the consideration of the social worlds (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). Teachers need to participate in dialogic activity with learners so that the latter might have chances to achieve appropriate cognitive and linguistic 'self-regulation'.

Sociocultural theory views the social context as the framework in which development occurs as the result of "*meaningful verbal interaction*" carried out by novices and experts (parents, older peers or teachers) (Vygotsky, 1978). In this approach there is a link between interpersonal use of language and cognitive development of 'inner speech' (therefore, learner active participation in interaction is crucial to linguistic appropriation) that was forgotten for decades by mentalist approaches (see Chapter 1). Consequently, the Vygotskian view of language learning seems to fit in present-day SLA research despite being psychological in theory. It appears to subsume SLA theories that are solely linguistic and acknowledges the social nature of the classroom (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Gallimore & Tharp, 1990).

Relatively few studies have examined the social nature in FL classroom empirical research. These studies adapting sociocultural theories to foreign language acquisition appear to confirm the former ideas of Vygotsky about child development:

- i. First, teacher intervention should be graduated. That is to say, the help provided by a more experienced member in a joint activity has to be adjusted to the novice's ZPD. As a result, this action might offer the appropriate level of assistance at his or her potential level of ability. In classroom contexts teachers use strategies to adapted to the novices' learning needs.
- ii. Second, help should be contingent. Help should only be offered when learners need it and teachers must cut it off as soon as the novice shows signs of self-control to function independently.

Overall, the sociocultural theory claims that adjusted teacher help rightly tuned to individual learner needs might enhance language acquisition (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006b).

Theoretically, 'scaffolding episodes' in FL instructional contexts might facilitate target language acquisition and potentially allow learners to proceed to higher levels of development. Therefore, the learner is conceived of as a social actor that develops linguistic skills through interaction with the assistance of a more expert interlocutor, moving from 'other-regulation' to 'self-regulation'.

The main differences between the SLA interactionist and the sociocultural paradigms are the following features:

- i. The sociocultural theory (SCT) places emphasis on the social, rather than the linguistic variables of human interaction.
- ii. The SLA interactionist view still holds that language is a system of rules in the brain.

Though the ZPD has been adopted more and more by SLA theory, there are still few articles of SLA adopting the sociocultural view. Second language literature supporting and proving the efficacy of Vygotskian concepts to describe acquisition processes has been published since the 1990s (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Anton, 1999; Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; DeGuerrero & Villamil, 1994, 2000; Donato, 1994; Donato & McCormick, 1994; Goss et al., 1994; Klingner & Vaughn, 2000; Lantolf, 2006, 2007; Ohta, 1995, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Neo-Vygotskians claim that teachers should make students aware of those teacher strategies that may help them accomplish classroom tasks (Lantolf, 2007). On the other hand, teachers should discover student lacks and preferences for learning. The respect to the needs and possibilities of the learner is defined as the key concept in acquisition in interaction (cf. ZPD, Vygotsky, 1978: 86). For Neo-Vygotskians, SL classroom interaction is one original context since the FL teacher, unlike maths or science teachers, uses a second language as a tool to support and carry out explanations.

In the present day, a group of foreign language researchers led by Lantolf (2006, 2007) call for more studies on the 'zones of proximal development' to improve the teaching of second languages. In particular, Mitchell and Myles (1998) suggest three productive areas that might be studied in FL learning environments from a sociocultural view: i) 'private speech', ii) 'activity theory', and iii) 'scaffolding' in the 'zone of proximal

development'. It is the latter area which is more relevant to the issues approached in the dissertation.

Moreover, Lantolf (2006) has proposed to investigate the ways FL learners acquire and develop the capacity to use conceptual and linguistic knowledge in a future SCT agenda. Distinctively, the impact of teaching approaches on teacher-student interaction. There are a few studies that highlight the importance of the impact of teaching approaches differing from mainstream ones on learner linguistic development (for instance, immersion or content-based learning).

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined sociocultural theory and defined it. We have presented the background of this approach, the main terminology and the central notions. Socioculturalism refers to human mental activity as primarily organised and mediated by social processes and tools. This view attempts to explain how different guidance levels of expertise help might lead the learner to acquire any type of knowledge. Furthermore, it considers metaphorically what might happen in the learner's mind while learning something.

In order to better understand research applying socioculturalism in FL environments, we have defined the main hypotheses and the Neo-Vygotskian key terms such as: ZPD, 'regulation', 'activity theory', 'private speech', 'mediation' and 'tool'. Furthermore, we have presented significant studies that have dealt with L2 contexts. This preliminary explanation has introduced how FL teacher reactions have been approached and interpreted in sociocultural studies. It seems that teacher interventions to target language deviant learner structures can be considered as instances of 'scaffolding' in sociocultural terms. The main frameworks used to investigate FL classrooms concern the view of activities. Lastly, two SLA sociocultural models have been outlined: i) Interaction as Speech Activity and ii) Interaction as Apprenticeship.

Finally, we have considered socioculturalism as an alternative and complementary emerging SLA paradigm, in line with SLA social interactionist approaches that consider the key role of the environment in learning.

Chapter 3

TEACHER REACTIONS AND FL CLASSROOM INTERACTION

This chapter reviews various approaches that analyse teacher and student SLA classroom interactions. We will place special emphasis on the questions related to Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs) in FL classroom oral activities. In general, four analytical tools or methods have studied SLA interactive processes through a multidisciplinary lens (Chaudron, 1988: 13):

- 1) **Psychometrics**: a discipline in the field of Psychology that measures human knowledge, abilities, attitudes, opinions and personality traits of the participants in a study.
- 2) **Ethnography**²⁶: the method of Cultural Anthropology for examining a person or group of people in their own environment.
- 3) **Discourse Analysis**: the transdiscipline concerned with the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech and written discourse.
- 4) **Conversation Analysis**: the discipline considering all types of conversations and attempting to elucidate the language used during specific interactive situations.

The abovementioned methods have been reformulated, giving rise to diverse lines of research throughout the years. They range from plain discourse descriptions of exchanges to multiple interpretations of the participants' roles and the social environment surrounding any type of communication.

Since the 1990s, a number of studies have tried to analyse interactive SLA contexts vis-à-vis the potential human learning evidences such as teacher reactions (Van Lier, 1988: 47). Additionally, the prevailing procedures used for studying language

²⁶ Psychometric and ethnographic traditions share methods and instruments associated with the statistical sciences. Additionally, a large number of Discourse Analysis studies back their outcomes on psychometric inferences.

acquisition in interactive contexts will be addressed, covering aspects such as: i) data collection issues, ii) coding systems and iii) analytical frameworks.

3.1 INITIAL IRF (INITIATION/RESPONSE/FEEDBACK) CLASSROOM DISCOURSE PATTERN STUDIES

Classroom discourse analysis has been a major subject in educational research. Since the 1960s and early 1970s initial discourse studies dealing with didactic interaction and influenced by Behaviourism have been satisfied with cataloguing regular linguistic patterns as we presented in Chapter 1, Section 1.2. (Cazden, 1986; 1988; Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981; Edwards & Mercer, 1987; Gee & Green, 1998; Lemke, 1990; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Stables, 2003; Wells, 1993; Wertsch, 1991).

The preliminary classroom interaction model is the tripartite teacher-student sequence developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). It consists of i) 'teacher initiation' (I), ii) 'student response' (R) followed by iii) 'teacher feedback' (F) or 'follow-up of the student response'. This educational sequence has been labelled as 'IRF' pattern²⁷ or 'triadic dialogue' (Lemke, 1990). Sinclair and Coulthard (op. cit.) proposed three subcategories of this final move compiled into Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) Follow-Up categories

FOLLOW UP MOVES	
CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
Accept	Teacher acceptance or rejection of a student answer (e.g., "yes").
Evaluate	Teacher move involving a form of assessment of the learner previous output (e.g., "good").
Comment	Teacher provision, expansion or justification of an answer (e.g., "that's interesting").

Extending the IRF model, Cullen (2002) claims that the 'follow up' or 'feedback' serves to modify student interlanguage. In addition, at this point the teacher may be faced with different choices:

²⁷ Halliday (1984) extended the 'summon and answer sequence' of everyday conversation. According to him, there are two basic exchange-types: i) Demand-Give-In-Response and ii) Give (unsolicited)-Accept. However, a third type may appear stemming from the combination of the other basic types such as Demand-Give-in-Response-Accept. This pattern might also take place in classroom contexts.

- 1) correcting learner utterances
- 2) continuing to develop the classroom interaction
- 3) declining to adopt the learner subtopic and changing the course of the interaction

The last move is also known as 'evaluation' in the American ethnographic circles (Mehan, 1979) and as well referred as IRE. Nevertheless, there are some slight differences between the Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) IRF and Mehan's (1979) IRE sequences. Largely, Mehan (op.cit.) mainly claims that:

- i. IRE classroom exchanges with unbreakable sequences mostly dominate classroom interaction
- ii. the classroom dynamics require a student to 'respond' to a 'teacher initiation' in terms of content, interaction timing and communicative convention appropriateness
- iii. the teacher usually starts and closes interactions

Basically, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) state that:

- i. the IRF components can be scrambled in order
- ii. teachers dominate the classroom discourse assuming the I and F moves
- iii. learners might adopt two strategies:
 - 1) **the 'pupil elicits'**: the student undertakes the I and R moves
 - 2) **the 'pupil informs'**: the student assumes the I and F moves

In general, the IRF/IRE classroom speech acts have been identified in subsequent studies according to their functions and categorised for later analysis (Willis, 1992). Most initial studies have been descriptive rather than interpretative in SLA contexts. Furthermore, the majority of studies in this area have been on 'content area classroom'²⁸ discourse.

²⁸ Content subjects cover areas such as Science, Mathematics, Physical Education and Social studies.

A number of studies from different disciplines have shown that classroom interaction is constrained by pre-allocated turns (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, 1992). Cazden (1988: 134) refers to it as *“limitations and rigidities characteristic of most teacher-student interactions”*.

Characteristically, this triadic IRF classroom pattern appears to grant “superior interactional rights” for teachers (Cullen, 2002; Gremmo et al., 1978; Mehan, 1979; Walz, 1986). Teachers appear to have total control of the classroom dialogue and social interactions (Tsui, 1995). It appears that around 70% of classroom interaction follows this highly ritualised traditional teaching pattern (Wells, 1993). According to this version of events, there is one asymmetry of power in the distribution of conversational rights:

- i. On the one hand, the teacher is viewed as the knower, input provider, turn taking manager and evaluator of learner responses (Pica, 1987; Vasseur, 2000).
- ii. On the other hand, the learner participation tends to correspond to responses (Jia, 2005; Mercer, 1995; Van Lier, 1988, 2001).

Dinsmore (1985) has defined the teacher power as incompatible to FL communicative approaches of teaching. In this sense, the IRF/IRE structure tends to limit the linguistic learner output in SLA contexts.

Significantly, a similar IRF/IRE imbalance among participants also takes place in parent-child-interaction (Wells, 1999). Therefore, it seems that the core goals in both contexts might be learning and education. On the contrary, in the majority of ordinary conversations (Van Lier, 1996):

- i. the listener and speaker roles are regularly exchanged with equal speaking rights
- ii. the final step consisting of providing feedback might not appear

Specifically, many classroom discourse studies illustrate that the teacher initiates the exchange and provides feedback (Waring, 2008; Wells, 1993).

The general outcomes of IRF studies reveal domineering classroom teacher roles such as:

- 1) maintaining the right to call on students allocating turns
- 2) questioning
- 3) assessing the student products
- 4) taking longer turns managing topics
- 5) high number of repetitions
- 6) controlling turn-taking

Regarding the FL classroom contexts, studies have traditionally focused for years on the Initiate/Response/Follow-Up sequence in support of error correction studies. A number of authors (Bellack et al., 1966; Cazden, 1988; Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981; Hodge, 1993; Lemke, 1990; Mehan, 1979; Richards, 2006; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wertsch, 1991) have aimed at describing and systematising the prevalent linguistic classroom patterns in teacher and student exchanges.

Particularly, the purposes of initial IRF studies were building models for analysing classroom discourse in order to find out regular classroom patterns in teacher-learner interactions. The predominant teaching style was extremely traditional, during the time early IRF studies emerged. Several works account that teachers rigidly monopolised classroom discourse (Chaudron, 1988; Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Fanselow, 1977; Jia, 2005; Llobera, 1995; Mehan, 1979; Mercer, 1995; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, 1992). In contrast, learners adopted a passive role in classroom interactions producing a small amount of speech (Jia, 2005; Mercer, op.cit.).

In addition, learners have limited opportunity to practise genuine communication in the target language. However, one drawback of most IRF studies has been that they did not take into account phenomena like the 'interactions among learners' within the classroom (Llinares García, 2002).

Currently, a significant number of studies have revealed that the commonest form of sequential actions starts with one 'teacher question' or 'elicitation' (Cazden, 2001). This teaching cycle appears to prevail in the formal interaction typical of form-and-accuracy in FL contexts (Johnson, 1995). Furthermore, some authors suggest that this structure

might monitor better classroom interaction for i) initiating interaction (Nassaji & Wells, 2000) or, ii) assessing better students (Musumeci, 1996).

Despite the fact that a series of works corroborate the IRF pattern regularity, Van Lier (1988) claims that classroom discourse does not strictly follow this traditional pedagogical archetype. The model IRF structure has been reformulated since less-structured educational speech instances have emerged throughout the years (Nikula, 2007; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992). There are episodes in which teachers might not give one immediate reply to learners or might be lost following their learners' productions. In addition, learners might initiate exchanges simultaneously with the teacher that is labelled as 'schismatic talk' (Van Lier, op.cit.).

Gradually, researchers have expanded the IRF to more complex patterns where the teacher might not produce an immediate reply. A teacher may draw on what the student has said and subsequently build on it such as (De Fina, 1997; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975):

- i. correcting, reformulating the FL student output or product or request for further clarification
- ii. addressing another student when a preceding one has previously produced a deviant language output form
- iii. advancing to topic development or shifting it

Present-day communicative language teaching classrooms are reshaping IRF classroom rigid dynamics (Ohta, 1994, 1999). A number of studies are encouraging microanalyses of classroom interaction in which IRF structure is more complex (Giordan, 2003; Hellermann, 2003; Jia, 2005; Waring, 2008). Looked at in this way, it seems that the basic IRF structure may take a variety of forms and functions depending on the goal of the activity and the personal teaching style. Nevertheless, one should be aware that the strict, traditional IRF teacher pattern is not past history in many FL classrooms around the world. In particular, many Asian, African and some European countries that do not follow the communicative approach of teaching, mainly due to these countries' socio-cultural backgrounds (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Chuang, 2003; Jia, 2005; Pontefracta & Hardman, 2005; Sakui, 2004; Yoon, 2004; Zhang, 2005).

On the subject of learning benefits, traditionally a number of studies have suggested without consistent proof that the high amount of teacher talk following IRF/IRE patterns might be a barrier to learner knowledge acquisition (Bellack et al., 1966; Britton, 1970; Brown et al., 1984; Cazden, 1988; Flanders, 1970; Hodge, 1993; McHoul, 1978; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). For instance, some authors have suggested that teacher discourse dominance might relegate learner participation using the target language in classroom interaction (Dinsmore, 1985; Nunan, 1987; Van Lier, 1982, 1996).

In recent years, researchers are becoming more concerned in examining the distinctive and potential facilitative learning components taking place in natural and formal language acquisition interactive contexts (Nassaji & Wells, 2000). Some studies have claimed that learners need more opportunities to use the FL in the classroom to acquire it. Van Lier (1996: 51) writes about this situation:

“In the IRF exchange, the student’s response is hemmed in, squeezed between a demand to display knowledge and a judgment on its competence. This can turn every student response into an examination, hence the frequently observed reluctance to ‘be called upon’ and to participate, and the paucity of linguistic elaboration when responding to that dreaded call. In addition to evaluating - or validating - the student’s response, the third turn closes the exchange, preventing the exploration of interesting avenues of thought initiated by the students. The IRF structure therefore does not represent true joint construction of discourse. At times, then, the IRF structure makes it unattractive and un-motivating for students to participate in classroom interaction, since their responses may be evaluated or examined publicly, rather than accepted and appreciated as part of a joint conversation”.

As we will see in subsequent sections, most studies framed in the social interactionist classroom discourse perspective depict the canonical rigid teacher controlled patterns through a different lens (see Chapter 4):

- i. teacher feedback is considered as a necessary component to evaluate learner productions
- ii. learners through feedback receive information about their products in the target language vis-à-vis accuracy in form or meaning

Overall, particular types of “FL Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output” are being examined as the moves that potentially co-construct knowledge in the classroom.

3.2 THE ETHNOGRAPHY OF CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

Ethnographic research is a social science method employed as a mode of enquiry in Anthropology (Duranti, 1989, 1997). In this approach, researchers examine the verbal and non-verbal behaviours of participants belonging to a given community or group culture²⁹ over a period of time in their natural environment (Emerson et al., 1995; Fetterman, 1998; Hammersley, 1990; Salzman, 2001).

The objective of Ethnography is building a thick description of everyday practices carried out by a particular group in order to interpret them (Auer, 1995; Geertz, 1973; Hammersley, 1990). It mainly employs a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Agar, 1996; Bryman, 2001; DuFon, 2002; Erickson, 1986; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Madison, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Ryan & Bernard, 2003; Sevigny, 1981; Spindler, 1982; Watson-Gegeo, 1988).

Distinctively, this ‘data-driven’ non-experimental approach of studying human behaviours has customarily two distinct stages (Hammersley, 1990; Pennycook, 2000):

- i. **Descriptive data collection** by means of observations tools, field notes, audio or video recordings of activities, interviews, questionnaires, surveys and participant journals.
- ii. **Critical data interpretation and detailed analysis** of the corpus collected through inductive processes³⁰.

²⁹ Spindler and Spindler (1992: 70) define the sense of studying “culture” group in ethnography: “For each social setting (i.e., classroom) in which various scenes (e.g., eading, 'meddlin', going to the bathroom) are studied, there is the prior (native) cultural knowledge held by each of the various actors, the action itself, and the emerging, stabilising rules, expectations, and some understandings that are tacit. Together these constitute a “classroom” or “school culture”.

³⁰ Agar (1996) claims that hypothesis-testing is not necessary in ethnographic studies since interpretations arise from the data collected.

In particular, descriptions (Atkinson et al., 2001; Cumming, 1994; Duranti & Goodwin, 1992; Kalaja & Ferreira Barcelos, 2003; Lemke, 1998; Watson-Gegeo, 1988) are achieved by means of:

- i. reports of the participants' attitudes and beliefs for triangulating data (emic perspective)
- ii. the categorisation of phenomena through observation according to the researcher discipline (etic perspective)

Customarily, code analysis and themes of study emerge from data collection by means of audio or video in ethnographic studies. The resulting contrasted patterns of practices ideally attempt to design detailed human communication models based on ostensibly reliable and unbiased data. Ultimately, the researcher might draw comparisons of outcomes in further studies and in similar contexts.

Since the last decade, a group of ethnographers considers digital video as a comprehensive means to capture events in fieldwork (Goldman-Segall, 2004). In digital format, data can be subjected to a more lengthy examination (Amit, 2000). Nevertheless, it is marginally employed. There are several studies reporting general technical and analytical video recording information for ethnographic research purposes (Duranti, 1997; Goldman-Segall, 2004; Goodwin, 2001; Mondada, 2006).

Specifically, Ethnography has been applied to examine the processes and variables of the "culture" of classrooms since the 1970s. This field has been labelled as the Ethnography of the Classroom. This research approach is holistic³¹ and covers the study of behaviours, activities, interaction and discourse in educational settings (Anderson, 1989; Cazden & Mehan, 1989; Cleghorn & Genesee, 1984; Duff, 1995, 2002; Frank, 1999; Hornberger & Corson, 1997; Morita, 2000; Tuyay et al., 1995; Watson-Gegeo, 1988; Wolcott, 1995, 1999).

In the main, ethnographic classroom discourse researchers attempt:

³¹ Holistic means that the behaviours are examined and interpreted as a whole in the context where actions are taking place (Lutz, 1981).

- i. to segment natural and interactional classroom speech in which the 'stretch of utterances' is the unit of analysis (Hymes, 1974)
- ii. to determine the specific learning activities from the participants' perspectives (Green & Dixon, 1993)

The traditional way of segmenting classroom interaction discourse has been based on the 'seven features of discourse' proposed by Hymes' *Ethnography of Speaking* (1962). This approach appears to be based on Speech Act Theory³² by Searle (1969) and the pragmaticist Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle³³. Subsequently, Discourse Analysis' methodology has initially adopted some aspects of Hymes' framework.

Hymes (1974: 52) presents this framework as a "preliminary" stage "toward a theory" attempting to:

- i. describe the ways of speaking of a 'speech community'
- ii. interpret communication by identifying the configuration of speech events
- iii. analyse the different social functions or strategies of participants

In classroom research, the following Hymes' speech categories illustrated in Table 3.2 have been considered.

Table 3.2 Hymes' speech categories

HYMES' SPEECH CATEGORIES	
CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
Speech situation	The physical environment in which verbal and non-verbal components might take place in interaction (e.g., a foreign language lesson).
Speech event	The largest unit of discourse within a speech situation or large activity (e.g., pair task conversations in the classroom).
Speech act	The smallest component in a speech event (e.g., reaching an agreement regarding the task development).

³² Searle considers the 'speech act' as a "meaningful utterance". Those acts deploying certain conventional (performative) forces are called "illocutionary acts".

³³ The Gricean Cooperative Principle implies that any type of discourse is a joint effort.

Speech acts can rally seven components (Coulthard, 1985):

- 1) **Participants** (i.e., speaker/-s and listener/-s³⁴)
- 2) **Situation** (i.e., the setting involving the time and the place)
- 3) **Ends** (i.e., the conventional and the participants' communicative purposes)
- 4) **Key** (i.e., the tone, manner or spirit in which an act is performed)
- 5) **Channel** (i.e., oral or written channel)
- 6) **Norms of interaction and interpretation**
- 7) **Genres** (i.e., verbal ritualised activities)

Distinctively, each classroom is considered as having unique social features (Brazil, 1995; Green & Dixon, 1993). Classroom events and participants are viewed as heterogeneous, evolving dynamically and unpredictably³⁵ (Davis & Sumara, 2006; Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Furthermore, ethnographic classroom studies take into account the teacher and student points of view.

In particular, ethnography in education studies has been often restricted to oral aspects of classroom behaviour (Athanases & Heath, 1995; Van Lier, 1988). Ethnographic investigation is mostly used for identifying and ideally aimed at solving teaching problems. Moreover, it appears to be a complementary method to correlate SLA with social interaction (Johnson, 1992; Watson-Gegeo, 1988, 2004).

In recent years, there is a debate whether ethnographic techniques should be adopted in Conversation Analysis studies dealing with educational contexts (Zuengler & Mori, 2002). Nevertheless, videorecording in ethnographic classroom research is still a minority practice (DuFon, 2002; Goldman-Segall, 2004; Nastasi, 1999).

3.3 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

After the trend of IRF studies (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), discourse analysts have started to examine larger stretches of discourse in the classroom context. Data in such types of studies often consist of natural classroom discourse excerpts. Discourse

³⁴ At least two participants are necessary in a speech event.

³⁵ This view contrasts with traditional Linguistics that has aimed at finding cohesiveness, regularity and static units.

Analysis (DA) has been the dominant Human Sciences methodology to analyse naturally occurring speech (Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

The term 'discourse' often covers the totality of communication (i.e., conversational exchanges and written texts). Specifically, DA endeavours to scrutinise the formal and functional linguistic organisation beyond the sentence of social communicative contexts within a framework (Stubbs, 1983).

This approach has grown out of various theoretical disciplines and analytic systems since the 1960s such as Linguistics, Semiotics, Psychology, Anthropology, Ethnography of Speaking³⁶, Ethnomethodology and Pragmatics (Brown & Yule, 1983; Cazden et al., 1972; Coulthard, 1977, 1992, 1996; Gee, 1992, 1999; Gumperz & Hymes, 1972; Hatch, 1978; Hymes, 1972, 1980; Johnstone, 2002; Markee, 1994; Mehan, 1979; Schiffrin, 1994; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Traverso, 1999). Characteristically, Discourse Analysis covers research and application (Hammersley, 2003).

DA researchers have used specific techniques such as:

- i. theoretical rationales for conducting empirical investigation
- ii. procedures for transcription, segmentation and interpretation of discourse at all levels to find out routine patterns

The main method of collecting discourse is through transcripts. Segmenting and coding data examining the linguistic features of interaction is the ensuing step. The data embodied through utterances is assigned to predetermined categories that might help to understand the context and components of speech acts³⁷.

In general, DA studies work on the superficially isolable, identifiable and quantifiable features of discourse. Nevertheless, there are differences in approaching the modes of discourse:

³⁶ This discipline deals with the use and functions of language and speech in social life.

³⁷ The DA framework covers key factors intervening in language use.

- i. written text studies deal with topic development and sentence cohesion
- ii. spoken language studies examine the same aspects of written texts together with turn-taking, speech moves and speech acts

Commonly, the DA investigated areas examine: i) the discourse production, ii) the environmental factors in which communication takes place, iii) the social conventions of participants and iv) the relationships among participants.

Specifically, discourse analysts attempt to give a general descriptor of the social interaction structural types found in collected data. It has been called 'frame' (Goffman, 1974). Since the 1970s, the sequences of discourse have been analysed according to Searle's Speech Act theory (1969). This concept borrowed from Ethnomethodology refers to the meaning that participants give to their current social activity. For example, what is going on, the situation and the roles adopted by the interactants within it.

'Frames' may be subdivided into:

- i. **'main frames'**: the overall situation
- ii. **'secondary frames'**: emergent frames developing a variety of themes

Gradually, the focus of DA has been on attempting to portray language use in a situation as an interactive or a social phenomenon. According to this version of events, Tannen (1993) tags descriptors for activities as 'interactive frames'. Therefore, this reformulation of the notion of frame includes:

- i. the nature of the activities
- ii. their emergence
- iii. their verbal and non-verbal constituents

Ordinarily, those structures might have a "variable" nature. Goffman (1981) names 'footing' the changeable condition of frames. Normally, there are continuous reassessments and realignments that participants might make in moving from one subframe to another. Additionally, DA uses descriptors that refer to 'discourse thematic constituents'. The units of discourse examined are the 'speaking turns'.

Characteristically, discourse analysts simplify analysis concentrating on two-level modes: i) 'moves' (i.e., discourse exchange units of action) and ii) 'speech acts' (i.e., act performed by a speaker while generating one utterance).

For the most part, this approach handles linguistic units and rules and tries to discover speech acts in speech events. In a systematic way, Discourse Analysis examines the forms of communication at different levels covering: i) Phonetics, ii) prosody, iii) visual structures, iv) Pragmatics, v) Syntax and, vi) Semantics.

Some studies have identified the shortcomings in DA (Levinson, 1992; Silverman, 2001; Van Dijk, 1996):

- i. it renders a single utterance into a single speech act³⁸
- ii. it is impossible to stipulate beforehand the behavioural functions of interactional acts³⁹
- iii. there is no direct correlation between form and function
- iv. it is inherently acontextual
- v. it takes a broad view of interaction not focusing on specific aspects

Nevertheless, this approach is progressively considering exchanges in a broader sense as a social practice particularly in Hallidayan approaches (Halliday, 1984) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (Fairclough, 1992). These perspectives attempt to substantiate the view that talk and discourse in the educational context differ structurally from ordinary language (Gremmo et al., 1978; Kumaravadivelu, 1999; Pica, 1987). Accordingly, DA has been adopted:

- i. to study the genres of educational writing (Wennerstrom, 2003)
- ii. to analyse spoken language in the classroom (Riggenbach, 1999)

³⁸ A single utterance can execute multiple speech acts at a time. Apart from illocutionary force, responses can be interpreted by their perlocutionary force, which is unlimited in nature.

³⁹ For instance, silence or laughter might act as responses (Ishii & Bruneau, 1991; Korst, 1997).

Subsequently, classroom discourse is being considered as a type of speech genre (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986; Lemke, 1990). However, since this dissertation deals with oral language we will not examine in detail written DA issues.

In educational contexts, DA has become a research tool employed for detecting the specific patterns of classroom communication (Abdesslem, 1992; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Coll & Onrubia, 1993; Cicurel, 1994; Cicurel & Blondel, 1996; Hatch, 1992; Riggensbach, 1999; Willis, 1981, 1992). Studies in this area are focusing on varied formal issues such as:

- i. specific thematic contents of classroom activities
- ii. stylistic features
- iii. specific structures in classroom discursive forms

Through data analysis of the abovementioned aspects complex patterns in linguistic exchanges were revealed. The ensuing moves extracted from real corpora have been adopted as categories for quantitative research. In this fashion, Discourse Analysis studies have identified classroom situations that might be helpful for teaching practices (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Hatch, 1992; Haworth, 1999; Hicks, 1995; McCarthy & Carter, 1994; Riggensbach, 1999). On the other hand, discourse has also been considered as a means of learning in educational contexts (Cook, 1989; Halliday, 1973, 1978; Tough, 1984).

Significantly, in the 1980s Discourse Analysis experienced a boom in SLA contexts with DA collections of studies endeavouring to examine linguistic organisation and use (Day, 1986; Gass & Madden, 1985; Larsen-Freeman, 1980; Richards & Schmidt, 1983; Seliger & Long, 1983) (see Table 3.3).

One dominant Discourse Analysis approach applied to SLA adopts 'structural-functional' principles and methodology (Chaudron, 1988). The basic assumption is that educational behaviours are 'structured events' striving for didactic goals (Christie, 2002; Hatch, 1978). Allwright's (1988) *Observation in the language classroom* and Chaudron's (1988) *Second Language Classrooms* are noteworthy collections since they introduce applications of Discourse Analysis in the SLA field.

Table 3.3 *The 1980s Discourse Analysis collections in SLA contexts*

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS COLLECTIONS		
AUTHORS OR EDITORS	TITLE	YEAR
Larsen-Freeman (ed.)	<i>Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research</i>	1980
Seliger & Long (eds.)	<i>Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition</i>	1983
Richards & Schmidt (eds.)	<i>Language and Communication</i>	1983
Gass & Madden (eds.)	<i>Input in Second Language Acquisition</i>	1985
Day (ed.)	<i>Talking to Learn: "Conversation in Second Language Acquisition"</i>	1986

In the first stages of classroom discourse research, authors were concerned with different issues such as:

- i. describing the language features addressed to learners of a second or foreign language (Gass, 1997; Hatch, 1978, 1992)
- ii. quantifying whether teacher and student interactions followed a regular pattern (Chaudron, 1988)

From a quantitative point of view, DA studies also reflect that teachers dominate classroom talk (Chaudron, 1977; Long & Porter, 1985; Musumeci, 1996; Pica & Long, 1986). Chaudron (op.cit.) concludes that the amount of teacher interventions takes up about two-thirds of the total FL classroom talking time. Pica and Long (1986) suggest that there are individual differences in teacher participation.

The usual speech act patterns in 'teacher talk' are (Cazden, 1988; Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Heath, 1983; McHoul, 1978):

- i. the known-answer teacher question (i.e., questions that the teacher already knows the answer to)
- ii. the immediate evaluation of the student response

The most common conversational teacher talk moves are: i) initiation of turn, ii) clarification requests, iii) explanations and iv) corrections (Ramirez et al., 1986).

Chaudron (1988) reviewed a wide range of phenomena in FL classroom discourse. This author (op.cit.: 50) claims that teachers talk the most (about 60% of the moves) as soliciting and reacting moves in FL classrooms. The general average in proportions

are: i) soliciting (30%), ii) responding (30%), iii) reacting (30%) and iv) structuring moves (10%). Distinctively, students utter the majority of the responding moves.

In qualitative terms, some scholars have found specific features of teacher discourse. From discourse studies of Foreigner Talk⁴⁰ (Ferguson, 1971; Ferrán Salvadó, 1990; Freed, 1980), there has been interest in teacher linguistic didactic modifications addressed to L2 learners labelled as Teacher Talk (Chaudron, 1988). This type of discourse refers to the teacher speech adjustments facilitating FL communication and learning. In this area of study, teacher discourse modifications have been traditionally analysed and quantified in relation to the phonology, the lexis and syntax (Pérez-Vidal, 2002).

Since the last decade, didactic speech is examined in relation to the conversational modifications supporting learner comprehensibility or encouraging discourse production (Ernst, 1994). A number of studies have attempted to characterise teacher talk key features, which we summarise in Table 3.4 (Chaudron, 1983, 1988; Cullen, 1998; Hakansson, 1986; Heath, 1978; Henzl, 1979; Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Long, 1981; Liu et al., 2004; Ovando & Collier, 1998; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Wesche & Ready, 1985; White et al., 1991; Wong Fillmore, 1985).

Despite qualitative references on features of teacher talk, few studies have comprehensively attempted to quantify phonology, intonation, articulation and stress in this special type of discourse (Henzl, 1979; Hewings, 1992; Mannon, 1986). Concerning phonology, teachers are likely to make use of longer pauses when talking to FL learners than with native speakers (Hakansson, 1986; Wesche & Ready, 1985). Furthermore, some authors report differential traits of teacher talk in lexis and syntax according to the learner level of language proficiency (Gaies, 1977). Teacher talk features are progressively mitigated with regard to the IL learner development. Significantly, ungrammatical teacher talk is rare (Gaies, *op.cit.*; Pica & Long, 1986; Wesche & Ready, 1985).

⁴⁰ Foreigner Talk refers to a type of adjusted talk that native speakers use while communicating to non-native speakers.

Table 3.4 *Teacher talk features*

TEACHER TALK FEATURES	
I. LEXICAL MODIFICATIONS	
AREAS	KEY FEATURES
Phonology	Slow rate of speech delivery, long pauses, standard pronunciation, exaggerated and simplified pronunciation, clear articulation, higher pitch, fewer contractions.
Lexis	Basic vocabulary use, extensive use of declarative statements.
Morphology	Fewer marked structures such as past tense.
Syntax	Less syntactic complexity, basic degree of subordination, shorter utterances, non complex sentences, more retention of optional constituents, less ellipsis.
Semantics	Redundancy of information, synonyms, less slang, limited use of idioms, higher frequency of content words, fewer idiomatic expressions and more concrete references.
II. CONVERSATIONAL MODIFICATIONS	
AREAS	KEY FEATURES
Content	Limited and predictable contents, brief developments, linguistic and cultural information of the target language, procedures about classroom activities.
Interactional organisation	Imposed subject matters, routine patterns, teacher initiated moves, extensive questioning and use of repetitions, confirmations checks, comprehension checks and recasts.
III. NON-LINGUISTIC COMPLEMENTING COMPONENTS OF TALK	
AREAS	KEY FEATURES
Kinesics	Intensified gestures.
Material support	Drawings, objects.

In general, it is suggested that effective didactic talk may provide support to facilitate both: i) language comprehension and ii) learner production in the FL. Consequently, the teacher talk characteristics have been analysed in relation to their potential influential features in language learning (Llinares García, 2005). In addition, some authors have pointed out the benefits of teacher talk as a source of simplified L2 input (Ovando & Collier, 1998). In many cases, this kind of talk becomes the principal source of FL knowledge for learners.

Regarding thematic contexts of classroom activities, Willis (1992) presents two different types of discourse arising in the FL classroom:

- i. **The 'outer discourse'** that serves to maintain social exchanges with learners to organise, to explain, to control, etc. the teaching and learning activities.
- ii. **The 'inner discourse'** that contains the FL forms selected by the teacher as learning targets (for instance, words, expressions or phrases).

Classroom discourse is also analysed in relation to variables as communicative tasks, interactive roles and contextual constraints (Pekarek-Doehler, 2000). Furthermore, the DA approach becomes the basis for several comprehensive analytical systems in language teaching such as COLT (Allen et al., 1984; Spada & Fröhlich, 1995), TALO (Ullman & Geva, 1984) and FLINT (Moskowitz, 1976). Nevertheless, some authors pointed out several drawbacks in DA research dealing with SLA contexts:

- i. studies have been broadly descriptive in nature (Chaudron, 1988)
- ii. studies often depict teachers as performing one pedagogical action on one level at a time not taking into account the existent complexity of classroom discourse (Seedhouse, 2004b)
- iii. pure DA approaches normally do not establish relationships between moves and educational results (Rogers, 2003)

In the present day, Discourse Analysis studies on SLA contexts attempt to search for the types of communicative patterns that seemingly provide students with more opportunities, support or stimulation to acquire FL knowledge (Johnson, 1995). On one hand, such studies might aim at analysing learner linguistic output in different communicative situations. On the other hand, they take into account teacher interventions in classroom discourse and the characteristics of classroom tasks.

In general, a group of multidisciplinary researchers are attempting to portray communication as a complex phenomenon (Aijmer & Stenström, 2005; Kendon, 2004). Cook (1989: 9-10) says that:

“when we receive a linguistic message, we pay attention to many other factors apart from the language itself. If we are face to face with the person sending the message, then we notice what they are doing with their face, eyes, and body while speaking: maybe they smiled, or shook their fist, or looked away. In a spoken message we notice the quality of the voice as well: maybe the speaker’s voice was shaking, or they had a particular accent, or hesitated, or slurred their words”.

Therefore, it appears that non-verbal factors are pertinent in DA as we presented previously (see Section 3.4.2).

Overall, Discourse Analysis (DA) has been the predominant method for the study of Foreign/Second Language Acquisition and Teaching (Chaudron 1988). This approach mainly depicts the forms and functions of discourse. In addition, there are different approaches of classroom practices portrayed under this framework that seem to mirror helpful learning classroom sequence patterns for learners. Since the 1990s, some DA researchers have attempted to link the potentially positive discourse environments of acquisition to cognitive theories (see Chapter 1, Section 1.3). In this understanding, Discourse Analysis could be a practical analytical tool for improving instructional practices as teacher reactions to FL learner output.

3.4 CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

Conversation Analysis (CA) is an approach initially developed by Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) to study conversational interaction as social practice. This subfield of Discourse Analysis⁴¹ examines the interactional organisation of everyday conversation. The notion of “conversation” includes all kinds of face to face or at a distance⁴² interaction.

In general, CA has mainly been influenced by works of Sociology, Linguistics, Anthropology, communication studies and Social Psychology. It uses some principles of Ethnomethodology⁴³, Microsociology⁴⁴, Ethnography and Discourse Analysis (Brown & Yule, 1983; Edmondson, 1981; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Heritage, 1999; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Lepper, 2000; Levinson, 1983; Markee, 1994; Mondada, 1999, 2000; Psathas, 1995; Richards & Seedhouse, 2005; Schegloff, 2007; Schegloff et al., 2002; Seedhouse, 1994, 1998a, 2005b).

⁴¹ We will not enter into the controversy to determine whether CA is or not a subfield of Discourse Analysis. However, many linguists consider it as such since it is concerned with spoken dialogue (Potter, 1996).

⁴² Conversations can be voice or webcam chats and phone call conversations (Hopper, 1991).

⁴³ Ethnomethodology is a discipline that attempts to describe the social world as ordered, intelligible and familiar objective reality (Brown & Yule, 1983; Edmondson, 1981; Garfinkel, 1967; Levinson, 1983).

⁴⁴ Microsociology is a branch of Sociology that examines the nature of human social interactions on a small scale.

This methodology involves the study of naturally occurring data from either:

- i. **'ordinary conversation'** (Eggins & Slade, 1997) (for instance, friends and family discussions, phone conversations, native-non-native conversations, etc.)
- ii. **'institutional talk'** (Heritage, 1997) (for instance, doctor and patient communication, teacher and student classroom talk, academic talk, proficiency interviews, etc.)

The basic assumption is that conversations have a social meaning and structure that is shaped through the participants' turn-taking and the context (McCarthy, 1996, 1998). For that reason, CA methodology attempts to illustrate through data analysis how the participants build their talks in a given environment (Heritage, 1997: 164). On this account, the components of conversations are "*arrived at with reference to the participants, their roles, and the setting*" in CA works (McCarthy, op.cit.: 18).

According to Schegloff (1993: 114), the situation or context "*inhabits the talk*". For the most part, this perspective attempts to interpret better the processes and factors intervening in varied kinds of conversations adopting a microanalysis of raw data (Cameron, 2001). Nevertheless, CA is still a minority methodology with one evolving disciplinary programme.

CA examines varied social life conducts revealed through 'talk in context' (Psathas, 1995). For this reason, a microanalytic transcription of naturally occurring spoken data is crucial for analysis (Cameron, 2001; Heritage, 1988). In general, Conversation Analysis tries to depict:

- i. the overall systemic conversation patterns⁴⁵
- ii. the roles of context and interaction in the participants' understanding of a given conversation⁴⁶

In the present day, data collection often includes captures from videotapes, audiotapes, or both, of talk-in-interaction. In most cases, the recordings are the main sources of

⁴⁵ CA examines how meaning and actions are negotiated during conversations.

⁴⁶ In the conversation analytic tradition, the participants' roles in a context are taken into account.

information (DuFon, 2002). The essential steps for approaching data after collecting it through audio or videoed means are normally the adoption of a comprehensive CA transcription system of naturally occurring data. In CA, captured interactions are examined in great detail (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Jefferson, 1987, 1988; Olsher, 2004; Psathas, 1995; Sacks, 1992).

Transcription is particularly narrow, indicating numerous aspects as possible, including speaker overlaps, pauses, stutters, changes in loudness, laughter, sighs, non-verbal vocalisations, etc. Consequently, transcription is often “*tedious and time-consuming*” (Markee, 2000: 53). However, transcripts are crucial analytical tools used in conjunction with recordings.

Some studies use digitised audio and video files combined with transcripts, using CLAN (MacWhinney, 2000) and ELAN (Max Plank tool for complex video and audio annotations) allowing the visualisation and transcription of detailed linguistic and non-verbal data. Most studies are transcribed according to the conventions of CA developed by Gail Jefferson (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Boden & Zimmerman, 1991; Goodwin, 1981). Nevertheless, outcomes of CA studies should not be claimed as universal. Participants actively refer to their own cultural frames when they talk, which might not also be equal across cultures⁴⁷ (Borden, 1991; Crago et al., 1997; Gumperz, 1990; Lowell & Devlin, 1998; Mets & Van Den Hauwe, 2003; Seedhouse, 1998b; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986; Takanashi, 2004; Van Lier, 1997). In this understanding, Conversation Analysis attempts to provide:

- i. **an ‘emic perspective’**⁴⁸ depicting how participants organise their social actions through talk, determining which elements of context are relevant to the interactants at any point during interaction
- ii. **an ‘ecological validity of findings’**. That is, whether results might be applied to people’s everyday activities
- iii. **an ‘etic approach’** a description that matches linguistic interaction features to constructs and categories

⁴⁷ Talk is shaped by culture.

⁴⁸ CA methodology takes into account the participants’ concerns and perspectives.

As a result, the sequence organisation of conversation may be an analytical tool (Schegloff, 2007). CA interactional data undergo qualitative analyses. However, as a social science this research methodology is also concerned with reliability, generalisability, quantification and triangulation.

'Talk' in CA is seen as a 'social action'⁴⁹ which is the largest unit of Conversation Analysis. The term 'action' (Schegloff, 1968, 1979) covers the moves where at least two persons interact in a given context. Sacks (1992: 159) claims that the principle of CA is the segmentation of actions in minimal units. Within the 'action', the basic structure of CA is known as the Summon-Answer sequences of conversations (Schegloff, 1968, 1979). This structure had initially been noticed by Schegloff (1968) when analysing phone conversations.

The key precepts of CA are summarised as follows:

- i. Conversations are viewed as dynamic social complex action sequences produced and shaped by the participants in a given context (Edwards & Potter, 2001; Kasper, 2006; Mori, 2004; Seedhouse, 2004b; Ten Have, 1999).
- ii. Any type of communicative interaction is interpreted as a unique occurrence or a microinteraction⁵⁰ (Drew & Heritage, 1992).
- iii. Actions should be defined in sequences⁵¹ (Schegloff, 2007).
- iv. Audio or videoed data collection should be captured in a natural environment.
- v. Analyses might include detailed analysis of captured data (verbal and non-verbal communicative components if possible) (Markee & Kasper, 2004; Seedhouse, 2004b).
- vi. The focus of study is often uniquely on features of raw random data without being influenced by preconceived theories or hypotheses adopting one inductive approach⁵² (Pomertantz & Fehr, 1997).

⁴⁹ Language can be used to carry out any action.

⁵⁰ Schegloff (1987: 221) suggests modes of interactional organisation as contexts themselves.

⁵¹ One 'action' can be as short as an 'adjacency pair' or can last for hours and might end until the speakers move to perform a different action or series of actions.

⁵² Psathas (1995: 45) terms this approach 'unmotivated looking'.

- vii. The examination of conversation should reveal a turn-taking sequential organisation (Block, 2003; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Kasper, 2006; Schegloff, 2007).

An original feature of CA is in investigating interaction and avoiding preformulated theoretical categories or hypotheses. According to Pomertantz and Fehr (op. cit.: 66), *“it rejects the use of investigator-stipulated theoretical and conceptual definitions of research questions”*. Therefore, the conversational analyst research questions arise from the collected data and their analyses. This procedure is backed by irregularities of some studies' outcomes revealing that some categories cannot be immutable constructs.

In contrast to other methodologies concerned with social behaviour (for example, Ethnography or DA), Conversation Analysis (CA) has three distinctive particularities:

- i. it does not make a priori assumptions
- ii. it catalogues conversations as comprehensive instances of social actions including non-linguistic components
- iii. it seeks regularities of a phenomenon rather than well-formedness

Furthermore, Conversation Analysis works on five main levels of analysis depicted in the table below.

Table 3.5 *Levels of Sequential Analysis*

LEVELS OF SEQUENTIAL ANALYSIS	DEFINITIONS
1. Interaction	The combination of various face-to-face or mediated transactions taking place between conversationalists during a given encounter.
2. Transaction	A conversational sequence of various exchanges linked by a similar topic.
3. Exchange	The basic unit of interaction covering turn sequences by more than one speaker.
4. Turn	The smallest unit of action that a speaker accomplishes in his/her role as speaker.
5. Moves	The sub-motions that a speaker makes within one turn (e.g., opening, supporting, challenging, etc.).

Sacks et al. (1974: 704) found some systematic features through which interactants organise their turns sequentially. Conversationalists have attempted to build a descriptive model of interaction covering a wide range of situations. The model often includes two components of conversation:

- i. **'Turn-allocation'**: the manner turn exchanges are distributed.
- ii. **'Turn-construction'**: the process carried out by one interactant for building Turn Constructional Units (TCU).

In general, the turn-taking system is based on the basic facts listed above. Different authors have suggested that speakers recognise points of potential 'speaker transfer' since they talk in Turn Constructional Units (TCU's) (Sacks et al., op.cit.). TCUs are grammatically complete units of "*conducts*" (Schegloff, 2007: 4) such as a sentence, clause or phrase. The point completion of a TCU is called the Transition-Relevance Place (TRP).

Concerning the 'move', it is a unit of interaction that in combination makes up exchanges (Bellack et al., 1966; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). A prototypical move might be the pair 'question' and 'answer'. This type of turn-taking exchange labelled as an 'utterance pair' is profuse in conversation.

'Moves' might have 'additional turns' that amplify, qualify or justify the 'head' of the first adjacent pairs. The turn sequences form exchanges. A minimal exchange consists of an initiation move and a response move. Nevertheless, exchanges may be complex and combined through speakers' follow-up, challenging or initiating moves (Hoey, 1992).

CA works have traditionally singled out the following types of sequence organisation in interaction: i) adjacency pairs, ii) preference organisation, iii) turn taking and iv) repair. The definitions of the types are summarised in Table 3.6.

Conversationalists have realised that conversations in varied contexts are recurrently structured in relation to contiguous and alternating turns of talk called 'adjacency pairs'. Many everyday turn sequences take those forms which are 'type related' (Sacks et al., 1974; Schegloff, 1968, 1972).

Table 3.6 *Types of interactional organisation*

MAIN TYPES OF INTERACTIONAL ORGANISATION	
TYPES	DESCRIPTIONS
Adjacency pairs	Contiguous related utterances in which the first part (e.g., a question) triggers the second part (e.g., an answer) in a relevant way uttered by different speakers.
Preference organisation	The second part of one adjacency pair can be considered as "preferred" when the response is the expected one by convention.
Turn taking	Basic communicative procedure consisting of interlocutors exchanging turns.
Repair	A mechanism used by interactants for correcting errors in interaction.

Within conversational sequences, a speaker demands attention in the opening for 'summon moves' (Schegloff, 1968). Subsequently, this turn usually triggers an answer by another speaker. Levinson (1983: 303) defines 'adjacent pairs' "*as the kind of pair utterances of which 'question answer, greeting-greeting, offer-acceptance, apology-minimization', etc. are prototypical*".

For instance, a 'question' is followed by one 'answer', or an 'invitation' can be responded to by an 'acceptance' or a 'rejection'. In the latter, the interlocutor might indicate comprehension and ability to respond sequences.

The properties of 'adjacency pairs' have been described classically as follows (Sacks et al., 1974; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973):

- 1) They are two turns in length.
- 2) The first speaker produces the first pair (or opening turn).
- 3) The second speaker produces the second pair (or answer).
- 4) There is some correlation between what speakers do during their turn and the turns immediately preceding them⁵³.

Schegloff (2007) presents the two-turn adjacency as the "*minimal pair sequence*". In addition, he claims that there are two types of 'adjacency pairs' (Schegloff, op.cit.: 63):

- i. **'preferred second pair parts or responses'** (that is, aligned second action in relation to the first)

⁵³ The second action pair is conditioned by the action of the first one (e.g., following a question (first pair), the next action is an answer by the addressee).

- ii. **'dispreferred second pair parts or responses'** (that is, non-aligned action in relation to the previous one)

The notion of 'preference' refers to the conventional or normative sequencing of conversational interaction that allows conversational interactants to make inferences about meaning (Schegloff, 2007).

For instance, a 'first turn' containing a question might produce a 'preferred response' containing one 'expected answer'. In contrast, a 'dispreferred response' might produce one 'unexpected answer' or 'no answer' at all. The 'preference organisation' takes place in everyday conversations and can take place in classroom context (Bilmes, 1988).

In general, 'turn taking' organisation has been the focus of many studies of naturally occurring conversations (Sacks et al., 1974). Nevertheless, CA does not operate only using turn-by-turn units of analysis. This approach allows for a broader perspective of the entire interaction focusing on the types of 'interactional organisations' that is also shared in contemporary Ethnography (Dingwall, 1985). This perspective examines the sequential organisation of action in turn taking structures. In this way, the concern is not only in the linguistic forms themselves, but the globality of the interactive exchange including non-verbal components.

Alongside verbal elements of discourse, human beings make use of varied non-verbal strategies during turn-taking that are considered in CA studies (Goffman, 1981; Seedhouse, 2004a). For instance, the paralinguistic elements (intonation, pauses, rhythm, etc.) or non-verbal components (postures, mimes, gestures, laughs, distance, gaze, etc.) (Bavelas, 1994; Bavelas & Chovil, 2000; Egbert, 1996; Ekman & Friesen, 1969; Goodwin, 2000; Hayashi et al., 2002; Kendon, 1967; Miller, 2000; Olsher, 2004; Stenstrom, 1994; Streeck, 1993, 1994; Tyler, 1978). In addition, CA is concerned with the brief verbal responses that a listener uses while another individual is talking, called 'backchannels' (e.g., "*mmm*", "*hmm*", "*yeah*", "*wow*") (Clancy et al., 1996).

Distinctively, a number of researchers have suggested that 'prosody' and 'visual cues' might complement turn taking (Levelt, 1989; Sacks et al., 1974). For this reason, CA studies take into account the manifold nature of communication considering:

- i. **'spoken language'** (i.e., words and contextually appropriate intonation marking the topic and focus)
- ii. **'non-verbal elements'** (i.e., non-linguistic elements conveying messages and elements reinforcing the verbal actions)

The examination of multidimensionality of conversation is a specific trait of CA that differentiates it from other existing disciplines studying human communication (Lerner, 2002; Olsher, 2004). Specifically, Sacks et al. (1974: 700-1) explain the turn talking organisation presenting the following features:

- i. Speaker change recurs, or at least occurs.
- ii. One party talks at a time.
- iii. Occurrences of more than one speaker at a time are common, but brief.
- iv. Transitions (from one turn to a next) with no gap and no overlap and together with those with slight ones are common.
- v. Turn order and size are not fixed.
- vi. Length of conversation is not specified in advance.
- vii. What is said is not specified in advance.
- viii. Relative distribution of turns is not specified in advance.
- ix. Number of parties is variable.
- x. Talk can be continuous or discontinuous.
- xi. A current speaker may select the next speaker addressing a question to another party, or parties may self select in starting to talk.
- xii. Various 'turn-constructive units' are employed; e.g., turns can be 'one word long', or they can be a sentence.
- xiii. Repair mechanisms deal with turn-taking errors and violations.

Particularly, most conversation analysts talk about 'regularities' of turn taking rather than 'well-formedness' and rules. However, it appears that turn-taking does not seem to be governed by prescriptive rules (Schegloff, 1987, 2000, 2007):

- i. overlaps and interruptions are frequent forms of breakdown
- ii. interaction is not always a continuous succession of adjacency pairs

Consequently, the irregularities in conversations make the identification and quantification of phenomena a demanding task (Schegloff, 1993).

In contrast to DA that often represents one utterance as a single function, CA attempts to portray utterances as complex actions. In addition, circumstances surrounding the production, environmental factors, social conventions, relationships among participants are important factors considered in the analysis.

One important area of study in CA is 'repair' (McHoul, 1990). This term refers to the 'remedial exchanges' (Goffman, 1971) triggered by trouble or a misunderstanding occurring in interaction. The nature of the problem jeopardising conversation might be in speaking, hearing and understanding talk.

According to Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977), 'repair' covers the ternary sequence 'trouble-initiation-correction' that interrupts the trajectory of the interaction. 'Repairs' have been traditionally identified as: i) corrections, ii) confirmation-checks or iii) repetitions (Schegloff, 1997). Progressively, CA research has enlarged the forms of repair moves with clarification requests, restatements, repetitions and comprehension checks.

'Repair' also covers the treatment of breakdowns in communication. Wong (2000) claims that 'repair' in any context does not always involve 'correction' or target 'errors' as many CA studies mainly report. In particular, this author presents different kinds of trouble other than linguistic failings that previous works also revealed (Schegloff et al., 1977: 362-363) such as:

- i. the unavailability of a given word when needed
- ii. the non recognition of an item of vocabulary by the addressee
- iii. listening problems by interferences or ambient noise
- iv. lack of total understanding by the recipient requesting clarification

In recent years, the study of 'repair' has been enlarged and made more complex, taking into account factors such as (Egbert, 1997):

- i. who initiates repair (self-initiated and other-initiated)

ii. where repair is initiated

The majority of studies are on the repair organisation study 'repair initiation' (Schegloff, 1992). This specific type of repair involves a sequence organisation not only of turns-at-talk, but also 'actions'. The 'action', or 'actions', which compose repair might include among possible others: i) initiation ii) solution or iii) abandonment.

Those aspects that seem to be significant in 'self-initiated repair' are most preferred in ordinary conversation according to frequency usage. In general, interactants give the first speaker the opportunity to self-repair in the next turn. In contrast, 'self-initiated repair' occurs in all other positions.

'Self-initiated repairs' ordinarily involve the speaker of the trouble-source initiating repair. This move is commoner for 'save-face' purposes' in communication (Schegloff et al., 1977) and L2 environments (Kasper, 1985). In contrast, 'other-initiated repair' appears to be the least preferred by speakers (Schegloff, 1992). As regards effectiveness, framing a correction as a question or confirmation check and offering alternatives are claimed to be the best repair strategies.

'Repair' studies among native speakers (Schegloff et al., 1977) and native/near-native speakers (Kasper, op.cit.) portray that the treatment is for content and pragmatics rather than linguistics. In the classroom context, 'repair' takes place more frequently than in everyday conversations linked to error correction practices. Furthermore, a number of current SLA studies attempt to relate self-repair to positive outcomes in learning. The issues of repair in L2 contexts will be specifically developed in Chapter 4.

Commonly, several CA studies claim that outcomes of studies might help to understand how conversations proceed with regard to turn-taking behaviours in different socio-interactive environments. In addition, results should be systematically tested and compared comprehensively with further similar studies throughout the years (Lazaraton, 2003). For this purpose, conversationalists endeavour to build collections of different contexts that might cast light on the organisational principles of conversations. Nonetheless, there can be limitations in such findings since most data analysed deal with Western cultures and languages and the patterns of conversations

might differ across cultures. Therefore, such information might not have universal implications owing to cultural differences (Zuengler, 1989).

The aim of CA is describing particular contexts of conversations. Looked at in this way, CA investigations are carried out by “*case by case analysis of singular exhibits of interactional conduct*” (Heritage, 1995: 406). Consequently, the size, the nature and the variety of the databases are significant for:

- 1) the generalisability of a given study outcome
- 2) the researcher stated research aims and methodology
- 3) the quality of the analyses concerning the validity of the studies' outcomes⁵⁴
- 4) its potential applicability to optimise discourse interactions in a specific professional context

In relation to the last point, CA has mainly examined ordinary conversation. Nevertheless, since the 1990s, this methodological perspective has a growing interest in the social organisation of institutional talk. In particular, the focus is on goal achievements through social actions (Baynham & Slembrouck, 1999; Drew & Heritage, 1992; Edwards & Potter, 2001; Heritage 1995, 1997; Levinson, 1992).

'Institutional discourse' seems to follow a sequentially organised flow, jointly constructed by the participants (Kasper, 2006). On this account, non-ordinary discourse is examined to discover from exchanges (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage, 1997):

- i. the distinctive common institutional features in a given conversation
- ii. the particular institutional oriented goals

In general, conversationalists claim that there seems to be a reciprocal relationship between the institutional aim and the organisation of a given interaction (Levinson 1992; Seedhouse, 2004b). In other words, institutional varieties of discourse have unique organised features that might suit conversational goals (Drew & Heritage, 1992).

⁵⁴ The quality of the analyses is more important than the size of the database.

Classroom talk including FL classroom discourse (Bange, 1992b; Hall, 1998; Johnson, 1995; Kurhila, 2004; Markee, 1995, 2000; McHoul, 1990; Nussbaum, 2001; Seedhouse, 2004b, 2005a) are specific varieties of institutional discourses that will be dealt with particularly in the following section. To sum up, CA studies how social actions are organised and produced in specific contexts.

3.4.1 The Conversational SLA classroom complexity

CA has started to be applied in SLA research as a minority European practice (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Gass, 2004; Krafft & Dausendschön-Gay, 1994). During the emergence of Conversation Analysis applied to language acquisition, mainstream SLA studies were more theory-driven and experimental (Markee, 2000). This research practice has neglected for years the contextual aspects of learning (Firth & Wagner, op.cit.: 286; see also Chapters 1 and 2).

Since the 1990s, FL studies viewpoints are changing thanks to the rise of interactional studies considering the classroom as a research and learning site (Cambra, 1998; Wong, 2002). At the beginning of the XXIst century, this perspective has become more widespread as the rising numbers of CA collections give evidence (Gardner & Wagner, 2004; Markee, 2004; Richards & Seedhouse, 2005; Schegloff et al., 2002).

CA microanalyses appear to provide more detailed information on FL classroom interaction complexity. CA applied to classroom contexts mainly aims at illustrating representative situations of the dynamics of interaction among teachers and learners or their peers. In contrast to traditional SLA research lines, linguistic data are not grouped into decontextualised preset categories or regular interactional sequences such as the IRF (Markee, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004b).

Foreign Language CA research strives to examine how "*[the] linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce in the L2 are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher in some way*" (Seedhouse, 2004b: 183-4). In general, CA-oriented studies are describing actions showing the co-construction of learning. The underlying idea is that contextual aspects of interaction might influence the classroom activities and their goals (Gil, 2002; Seedhouse, 1996).

According to Nussbaum (1994: 59), there is a “*polyphonie de discours en classe [de FL], ainsi que la présence de séquences dialogales et des séquences plurielles*” [there is a polyphony of [FL] classroom discourse, as well as dialogic sequences and plural sequences]. Jarvis and Robinson (1997: 225) similarly claimed that classroom discourse is “*multilayered*” like “*Russian dolls*”.

Furthermore, ‘classroom interaction’ seems to differ from ‘ordinary conversation since most talk between teacher and students has a pedagogical purpose (McCarthy, 2001). Looked at in this way, CA approach is increasingly focusing on the communicative styles of FL teachers or experts in SLA research.

In particular, FL teacher interventions in the learner output is becoming an active area of study (Markee, 2000). As was presented in Chapters 1 and 2, several theoretical frameworks, such as the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) and the Neo-Vygotskian perspective (Vygotsky, 1978), claim that certain didactic corrective strategies might mediate in learning.

A number of CA studies present a detailed analysis of interactions involving a variety of SLA formal and natural contexts (Auer, 1998; Bange, 1992b; Carrol, 2000, 2001; Gafaranga, 2000; Gafaranga & Torras, 2002; Germain, 1994; Hall, 2007; Kasper, 2006; Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2003; Wei, 2002). The CA general foci in SLA contexts are on: i) the overall sequential organization of FL classroom conversation, ii) turn-taking, iii) repair, iv) linguistic formal and semantic choices and v) power asymmetry in the interventions of participants.

CA takes into account a number of overlooked aspects in mainstream research lines. The more salient is considering verbal behaviours and speech as frequently coordinated in human communication and didactic discourse. CA researchers examine aspects that have been marginally studied in classroom communicative exchanges such as gaze behaviour, head movement, posture and facial expression (Antes, 1996; Barnett, 1983a, 1983b; Chovil, 1992; Kendon, 2000, 2001; Wilson & Butler, 2006). Therefore, CA covers comprehensive analyses of talk, gaze and gesture in the stream of classroom speech (Gass, 2004; Lazaraton, 2004).

Furthermore, videorecorded data of classroom interaction are helping to consider the non-linguistic observable components (Gullberg & McCafferty, 2008; Hester & Francis,

2001; Levinson, 1992; Van Lier, 1988). By following a four-part process of Record-View/Listen-Transcribe-Analyse, most studies are supplemented by ethnographic elements (Lazaraton, 1995; Van Lier, 1988).

The transcriptions of data in FL classroom contexts normally cover the following aspects (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 2007):

- i. the alternations of turn-taking in which teachers intervene after learners' actions
- ii. the intonation marks and hesitation pauses
- iii. the predictable interactional patterns encouraging learner production in the target language
- iv. actions are oriented towards learner competence improvements by means of didactic strategies that might guide learners in their learning processes

Distinctively, CA is also takes into account deviant instances that are regarded and analysed as unique L2 classroom phenomena (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Negretti (1999: 77) claims that:

“CA approach does not lead to a generalization about language learning, but rather to the discovery of how non-native speakers produce L2 in this environment: which L2 structures, rules, and practices they adopt or sometimes create to effectively communicate in a context that forces them to rearrange their linguistic knowledge”.

Despite CA literature on SLA still being quite limited and fresh, outcomes of studies seem to complement present-day issues raised in other studies developed in other L2 research approaches such as:

- i. studies into L2 input, teaching approaches, interactive learner assessment or classroom negotiation (Markee, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004b).
- ii. varied investigations in learning contexts (teacher-fronted instruction or peer learners and group work, immersion, CLIL and mainstream classrooms, etc.) (Markee, 2000).
- iii. the social constructivist view of interaction that is shared with sociolinguistic and sociocultural approaches in SLA (Kramsch, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006b).

Markee and Kasper (2004) have implicitly launched a potential research agenda of Conversation Analysis considering the complexity of classroom discourse such as:

- i. socio-cognitive factors
- ii. learner talk as one potentially observable sign of learning
- iii. the identities of participants in conversations unfolding during interactions
- iv. the actions (including non-verbal components) bearing more communicative power than linguistic units

On the other hand, there is a dilemma of applying results of CA to other fields. Crookes (1990) claims that results in CA studies cannot be supported as a turn as a unit of analysis is inappropriate. The reason for it is that the turn does not reflect cognitive processes. Markee (2000: 33), responding to critiques, claims that CA studies have proved that interactants constantly monitor each others' utterances (Sacks et al., 1974). Therefore, language study should not uniquely focus on cognitive aspects.

Furthermore, some CA scholars claim that their approach for studying discourse is not a learning theory (Markee, *op. cit.*; Wagner, 2004). Other researchers claim that it might be necessary to carry out further CA empirical studies to determine its applicability in the SLA field. In particular, microanalytic CA studies should be replicated (Markee, *op. cit.*: 35; Markee & Kasper, 2004).

Additionally, it seems that some researchers blend ethnographic, DA and CA approaches in their studies (Abdessleem, 1987; Van Lier, 1988). Therefore, CA appears to allow some freedom in interpreting data with or without SLA preconceived theories. In the SLA field, the CA researcher has some freedom to discover, describe, analyse and interpret conversations. This approach leads to the observation of how learners and teacher co-produce interaction in the classroom environment. That is, FL structures, the rules and practices they adopt or create. On a methodological plane, discovering those actions involves the observation and detailed description of classroom practices as possible sites of cooperative building of knowledge in a formal context.

Distinctively, the CA research paradigm is another methodology that might complete the theory-driven, experimental and quantitative approaches usually associated with SLA research (He, 2004; Markee, 2000).

Overall, in the present-day SLA research field Conversation Analysis is another perspective that examines the opportunities for L2 learning in FL teaching contexts. In this way, CA seems to portray SLA learning as “*a social practice*” (Kasper, 2006: 83) adopting a distinctive research line that is still in progress. L2 Classrooms are being presented as institutional settings and particular organisations of turn-taking and sequences. In general, CA reveals the complex and dynamic nature of educational interaction (Seedhouse, 2004b: 60).

3.4.2 FL Teacher Reaction strategic turn-taking patterns

Over the last decade the study of Learner-Foreign Language Expert conversations in the SLA classroom context is viewed as one facet of ‘institutional discourses’ (Levinson, 1992). Studies in this area attempt to describe representative instances of the dynamics of classroom interaction among teachers and learners (Porquier, 1984). This approach is inspired and complemented by interest in the CA of NS-NNS or cross-cultural talk (Egbert et al., 2004; Fox et al., 1996; Hosoda, 2000; Kurhila, 2001; Luk & Lin, 2006; Mazeland & Zaman-Zadeh, 2004; Oliver, 1995; Seedhouse, 1998a; Wagner, 1996).

One area of SLA microanalysis is FL teacher reaction strategic turn-taking patterns (McHoul, 1990). Analysis of this aspect involves turn-by-turn empirical analyses of sequential environments (Krafft & Dausendschön-Gay, 1993). The goal is attempting to depict how teachers or language experts get the learners (via L2 prompts) to produce target linguistic forms and/or receive conversational feedback or repair treatment in collaboration or cooperation (Bailey, 1996; Markee, 2000; Sacks et al., 1974).

Traditionally, teachers have been considered as the persons responsible for organising conversations in educational contexts (Pomerantz, 1984b: 153). Hence, the teacher appears to hold a privileged position in the classroom in turn-taking. This leading role is assumed in the management of classroom turn allocations that differs from ordinary conversation (Sacks et al., 1974). From the CA perspective, the analysis covers the

general types of interactional organisation: i) turn-taking mechanisms, ii) the repair and iii) the conversational topics⁵⁵.

In general, researchers have examined microanalytically, on a turn-by-turn basis, the recurrent discursive sequences trying to establish the learning and didactic conversational goals (Nussbaum, 1994). The basic sequence organisation of FL classroom interaction appears to contain the following features:

- i. a pedagogical focus is introduced.
- ii. at least two persons participate
- iii. classroom interaction involves participants performing turns in the target language
- iv. there is a didactic orientation

'Turn-taking' has been the most examined pattern in natural native-non-native conversations. Prior research in classroom interaction has focused mainly on Native Speaker/Native Speaker (NS/NS) repair sequences. Nevertheless, a limited number of studies have endeavoured to describe in detail the specificity of turn-taking in the FL classroom context. Some significant findings are:

- i. turn allocation⁵⁶ tends to be more controlled and longer than in ordinary conversation (Fairclough, 1995; Iwashita, 2004; Lörcher, 1986; McHoul, 1978; Van Lier, 1988)
- ii. student initiatives are discouraged when required to do so (Fairclough, 1992; Lörcher, 1986)

It appears that teacher rigid turn-taking practices might constrain the learner use of the target language (Markee, 2000). Furthermore, the teacher pedagogical focus often aims at the production of a specific string of linguistic forms by the learners (Jefferson, 1987).

"Teacher reactions to FL learner output" is conventionally labelled as 'repair' in Conversation Analysis terminology (Kasper, 2006; McHoul, 1978). Cook (1989)

⁵⁵ Interactions are assumed to be 'contingent' to the context (Van Lier, 1996).

⁵⁶ Allocation of turns refers to the allowed time to take a turn conversations.

presents that teacher excessive interventions for correcting learner FL deviant structures violate ordinary conversational turn-taking procedures where breakdowns are unusual.

The examination of 'repair' in classroom contexts appears to be largely limited to error correction in SLA (Jung, 1999; Seedhouse, 1999; Van Lier, 1988). The 'repair processes' seem to require a cooperative effort by interactants. The teacher may conduct repair until the learner generates the accurate target language form (Markee, 2000). Studies have investigated didactic repair sequences in order to determine:

- i. the kinds of trouble perceived by the teacher
- ii. the types of repair
- iii. their success in maintaining classroom conversation

'Repair sequence' occurs when a learner has failed to produce the foreign linguistic form that the teacher is initially targeting. The subsequent sequence consists of the teacher inviting other learners to repair the learner original error. This type of other repair trajectory is noteworthy for several reasons:

- i. this trajectory does not often occur in ordinary conversation
- ii. this sequence seems to be restricted in form-accuracy contexts
- iii. this pattern allows learners to perform interactional actions (i.e., evaluation and repair/correction) that are normally reserved for the teacher

Distinctively, Kasper (1986: 27) points out that 'learner self-initiated self-repair' is relatively rare in this context since the teacher initiates repairs and assesses learner production.

Van Lier (1988) notes that conversational repair in the form and accuracy context is more common in FL classrooms. However, in some situations when linguistic errors arise, the teacher does not attempt to repair the totality of them. Furthermore, in learning contexts where meaning and fluency contexts are primordial, the teacher accepts any learner linguistic production, even if the learner productions are inaccurate.

In the following sections, we will see how some scholars have tried to define 'repair' as a sequence stimulating language acquisition. Some studies have hypothesised that the optimal L2 learning environment contains 'self-initiated learner repairs' (for further information see Section 4.5). These suppositions have led to the approach of teacher reactions focusing on teacher or language expert actions and their effects on learner production in different learning contexts.

The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce are normatively linked in some way to the pedagogical focus which is introduced. Consequently, it appears that didactic sequence goals may shape classroom interactional organisation (Heritage, 1997).

3.4.3 Learning opportunities

The ambitious goal of educational research has been to consider classroom talk that might enhance FL learning processes. Microanalytical lenses on SLA practices adopting the CA approach may reveal potentially helpful FL learning sequences of teacher supportive interactive actions.

Linked to present-day SLA research and sociocultural views of learning, some scholars have tried to create hybrid approaches to interpret the data resulting from their studies. A number of didactic situations are being regarded as Potentially Acquisitional Sequences [*"Séquences Potentiellement Acquisitionnelles"*] (De Pietro et al., 1989; De Pietro & Schneuwly, 2000; Faraco & Kida, 1999; Krafft & Dausendschön-Gay, 1993). This notion can be considered as equivalent to:

- i. Cazden's scaffolding (Cazden, 1981) (see Chapter 2)
- ii. The Vygotskian ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978) (see Chapter 2)
- iii. Implicit negative feedback forms (Long, 1996; Lyster, 1998a) (see Chapters 1 and 4).

The underlying idea is that some classroom interactional sequences seem to raise learner opportunities that engage them to participate more in their own learning processes (Ellis, 1999). According to Bilmes (1988), classroom discourse structures might constrain the learner in: i) displaying knowledge and i) participating in classroom activities.

Distinctively, it appears that studies focusing on repair illustrate involvement sequences of participants in social activities that might facilitate FL acquisition (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 2007). In this understanding, FL learner production in interaction could be the “crucible” for developing linguistic competence (Gardner & Wagner, 2004). Nevertheless, Markee (2004) suggests that data ensuing from CA studies should not be interpreted according to present-day theoretical works on SLA or the interactionist approach to acquisition. Other scholars claim that CA depictions of FL use do not reflect instances of acquisition as they defend SLA intrapsychological hypotheses (Gass, 1998; Long, 1997).

Leaving aside the debate whether CA could interpret data linking it to SLA theory, it seems that conversational interactions in the classroom are shaped according to pedagogical goals (Duff, 1986; Seedhouse, 2004b). One goal of CA research in FL classroom interaction is to characterise the interactive strategies adopted by participants (i.e., teachers and learners) in classroom contexts.

3.5 THE SOCIAL INTERACTIONIST APPROACH IN SLA

Learning a second language seems to take place in a social context like most human activities. In the present day, a rising number of scholars claim that learners acquire a second language in an external interactive environment (i.e., classroom, home, street, office, etc.) with other interactants.

After four decades of dominant nativist or mentalist⁵⁷ approaches (Chomsky, 1965) in the SLA field (see Chapter 1), the foreign language classroom becomes a relevant site for SLA research (Lightbown, 2003). So far, SL discourse research has not yet described environmental factors in full detail, *vis-à-vis* language acquisition. Furthermore, most SLA assumptions are mostly theoretical (Long, 2007).

Specifically, the research area considering the FL environment has been labelled: ‘social interactionist or environmental approaches’ (Gass & Selinker, 1994). This perspective appears to be akin to a synthesis of varied SLA interaction views such as (see Chapter 1):

⁵⁷ For decades, the bulk of SLA research has been devoted to studying three areas: i) grammatical competence, ii) the acquisition orders of the morphological and iii) the syntactic structures of non-native speakers.

- 1) Hatch's (1978) view on interaction
- 2) Krashen's (1980) Comprehensive Input Hypothesis
- 3) Long's (1983) Comprehensible Input in interaction
- 4) Swain's (1985) notion of Comprehensive Output.

The role of conversational interaction in the acquisition of a SL is based on a research tradition that covers the past two decades, beginning in the early 1980s. This approach attempts to characterise the interactive strategies adopted by participants in learning contexts. Interaction is interpreted according to SLA hypotheses concerned with input, output and internal learner capacities (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994b).

The social interactionist approach originated from Long's (1983) hypothesis that claims that linguistic and/or conversational adjustments facilitate acquisition. Modified interactions assist language learning in several ways (Long, 1996):

- i. making input more comprehensible
- ii. drawing attention to L2 form
- iii. helping to provide negative evidence to learners, that is, information as to the inappropriateness of certain linguistic forms

In general, the social interactionist approach attempts to:

- i. isolate and describe the "optimal" types of learner engaging interactions occurring in foreign language classroom contexts
- ii. relate the types of interactions to potential construction of knowledge

With reference to the first point, studies examine the potential discourse learning facilitators and background conditions of interactions (the relationships of participants, tasks, language programmes, etc.). The latter point mainly concerns the opportunities for learners to produce modified output via teacher feedback in interaction and FL teacher reactions (Gass & Mackey, 2007).

The main idea is that through interaction some favourable conditions arise for the production and comprehension of the target language (Gass et al., 1998; Gass et al., 2005; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Pica, 1994b; Varonis & Gass, 1985). Exchanges provide

an opportunity to negotiate meaning, linguistic forms and to engage actively as participants.

Those ideas are not novel in SLA as some present-day works pretend. Firstly, Kramsch (1984) in her book *Interaction et Discours dans la Classe de Langue* ("Interaction and Discourse in FL classrooms") suggested that the transmission of L2 knowledge is carried out through interaction. She presented several components that may intervene in FL acquisition processes: i) textual system, ii) a repertory of linguistic forms, iii) one ideational cognitive system and iv) one interpersonal system governing the relationships among the participants.

Furthermore, the social interactionist approach appears to follow the trends of mainstream educational research (Barnes, 1976; Frymier & Houser, 2000; McCreedy & Simich-Dudgeon, 1990) and children's bilingual Developmental Psychology (Auer, 1998), that also focus on interaction. Peculiarly, Barnes (op.cit.) described learning as largely the negotiation of teachers' messages and students' understanding.

To date research in this SLA area mainly examines how learners engage in exchanges and respond to them. 'Interaction' is not usually planned in advance but is rather 'co-produced' by teachers and learners. For this reason, the 'interactive modifications' taking place among participants⁵⁸ are central in this approach. Specifically, those conversational adjustments might allow the student to form and verify hypotheses about the language functioning during interaction, triggering cognitive processes (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2005; Long, 1983, 1996; Pica, 1991, 1994b, 1996).

The formation and verification of target language hypotheses are facilitated with feedback delivered in meaningful⁵⁹ social interaction (Erlich et al., 1990; Gregg, 2006; Long, 1983, 1996; Pica, 1994b). It is hypothesised that learner engagement in communicative exchanges might provide learning opportunities.

⁵⁸ Characteristically, this FL Classroom discourse area of expertise mainly includes interactions between: i) the teacher and students, ii) students with the teacher and/or iii) students with peers.

⁵⁹ 'Meaningful' refers to conversational interaction involving realistic language that might facilitate language acquisition.

In particular, interactions among FL knowledgeable participants and learners are regarded as interpersonal facilitators of FL learning processes (Mackey & Gass, 2006a, 2006b). Linked to the present study, the negotiating factor seems to be similar and related to teacher reactions to FL learner output. Therefore, the dynamics of interaction 'regulated' by teachers might either limit or broaden the roles of learners. In this understanding, the teacher may prompt learner participation in classroom conversations.

The current research foci in the SLA social interactionist approach consists of operationalising and isolating interactional specific components to examine their potential impact on learning (Alcón, 1994; De la Fuente, 2002, Erlich et al., 1990; García Mayo & Alcón Soler, 2002; Lyster, 2001; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Morris, 2002; Oliver, 2000; Pica et al., 1987). The main areas of the studies cover:

- 1) Interactional feedback
- 2) Modified output
- 3) Attention

These studies suggest that interactive modifications might produce more conversational comprehension than linguistic modifications (Pica, 1991; Pica et al., 1986; Pica et al., 1987).

These conversational adjustments seem to facilitate acquisition (Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Swain, 1995; Swain & Lapkin 1995; see Chapter 1) such as:

- i. raising consciousness about differences between interlanguage and target language forms
- ii. formulating hypotheses about the language function

According to Ellis (2000: 8) there seems to be another condition for acquisition of L2 through interactionally negotiated input, which is that "[...] *the forms that are noticed lie within the learner's 'processing capacity'*". 'Negotiation' would facilitate processing by giving the learner enough time to focus on both form and meaning, and to map form and meaning.

Commonly, a considerable amount of social interactionist SLA studies deal with linguistic dimensions in exploratory small scale studies (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Long & Sato, 1983; Morris, 2002; Pica & Long, 1986). Data mostly depict how certain conversational adjustments (i.e., confirmation and comprehension checks and clarification requests) assist language comprehension and production.

In general, the previous aspects investigated have not yet been corroborated thoroughly. SLA research has tried to show the role of interaction in promoting comprehended input. Nevertheless, it has not demonstrated, so far, the relationship between comprehended input and acquisition.

In the following section, we will approach the study of negotiation relating it to teacher reactions to FL learner productions.

3.5.1 Foreign Language Teacher Reactions and Negotiation

In the classroom, language input through different media and student output are delivered through social interaction. A number of empirical studies have considered the effects of different input and interactional conditions on SLA. In particular, the conversational strategy that is studied most is 'negotiation'. This notion has been originally developed in Ethnomethodology, Conversation Analysis and interactional sociolinguistic fields (Garfinkel, 1967; Goffman, 1967; Gumperz, 1982; Heritage, 1984). Subsequently, this notion has been introduced to the field of SLA (Hatch, 1978; Long, 1981).

'Negotiation' is defined as any

“modification and restructuring of interaction that occur when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility” (Pica 1994b: 495).

Interest in this variable has been stimulated by studies claiming that 'negotiated interaction' has positive effects on SL comprehension and production (De la Fuente, 2002; Ellis, 1991; Ellis et al., 1994; Gass & Varonis, 1989, 1994; Krafft &

Dausendschön-Gay, 1994; Loschky, 1994; Musumeci, 1996; Pica, 2002; Pica et al., 1987).

In particular, these actions might lead to gaining chances for comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981; Long, 1981), modified output (Swain, 1985, 1993), focus on form (Doughty, 2000, 2001; Ellis et al., 2002; Loewen, 2003; Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Sheen, 2003), and feedback (Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Schachter, 1983, 1986, 1991; White, 1991).

Specifically, the construct 'negotiation' is defined as a learning process whereby (Boulima, 1999; Gass & Varonis, 1989, 1994; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994b):

- i. The flow of communication is interrupted as a result of real or anticipated difficulties of comprehension ranging from minor problems of clarity to considerable breakdowns in communication.
- ii. The interlocutors collaborate in order to repair comprehension difficulties through a variety of interactional adjustments such as comprehension checks (e.g., "*Do you understand?*"), clarification requests (e.g., "*What do you mean?*"), and confirmation checks (e.g., "*Did you say yes?*").

The negotiation process allows TL learners to obtain 'comprehensible input', to receive 'negative input' and to produce 'comprehensible output'. This phenomenon triggers when interactants:

- i. express their failure to understand what another interactant has previously said
- ii. modify and restructure their language to make things clearer to be understood

'Negotiation' often consists of the exchange of words that springs from one FL deviant student utterance in meaning or form. This situation is usually referred to as oral error remediation and might correspond to the phenomena covering teacher reactions to FL learner output.

Over the last two decades, a considerable amount of SLA research has focused on the 'negotiation' variables that might facilitate more language learning. Specifically, a significant number of studies have revealed that 'FL negotiation' takes place through

repetitions, checks, echo-questions and recasts providing enhanced forms of language input for learners (Doughty, 1988; Loschky, 1994). In this way, messages become more comprehensible for the learner. Further specific aspects that are related to teacher reactions will be presented in more detail in Chapter 4.

Most researchers have opted for analysing 'negotiation' according to task conditions and the production or acquisition of L2 morphological and syntactical features of the L2 (Long et al., 1998; Mackey, 1999; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Nakahama et al., 2001; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Van den Branden, 1997). In general, closed tasks (having only one possible answer) are said to generate more negotiation than open tasks and difficult tasks require more negotiation than easy tasks (Pica et al., 1993). In particular, 'negotiation of meaning' in SLA has been studied under various task conditions (Faraco & Kida, 2008; Pica, 1994b) in a variety of ESL contexts as in a post-secondary content-based instructional setting (Musumeci, 1996) and in Canadian immersion classrooms (Lyster, 1998b).

With the exception of the previously mentioned immersion education studies, L2 acquisition research in the area of 'negotiation' has mostly been conducted in controlled and experimental environments (De la Fuente, 2002; Doughty, 1991; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Hino, 2006; Ishida, 2004; Iwashita, 2003; Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Long et al., 1998; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Mackey & Philp, 1998; McDonough, 2005; Muranoi, 2000; Oliver, 1995, 1998; Pica et al., 1989).

A smaller body of research has looked at the potential effects of negotiation on L2 vocabulary development (Ellis et al., 1994; He, 1998) and the role of 'pushed output' production within the negotiation process (De la Fuente, 2002). Overall, it appears that negotiation seems to work most readily on lexical items and larger syntactic units (Pica, 1994b).

3.5.2 Negotiation of meaning

'Negotiation of meaning' is defined as "*modification and restructuring of interaction that occurs when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility*" (Pica, 1994b: 495). This conduct is entirely

communicative and oriented to enable participants to understand each other and continue communication.

In recent years, in the view of optimising L2 classroom discourse according to the communicative approach of teaching, 'negotiation of meaning' has been investigated more. Nevertheless, this area of study has been encouraged since the late 1970s by Hatch (1978). This scholar explored how learning might actually derive from different types of interaction in which learners could be involved⁶⁰.

This conversational adjustment is said to trigger 'modified interaction' or repair moves (De la Fuente, 2003; Ellis et al., 1994; Long, 1983; Pica, 1994b). 'Negotiation of meaning' might entail repair strategies as clarification requests, comprehension checks, repetitions, confirmation checks, definitions, code-switching, gestures or recasting learner utterances (Clarke, 1996; Faraco & Kida, 2008; Gass & Madden, 1985; Long, 1983, 1996; Oliver, 1998, 2000, 2002; Schachter, 1984).

Distinctively, 'negotiation of meaning' notifies learners about inaccurate forms by means of recasts and explicit corrections (Long, 1996; Mackey, 1999). Subsequently, if the speaker negative feedback is provided by interlocutors, the speaker may attempt to self-correct (Long, op.cit.; Lyster, 1998a; Swain, 1985). However, 'negotiation of meaning' strategies such as recasts, repetition, expansions, confirmations and confirmation checks often overlap in ways that might create ambiguity (Lyster, 1998a). In particular, the overlap results from learner confusion of recasts, confirmation checks and expansions (Long, 1996).

Gass and Varonis (1985) have considered 'negotiation of meaning' sequences as a 'trigger-resolution sequence'. They suggested that in instances where there is incomplete understanding, learners have the opportunity of participating and asking for clarification.

Sequences of 'negotiation of meaning' consist of three components:

⁶⁰ In contrast, in the 1980s, SLA researchers have been interested in the effects of negotiation in interaction. Specifically, the focus has been on how learners might become more communicatively competent and display native-like language output.

- 1) the **'trigger'** (i.e., the problematic utterance)
- 2) the **'indicator'** (i.e., the utterance that signals incomplete understanding)
- 3) the **'reaction to the response'** (i.e., the utterance that the indicator prompts)

Regarding participants, several studies have found that there is more 'negotiation of meaning' when two non-native speakers interact than with non-native speaker-native speaker groups or with teachers (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Foster, 1998; Gass & Varonis, 1985). Additionally, this type of conversation appears to facilitate vocabulary acquisition by inducing learners (Ellis et al., 1994; Swain, 1985).

3.5.3 Negotiation of form

'Negotiation of form' has a didactic orientation directed at improving accuracy when one target language deviant structure arises in conversational interaction. The notion of 'form' refers to verbal and nominal morphology and functional items such as prepositions, articles and pronouns.

In addition, comprehensibility is not the focus since the goal is promoting language accuracy (Lyster, 1998b, 2007a, 2007b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). A number of researchers defend 'negotiation of form' as the key of SLA success. This conversational strategy usually consists of teacher prompts covering metalinguistic feedback, clarification or repetition (Mackey, 1999). The ideal situation in classroom contexts consists of the teacher drawing attention to learner deviant structures and lead to learner self-repair.

In general, 'negotiation of form' can pedagogically serve to draw learner attention to linguistic forms. Therefore, it aims at linguistic accuracy in addition to mutual comprehension. Specifically, 'negotiation of form' consists of four interactional moves that aim at drawing attention to non-target output (Lyster, 1999). This type of negotiation is broken down, traditionally, into: i) elicitation, ii) metalinguistic clues, iii) clarification requests and iv) repetition of error with emphasis (see Chapter 4 for further explanation).

According to Abdesslem (1993), a punctual correction with the subsequent interruption of an activity to centre on form is more common in L2 classrooms. Furthermore, Branden (1997) depicts that 'negotiation of form' seems to occur uniquely in the teacher-student dyads confirming its pedagogic function.

To conclude, some social interactionist researchers claim that teachers should adopt a teaching approach based on 'negotiation of form' where instructors would deal with discrete point grammar instruction (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Thornbury, 1997). This novel approach called Focus on Form (FoF) is controversial among some SLA researchers and communicative teachers. FoF is carried out during 'negotiation of form', defined as one activity that starts when a participant signals that s/he has a linguistic problem (Ellis et al., 2001a; Pérez-Vidal, 2007).

3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the initial systematising classroom discourse studies, Ethnography of Speech, Discourse Analysis (DA) and Conversation Analysis (CA) approaches. These methodological frameworks have been widely applied to studying a variety of classroom interactive processes. In particular, most of them have endeavoured to interpret FL teacher reactions in relation to foreign language learner output interventions, qualitatively and quantitatively.

The segmentation of classroom discourse is carried out in the existing studies mainly in order to examine the following issues:

- 1) features of the I-R-E (Initiation-Reply-Evaluation) sequences
- 2) teacher role as facilitator
- 3) similarities and differences between everyday conversations and interactive classroom discourse
- 4) details of classroom interaction between teachers and students
- 5) connections between discourse manifestations and theories of learning

In summary, these methodological approaches have been used to develop acquisition research regarding teacher interventions in FL classrooms.

Chapter 4

TEACHER REACTION FEATURES IN THE LIGHT OF FEEDBACK STUDIES

The previous chapters have presented an overview of general SLA theories, socioculturalism and methodological approaches examining and interpreting foreign language classroom interaction. As indicated, it appears that different study approaches acknowledge that teacher oral corrective feedback in L2 classroom interaction might facilitate FL acquisition. In the present chapter, we endeavour to establish links and relate them with the teacher reactions to FL learner output. Correspondingly, we critically discuss the specific features of the teacher reaction episodes in the light of feedback studies covering issues such as:

- 1) major research/theoretical trends into language expert reactions to learner output in L1 and L2 acquisition contexts
- 2) historical approaches to the study of FL errors
- 3) error treatment
- 4) types of oral corrective teacher feedback
- 5) uptake and repair
- 6) special traits of teacher reactions
- 7) assumed benefits of teacher feedback
- 8) teacher beliefs in learner output intervention
- 9) learner perceptions of teacher reactions to output

Overall, research on teacher reactions to foreign language learner output has almost exclusively focused on the area of error treatment.

4.1 MAJOR RESEARCH TRENDS INTO LANGUAGE EXPERT REACTIONS TO LEARNER OUTPUT

Language expert'⁶¹ reactions to language learner output are deemed to be a contributing factor to L2 acquisition. To some extent, such views are motivated by L1 research that considers the impact of 'negative feedback' in linguistic acquisition. Nevertheless, the role of language experts in L1 and L2 acquisition remains controversial in the present day.

In order to give a broad picture of this issue, we will put forward the outstanding scholar views on:

- i. language expert reactions to learners in L1 acquisition research
- ii. 'negative feedback' provided to foreign language learners in SLA educational contexts

4.1.1 L1 Acquisition Context

The role of 'language experts' providing corrective feedback has sparked off debates in L1 acquisition studies about the role of 'negative evidence' for several decades (MacWhinney, 2004).

'Negative evidence' refers to the correct model that adults or caregivers directly provide to children following children's grammatical mistakes. This issue has originated two views:

- i. **The Anti-Negative Evidence Assumption** (or nativist). That is, children do not make use of 'negative evidence' available.
- ii. **The Pro-Negative Evidence Assumption**. That is, children use the available 'negative evidence' for language acquisition.

⁶¹ The expression 'language expert' refers to a teacher, a parent, a native speaker and the more knowledgeable peers of a TL who interact with a learner in a linguistic related educational episode.

In the following sections, we will sketch these conflicting views of language acquisition. Distinctively, we will focus on the 'negative evidence assumption' that has set off the current social interactionist line in SLA research (Mackey & Goo, 2007).

4.1.1.1 The Anti-Negative Evidence Assumption

This assumption claims that 'negative evidence' is not available and/or is degenerate for learners in L1 acquisition (Atkinson, 2001; Gordon, 1990; Jackendoff, 1993; Pullum & Scholz, 2002; Wexler, 1991; Wexler & Culicover, 1980). In particular, this approach hypothesises that 'motherese'⁶² "*does not preclude the possibility that the acquisition device might find it helpful in certain respects*" (O'Grady, 1997: 252). This dominant view in L1 research claims that children might acquire language by 'innate abilities' (Schwartz, 1993; Schwartz & Gubala-Ryzak, 1992).

Empirically, the seminal work Brown and Hanlon (1970) examined adult 'overt error correction' (i.e., explicit negative feedback) during adult-child conversations in natural contexts. They found that children's incorrect utterances occasionally prompted parental corrective feedback. Nevertheless, significant psycholinguistic developmental studies including the aforementioned one indicate that:

- i. parents do not frequently correct the grammatical errors of their children (Berk, 1994; Brown & Hanlon, 1970; Cole & Cole, 1993; Gordon, 1990)
- ii. some learners do not often seem to notice explicit grammar parental corrections (Braine, 1971; McNeill, 1966)

Therefore, the reliability and usability of 'negative evidence' are questioned.

On the other hand, some studies have often interpreted parental corrections as maternal imitations of children's original utterances adding the accurate grammatical forms. In addition, these authors suggested that there is apparently effortless acquisition and 'negative feedback' seems unnecessary for learners (Cole & Cole, 1993; Lidz et al., 2003). In this understanding, this group of researchers imply that:

⁶² 'Motherese' covers the linguistic adjustments mothers make while speaking in a comprehensible way with their children.

- i. 'negative evidence' should not be regarded as a contributing factor to language acquisition since it is infrequent
- ii. L1 learners do not need overt correction to acquire a language since children's grammatical competence develops without it

4.1.1.2 The Pro-Negative Evidence Assumption

The 'pro-negative evidence assumption' has been marginally developed before the 1990s due to the popularity of mentalist theories in language acquisition. Distinctively, it claims that children frequently move from incorrect to correct versions using 'negative evidence'⁶³ or 'explicit negative feedback' largely provided by adults (Bohannon & Bonvillian, 1997; Bohannon et al., 1990; Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988; Farrar, 1992; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 1984; Moerk, 1983; Post, 1994). Consequently, a bulk of theoretical and empirical L1 acquisition studies has attempted to discover whether children notice some types of 'negative evidence' and/or learn from it in interaction (Bohannon et al., 1996; Chouinard & Clark, 2003; Küntay & Slobin, 2002; Saxton et al., 1998; Saxton et al., 2005; Saxton et al., 2006; Truscott, 1999).

Theoretically, a group of researchers (Beck & Eubank, 1991; Grimshaw & Pinker, 1989; Pinker, 1989; Strapp, 1999) have put forward some justifications for studying 'negative evidence':

- i. it occurs in adult-child conversations
- ii. it might be available and processed by learners during acquisition
- iii. it is necessary for acquisition

Accordingly, some studies have attempted to identify (Cazden, 1965; Otomo, 2001; Snow, 1977; Snow & Goldfield, 1983; Wells, 1981): i) potentially beneficial types of 'adult negative feedback' and ii) how learner and caretaker interaction might provide 'scaffolding'. Nevertheless, some studies report that children may have some difficulties in detecting, interpreting and using 'negative evidence' (Marcus, 1993; Morgan et al., 1995).

⁶³ 'Negative evidence' is more widely used among L1 authors than the term 'explicit negative feedback'.

In particular, Saxton's Contrast Theory of Negative Input (1997) puts forwards that 'negative input'⁶⁴ provided by an interlocutor following a child's error encourages learner adjustment, drawing attention to his/her linguistic deviant form. Thus, 'negative evidence' might create an immediate contrast between the adjacent erroneous child's utterance and the correct alternative form. Specifically, this author postulates that these adult interventions might contribute to the learner restructuring of overgeneralised grammar and noticing of non-salient and rare forms in the input (Saxton, 2000). Precisely, Saxton (1997: 155) claims that:

"when the child produces an utterance containing an erroneous form, which is responded to immediately with an utterance containing the correct adult alternative to the erroneous form (i.e., when negative evidence is supplied), then the child may perceive the adult form as being in contrast with the equivalent child form. Cognizance of a relevant contrast can then form the basis for perceiving the adult form as a correct alternative to the child form."

Saxton's hypotheses have been experimentally and especially tested with children's acquisition of some English irregular past tense forms (Farrar, 1992; Morgan et al., 1995). The main outcomes of these studies were that children seemed to:

- i. reproduce very often the correct irregular models
- ii. generate fewer errors following 'negative evidence'
- iii. perceive the contrasts between deviant utterances and the adult ones

Another 'negative evidence' assumption theory is the Differential Responses Hypothesis. This approach refers to the rate and the range of adult responses involved in L2 learning. It assumed that differential response rates to children's grammatical and ungrammatical utterances are crucial for promoting syntax development. This issue has been mostly tested empirically (Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988; Demetras et al., 1986; Furrow et al., 1993; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 1984; Morgan & Travis, 1989; Morgan et al., 1995; Penner, 1987).

⁶⁴ 'Negative input' is equivalent to the notion of 'negative evidence' (Lightbown & White, 1987; White, 1990). It is a generic term for any kind of adult response to children's grammatical errors.

Particularly, these authors reported that in their study, children received feedback for 34% of their syntactic deviant structures, 35% for mispronunciations and 14% for accurate output. Significantly, Bohannon and Stanowicz (1988: 687) noticed:

“adults responded differentially to children’s well- and ill-formed speech in their use of repetitions and clarification questions.”

Distinctively, ‘implicit feedback’ forms (i.e., indirect corrections) have been mainly studied in depth due to their frequency (Baker & Nelson, 1984; Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988; Demetras et al., 1986; Farrar, 1992; Iwashita, 2003), their potential benefits for acquiring linguistic constraints (Farrar, 1990; Nelson, 1977; Nelson et al., 1973) and their effects in impaired children (Proctor-Williams et al., 2001). The mentioned studies reported that adults seemed to repeat linguistic forms or use ‘recasts’ for addressing learner deviant utterances in adult-child conversations. Consequently, ‘recasts’ or ‘expansions’⁶⁵ are the most investigated adult forms in L1 acquisition studies (Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988; Demetras et al., 1986; Furrow et al., 1993; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 1984; Morgan et al., 1995; Morgan & Travis, 1989; Penner, 1987; Strapp & Federico, 2000). These forms consist of implicit adult responses that reformulate the totality or part of the children’s deviant utterances.

The overall findings of such studies suggest that ‘recasts’ might assist in:

- i. illustrating to children why their utterances are saliently defective (Farrar, 1992; Nelson, 1977)
- ii. aiding children to identify specific grammatical morphemes (Farrar, 1990; Peters, 1983), copula and auxiliary verbs (Richards & Robinson, 1993) and syntactic structures in L1 natural English acquisition settings (Nelson, 1977; Nelson et al., 1973).

Regarding childhood development stages, in the early acquisition stages children ungrammatical utterances seemed to trigger more ‘recasts’ on the part of language experts (Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988; Demetras et al., 1986; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 1984). Some researchers have shown that the frequency of ‘recasts’ sharply declines

⁶⁵ Some authors have also used the notion of ‘expansion’.

in the discourse of three-year-old children (Hirsh-Pasek et al., 1984; Morgan & Travis, 1989).

Despite the ‘negative evidence’ having focused on grammatical forms, it appears that adults intervene in problems of meaning in learner productions (Ferrán Salvadó, 1990). For that reason, adult interventions in morphological issues are less usual as:

“this belief has not been supported by studies of actual interactions between parents and children. Instead of correcting children’s speech, parents react to the meaning of children’s utterances” (O’Grady, 1987: 289).

In addition, a significant number of studies has examined the short-term impact of ‘recasts’ on specific items in subsequent learner productions. A variety of them have experimented on the manipulation of ‘recasts’ (Baker & Nelson, 1984; Nelson, 1977). Likewise, other studies have observed this move in natural parent-child interactions (Farrar, 1990). Nevertheless, ‘recasts’ are not as excellent for learners as it might appear as:

- i. these forms do not seem to reveal well to the child the precise locus of error within a sentence (Bowerman, 1988; Marcus, 1993; Morgan et al., 1995; Pinker, 1989)
- ii. correlations of the global incidence of ‘recasts’ with general measures of language growth found weak or non-existent associations (Gleitman et al., 1984; Hoff-Ginsberg, 1985; Scarborough & Wycoff, 1986)

Overall, contradictory results leave undecided whether ‘recasts’ provide helpful ‘negative evidence’ and studies are still zealously examining this issue in L1 and L2 acquisition contexts.

4.1.2 General views of Language experts and Teacher Reactions to FL Learner Output

Currently, we do not really know how learners acquire a foreign language. It seems that factors such as: i) innate attributes, ii) positive input, iii) negative input and iv) learner output might contribute in some way to linguistic acquisition.

In general, L1 acquisition research lines have often influenced numerous tentative SLA hypotheses. Beck and Eubank (1991) have provided some criteria for measuring the relevance of 'negative evidence' in FL educational contexts when: i) it exists, ii) it is present in usable form, iii) it is used, and iv) it is necessary.

Initial SLA studies have described the FL language experts or teacher pedagogical strategies to handle learner output in oral contexts (see Chapter 3 and Section 4.4). Nevertheless, the potential value for such interventions was not extensively gauged in acquisition terms until the 1990s.

Few researchers have dealt with this question due to the dominant mentalist approach of language acquisition. A number of researchers (Farrar, 1992; Izumi & Lakshmanan, 1998) have dealt with the Chomskyan term: Direct Negative Evidence⁶⁶ (Chomsky, 1981) within the generative framework. Chomsky writes:

“In the absence of evidence to the contrary, unmarked options are selected. Evidence to the contrary or evidence to fix parameters may in principle be of three types. 1. Positive evidence, 2. Direct negative evidence [...], 3. Indirect negative evidence - a not unreasonable acquisition system can be devised with the operative principle that if certain structures or rules fail to be exemplified in relatively simple expressions, where they would be expected to be found, then an (possibly marked) option is selected excluding them in the grammar so that a kind of “negative evidence” can be available without corrections, adverse reactions, etc.” (Chomsky, op. cit.: 8-9).

Since Chomsky was a nativist, it was assumed that 'negative evidence' played only a minimal role in L2 acquisition for several decades. Differently, a group of researchers (Thomas, 1988) have theorised about 'metalinguistic awareness' (i.e., the capacity to manipulate and interpret the language in one accurate way). It appears that such learner skills cannot be mastered without explicit instruction and corrective feedback provided by language experts.

⁶⁶ 'Direct negative evidence' is any explicit information about the TL provided to learners. This term can be considered as close to the term 'input'.

Teacher moves, rating learner utterances, have been termed as ‘feedback’ (El-Tatawy, 2002). Particularly, ratings may be ‘positive’ (i.e., informing of a correct learner response) or ‘negative’ (i.e., alerting to inaccuracies).

A number of studies have suggested that some types of teacher (written and/or oral) feedback might facilitate learning in FL and SL contexts⁶⁷ (De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Long et al., 1998; Lyster, 1998a; Mackey & Philp, 1998; McDonough & Mackey, 2006; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Roberts & Cimasko, 2008; Sanz & Morgan-Short, 2004).

From the 1990s, a number of studies have valued ‘negative evidence’ or ‘negative feedback’ provided by language experts for second language learners as a means to make them notice erroneous forms in their output (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998a; White et al., 1991).

Theoretically, Rutherford (1987) and White (1989, 1991) claim that ‘negative feedback’ is essential to L2 learners when ‘positive input evidence’ in natural learning environment is inadequate for acquiring particular target language (TL) forms. That is, when there is not enough evidence in the input for learners to realise the mismatch existing between their interlanguage and the target language (White, 1991).

In particular, Ortega and Long (1997) have claimed that ‘negative forms’ appear to facilitate:

- i. selective noticing and storage of new input strings
- ii. cognitive comparison between old and new data

Despite the disagreement among researchers on the role of ‘corrective feedback’ in L1 acquisition, the majority of SLA scholars (Bley-Vroman, 1986; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Chaudron, 1988; Rutherford, 1987; White, 1989, 1991) claim that corrective feedback may be needed for:

- i. rejecting false hypotheses in the L2

⁶⁷ FL and SL are the acronyms of “Foreign Language” and “Second Language”, respectively.

- ii. preventing cases of overgeneralisation in foreign language learners

Furthermore, these researchers suggested that linguistic mistakes mirrored how learners build hypotheses, check them and reformulate them internally. Thus, this view paralleled the change in the conception that generating errors is one inevitable learning stage. Hence, linguistic inaccuracies started to be regarded as potential signs of learner language acquisition.

In such cases, some form of 'negative evidence' was deemed necessary so that the learner might withdraw from the overgeneralised use of L1 rules in the L2 context. Therefore, many recent studies suggest that 'teacher feedback' (acting as input) is considered a facilitator of learning in FL and SL contexts (Long et al., 1998; Lyster, 1998a; Mackey & Philp, 1998) and specifically one aid for acquiring difficult forms (Schachter, 1991; White, 1987, 1991).

These conceptions privileged the SLA interpretations regarding language expert correction as facilitative tools for learner acquisition. In present-day research, 'negative evidence' refers to any form of teacher action or evidence that can be provided (Long & Robinson, 1998):

- i. **'pre-emptively'** (i.e., in explanations of grammar rules)
- ii. **'reactively'** (i.e., through error correction)

In particular, this interest has revived the study of teacher reactive interventions and potential learner ensuing repairs in L2 classrooms from the last decade.

Traditionally, types and features of corrective feedback have been examined in written contexts focusing on error correction (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1995, 1997, 2002, 2006; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, 1996; Hyland, 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2001, 2006a, 2006b; Kepner, 1991; Koshik, 2002; Rajagopalan, 2006). Nevertheless, in the last ten years there has been an increasing interest in the provision of oral feedback (Lochtman, 2002, 2005).

Many classroom interaction studies have identified that teachers react to learner output (Schachter, 1991):

- i. **‘directly’** (i.e., explicit evaluations or feedback)
- ii. **‘indirectly’** (i.e., implicit evaluations or feedback)

In general, some teacher strategies, which include ‘negotiation of form’, ‘recasts’ and ‘explicit corrections’ are under survey. On this line of thought, many authors are searching for what is referred to as ‘input enhancement’ (Abe, 2006; Dekhinet, 2008; Han, 2001; Izumi, 2002; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Sharwood Smith, 1993; Swain, 2000; Tsutui, 2004), which might be implemented through teacher reactions that could make linguistic target features salient.

Han (op.cit.: 584) also defined it as “*fine-tuning of corrective feedback*” thus:

“a process whereby the provider of corrective feedback tunes in to the true causal factors of an error and successfully brings the learner’s attention to the learning problem”.

Particularly, in FL learning, this optimised information might primarily consist of corrected input that allows learners to make profitable modifications consistent with their emerging linguistic system. Thus, learners progress through their interlanguage grammar. This idea is connected to the fact that error treatment should be adjusted to the level of learner linguistic and communicative competence. That is, only correcting errors that learners are able to modify by themselves. In this fashion, enhanced feedback might:

- i. give information about learner response correctness
- ii. point out a particular error or problem in the student’s written or oral output
- iii. give grammatical hints or detailed verbal explanations about the source of error or conversation failures

Currently the area of ‘reactive negative evidence’ - which is also called ‘negative feedback’ (NF) - is extensively investigated (Carroll et al., 1992; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis et al., 2001b; Long et al., 1998; Oliver, 2000). Categorising language expert reactions to learner output has been a preliminary step to examining them better.

According to the provision manner, those teacher interventions involving error correction are coded conventionally as (Oliver, 2000):

- i. **‘explicit negative feedback’** (i.e., explicit provision of correct forms)
- ii. **‘implicit negative feedback’** (i.e., forms encouraging learner self-correction)

The central focus on feedback studies has been finding out what types of error treatments in natural conversational interaction might:

- i. encourage learner immediate self-repair more efficiently
- ii. make learners notice the error better

Chaudron (1988) stated that for purposes of pedagogy teachers should favour the provision of reformulations, examples and confirmation checks for learners rather than simplifying syntax such as in a slow rate of delivery.

As we introduced in Chapter 1, Long’s (1996) Interaction Hypothesis has developed this proposal theoretically and empirically. As a brief reminder, Long postulates that ‘implicit negative feedback’ might have positive effects on FL learners. This type of feedback includes negotiation strategies such as ‘repetition’, ‘confirmation checks’, ‘clarification requests’, ‘recasts’ and ‘non-verbal signs’ as facial expressions.

Subsequently, numerous studies have empirically investigated the kind of feedback that might encourage more ‘student self-repair’ (Faraco & Kida, 2008; Han & Kim, 2008; Kim & Mathes, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 2007; Lyster, 1998a, 1999; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Nassaji & Wells, 2000). In recent years, ‘recasts’- a redisplay of inaccurate learner utterances in corrected versions - have been investigated more in L1 and L2 acquisition research (Nicholas et al., 2001).

Most ‘negative evidence’ studies in the classroom examine short-term immediate learner effects after language expert interventions (Long & Robinson, 1998). Nevertheless, there are no conclusive results of their reliability. In contrast, a number of experimental studies are attempting to correlate interactional feedback with L2 development and learner noticing with no definite generalisable outcomes (Gass et al., 2005; Lyster & Mori, 2006).

Some FL classroom studies have become interested in NS-NNS conversations (Crookes & Rulon, 1985), immersion education (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and CLIL⁶⁸ contexts (Doughty & Varela, 1998). Those contexts are regarded as more experiential and closer to natural language learning settings. Teacher interventions in these environments are being examined in an attempt to optimise mainstream FL teaching practices. However, some studies report that teachers do not correct all grammar inaccuracies.

One problematic case is the Canadian immersion setting where general outcomes of studies reveal that learners benefitting from this instruction do not seem to develop total proficiency in accuracy (Cummins, 1995, 1998; Lyster, 1999; Lyster et al., 1999; Rehner et al., 2003; Spada, 1990; Swain & Lapkin, 1986). Such paradoxical situations that also take place in pure communicative approach classrooms are reformulating Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) postulates regarding accuracy in L2 forms (Damiani, 2007; Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005; Han, 2002a, 2002b; Kowal & Swain, 1997; Long, 2007; Muranoi, 2000). Distinctively, a growing body of research in this area is focusing on 'negotiation' in order to improve this facet as presented in the preceding chapter.

In general, the search for facilitative patterns of teacher feedback has revived the examination of this area in present-day research. The general views on linguistic acquisition appear to claim that learners need assistance with a maximum and rich range of linguistic forms to develop language.

4.2 ERRORS, FL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS

From the 1970s, early error treatment studies were carried out focusing on acquisition and discourse features. This tendency started with the audiolingual approach of teaching where L2 errors were viewed as 'undesirable'. From then onwards, one of the teaching aims was how to remedy L2 errors.

Early SLA studies focused on 'explicit error correction practices' influenced by behaviourist psychology (Mings, 1993). The objective has been ensuring that learners would not produce errors in future productions by pre-emptive repetition or modelling of

⁶⁸ Content Based Language Instruction and Learning.

target language correct structures. The foreign language teaching approach that implements behaviourism is 'audiolingualism'. This matter will be extended in Section 4.2.1. Furthermore, early works dealing with teacher reactions to FL learner output were content to present taxonomies of: i) error treatment moves and ii) recurrent errors isolated from experimental studies. This categorisation has been almost restricted to 'error treatment' in narrow terms.

In the 1980s, SLA researchers found that 'overt error correction' rarely occurred in non-instructional NS-NNS conversations (Chun et al., 1982; Philp, 2003)⁶⁹. As a result, this fact encouraged some tendencies in the SLA field such as:

- i. non-correction of errors in instructional contexts
- ii. overt error correction studies were abandoned in the SLA field

4.2.1 Brief historical review of errors in SLA research

Until the 1990s, the notion 'error' has not been considered as an 'interactive category' (Brouwer et al., 2004). In SLA research, 'errors' have been mostly confined to isolated descriptions of learner deviant linguistic productions. These non-target-like features have been often considered as non-native features and symptoms of 'learner failure' in SLA.

Since the 1950s, the behaviouristic school of psychology has influenced the initial SLA research interest in 'errors'. In this view, 'errors'⁷⁰ are regarded as undesirable features resulting from inaccurate learning of target language forms. The audiolingualism teaching approach emerged from behaviourism, which made learners practise only correct target language items in the form of drilling. When errors arise in this approach, teachers correct them at once explicitly. In case the learner production is accurate,

⁶⁹ In Chun et al.'s (1984) study, native speakers only reacted to 8.9% of NNS L2 deviant utterances with corrective forms of feedback.

⁷⁰ We make a distinction between the terms 'error' and 'mistake'. 'Errors' are originated from defective knowledge of target language items. Nevertheless, 'mistakes' refer to deviant L2 forms generated by a learner lack of attention, fatigue, memory limitations or slackness. In addition, 'mistakes' also occur to native speakers involving 'processing problems' during performance (Becker, 2006).

'positive feedback' (i.e., a reward) is provided by teachers. The main aim is at minimising errors in learner productions (Nunan & Lamb, 1996).

The underlying assumptions for audiolingualism are:

- i. memorisation automatically generates learner internalisation of target language grammatical rules
- ii. the regular interaction pattern "(teacher) *stimulus* - (learner) *response* - (teacher) *reinforcement*" might prevent learner formation of negative habits (i.e., errors)

According to this perspective, learning is viewed as a process involving a routinised building of habits (Skinner, 1957).

Distinctively, the audiolingual approach claims that language learning involves simple procedures such as 'imitation', 'repetition' and 'reinforcement' of syntactical and morphological forms. Similarly to L1 children's acquisition, L2 learners produce linguistic generalisations and substitutions through trial and error learning from the behaviouristic perspective. In addition, the learner relies on the language expert reinforcements to develop the L2. Consequently, learning develops when learners formulate hypotheses and confirm them through mental processing.

The behaviourist approach has influenced subsequent works in Linguistics such as taxonomies of linguistic elements (Bloomfield, 1935)⁷¹. Therefore, we can also observe its impact on the following methodological approaches related to the study of FL learner errors:

- 1) **Error Analysis** (EA) investigates learner linguistic errors through which samples of language learner errors are collected, identified, described and classified. The ambitious goal is finding out the sources of errors.
- 2) **Contrastive Analysis** (CA) identifies and/or predicts errors that are seen as resulting from differences between the learner first language and the target language.

⁷¹ Bloomfield (1935) adapted the 'stimulus-response' behaviourist pattern in his famous 'Jack and Jill's example'.

In contrast, as we presented in Chapter 1 Chomsky (1959), who was anti-behaviourist and anti-taxonomist:

- i. explained errors in relation to the Universal Grammar (UG)
- ii. claimed that external stimuli and data were chaotic and poor and not highly significant in linguistic acquisition

Progressively, errors have been studied in cognitive models (see Chapter 1, Section 1.4.2). In this perspective, an 'error' is considered as natural evidence of language development. Hence, learning is viewed as taking place while learners commit errors. To some extent, the SLA cognitivist views emerge from the Chomskyan account of learning regarding 'hypothesis formation'. However, the SLA cognitivist perspective postulates that learners test L2 hypotheses through language use. That is to say, if a learner does not comprehend nor self-correct input, s/he reformulates again her/his original hypothesis.

Furthermore, the Chomskyan views have been empirically challenged from the last several decades by a number of studies carried out mostly in immersion contexts. These educational contexts postulated that 'errors' are largely inevitable learning phenomena (Chaudron, 1986; Floc, 1995; Gajo, 2001; Harley, 1998; Lyster, 1998b, 2001, 2002; Peregoy, 1991; Salomone, 1992; Swain, 2000). The outcomes of studies suggest that 'comprehensible input' alone is not conducive to acquisition as several SLA theoretical approaches developed (see Chapter 1, Sections 1.4.3 and 1.4.4). Therefore, two aspects have been examined in FL classrooms: i) teacher reactions under the forms of corrective feedback (Han, 2002b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and ii) learner output (Swain, 1995, 2000; Toth, 2006).

This alternative view, which takes into account the FL classroom phenomena, claims that learners need opportunities to generate language for acquiring it. It is suggested that teacher and/or peer corrective feedback are necessary for successful language learning (Allen et al., 1990; Ellis et al., 2006; Nassaji, 2007). In particular, Lyster and Ranta (op.cit.) postulate that learners need feedback to build form and functionally linguistic relationships in cognitive terms.

In addition, a number of studies have observed and analysed learner output or productions (Swain, 1995). The underlying assumption has been that output functions are connected to 'learner error repair'. The following variables have been considered: i) the gap between the L2 and the interlanguage, ii) hypothesis building and assessment and iii) the usability of linguistic knowledge.

In general, present-day SLA theory has been largely interpreted as learner experimentations with L2 rules and patterns. Eventually, learners discern how the target language works and how to use it appropriately (Pica, 1994b). Therefore, 'learner errors' are regarded as informational and triggers for testing hypotheses in learning processes. Nevertheless, some studies have revealed cases in which language experts do not always provide corrective treatment and learner errors might be intentionally ignored in natural and formal instruction contexts. However, this phenomenon is neglected in the majority of studies (Chaudron, 1988).

4.2.2 Learner Output Study Approaches: EA (Error Analysis) and CA (Contrastive Analysis)

One way of investigating L2 acquisition has been through the analysis of learner errors that had its boom during the 1970s and the 1980s. As mentioned, the approaches adopted have been Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis. Specifically, their focus has been on persistent errors. The findings regarding learner output have been useful to refute part of the simplistic behaviourist views of learning.

The prospective objective of such studies has been collecting samples of learner language from audiotapes in order to describe their main features. Nevertheless, collected data have been never transcribed as full texts (Selinker et al., 1975; Tarone et al., 1976).

Particularly, Error Analysis (EA) studies have scrutinised errors for investigating learning processes (Burt, 1975; Corder, 1967; Dagneaux et al., 1988; Fernández López, 1997; Torijano, 2004; Vázquez, 1992; Xie & Jiang, 2007). This methodological view mirrors 'error treatment' theories and practices, for the most part, progressing in the 1970s. Specifically, teacher corrective roles consisted of giving immediate 'explicit negative feedback' for "erasing" errors. This type of systematic Error Analysis has been

primarily designed to determine if L2 acquisition resulted from learner L1 transfer or creative construction⁷². Subsequently, a number of studies have proved that many inaccurate L2 learner productions were not predicted as errors (Dusková, 1969) but were 'developmental' ones (Zobl, 1980).

Error Analysis studies have often been pedagogically motivated and served to:

- i. categorise deviant learner forms according to their possible sources
- ii. find out dissimilarities across languages
- iii. build didactic instruments aimed at neutralising learner errors
- iv. raise teacher awareness of target language problematical issues for learners

As a result, learner errors have been classified according to: i) their acceptability on the part of native speakers and ii) their criteria for 'error gravity'.

This methodological approach to learner error has offered some valuable insights into L2 acquisition. It has significantly strengthened the belief about the necessity of analysing errors and tolerating them in classrooms (Ellis, 1985).

So far, some authors have identified some drawbacks of Error Analysis:

- i. Error descriptions are incomplete pictures of the ways learners acquire an L2 (Corder, 1981; Dulay et al., 1982).
- ii. Studies have been limited to the examination of some morphological and syntactic aspects of learner IL (Dulay et al., 1982).
- iii. EA is often unable to ascertain the learner's real intentions regarding errors (Corder, 1981). For instance, if learners choose 'avoidance' instead of producing target language forms (Schachter, 1974).

Gradually, Error Analysis has been replaced by Contrastive Analysis. The latter approach has tried to predict learner errors by identifying differences between L1 and target language features. The underlying assumption of CA is that errors primarily result from linguistic interference. That is, a learner transfers his/her native linguistic

⁷² 'Creative construction' refers to the learner production of rare rules similar to those that children generate while acquiring a mother tongue.

habits into the L2 being learnt. In this approach, researchers have also built taxonomies of errors. One important EA work is *The Surface Strategy Taxonomy of Errors* by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982).

For the most part, CA studies have identified main learner error behaviours such as:

- i. **'omissions'** (i.e., absence of an item in an inaccurate utterance)
- ii. **'additions'** (i.e., presence of an unnecessary item in a well-formed utterance)
- iii. **'misinformations'** (i.e., wrong use of a structure)
- iv. **'misorderings'** (i.e., incorrect placement of a linguistic item)

Outstandingly, the shortcomings of the Contrastive Analysis have been mainly:

- 1) disregarding problematic structures in oral conversations
- 2) ignoring L2 learner use of avoidance strategies

In summary, the data presented in EA and CA studies are only error descriptions devoid of hypotheses.

4.2.3 Error Evaluation Analysis: Native and Non-Native Evaluators

Error Evaluation Analysis is a SLA research procedure in which addressees (i.e., often native judges) assess non-native learner errors in order to collect useful information that might ideally improving linguistic error treatment.

The general goals of Error Evaluation studies are:

- i. building hierarchies of errors
- ii. identifying the types of errors judged as unacceptable by native evaluators

This approach has been the embryo for subsequent studies centred on language expert reactions to learner output. Nevertheless, this type of assessment takes place chiefly in experimental settings. In particular, these works are based on the native judge assessments of tape recordings or written samples produced by foreign/second language learners (Chastain, 1980; Davies, 1983; James, 1998; McCretton & Rider,

1993; Okamura, 1995; Piazza, 1980; Politzer, 1978; Sheorey, 1986). A representative work is *The Study of Reactions to spoken French and English by Canadian Respondents* by Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner and Fillenbaum (1960).

Error Evaluation Analysis studies are characterised by the facts that:

- i. the foci have been on respondent comprehension and affective factors
- ii. the majority of them have dealt with French and English as Second Languages
- iii. the material reacted to consists of lists of isolated sentences containing either one or several lexical or semantic errors

In most cases, judges assess the following variables regarding error:

- 1) comprehensibility (Munro & Derwing, 1995; Okamura, 1995; Santos, 1988; Schairer, 1992)
- 2) seriousness and naturalness (Okamura, 1995; Santos, 1988)
- 3) degree of irritation (Albrechtsen et al., 1980; Fayer & Krasinski, 1987; Gynan, 1985; Johansson, 1973; Khalil, 1985; Rifkin, 1995; Varonis & Gass, 1981)

In general, some studies report that error reactions vary according to whether judges are native speakers (NSs) or non-native speakers (NNSs). Moreover, if they are 'formal linguistic experts' (i.e., language teachers) or 'non-experts'. Interestingly, it appears that non-native speakers tend to be more severe judges of errors than native ones (Davies, 1983; Hadden, 1991; Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982; Ludwig, 1982; Sheorey, 1986).

According to the nature of errors, it appears that native speakers tend to view 'lexical errors' as more serious than 'grammatical errors' (Burt, 1975; Khalil, 1985; Tomiyana, 1980). In addition, Burt (1975) claims that natives tend to judge 'global grammatical errors'⁷³ (i.e., errors affecting overall sentence organisation) as more likely to interfere with comprehension than 'local errors'⁷⁴ (i.e., those affecting single elements in a

⁷³ In particular, 'global errors' might involve wrong word order, missing or wrongly placed sentence connectors and syntactic overgeneralisations.

⁷⁴ 'Local errors' can be morphological or grammar errors (Burt, 1975).

sentence). On the contrary, non-native speakers tended to evaluate lexical and global errors less harshly than native speakers of the target language did.

Regarding 'irritation', Albrechtsen, Henriksen and Faerch (1980) found in their study that all errors are equally annoying for native speakers. The irritant errors involve inaccurate pronunciation, intonation, discourse and pauses, which native speakers might not produce. Therefore, native judges appeared to be more concerned with language comprehensibility than inaccurate linguistic forms.

Overall, Error Evaluation Analysis studies on error hierarchies intelligibility rating have proved to be unsuccessful. Despite, evaluator criteria for rating, errors do not appear to be clear, this type of study helped to prove that NSs and NNSs judge intelligibility, acceptability and irritation differently. In addition, another drawback of the Error Evaluation Analysis procedure is its experimental design. In connection with this shortcoming, Rifkin (1995) suggests that learner speech errors should be evaluated within a communicative context.

4.2.4 Teachers as Evaluators of L2 Learner Output

The issue of 'teachers as evaluators of L2 learner output' has been tackled from different perspectives. As referred to earlier, most SLA researchers have focused almost exclusively on 'linguistic error treatment'. Nevertheless, there is a growing interest in teacher reactions or feedback in face-to-face interaction from the last decade. Principally, followers of the communicative approach of teaching have intended to scrutinise teacher oral practices.

Concerning the medium of instruction, teachers have primarily been investigated as evaluators of written texts during a first stage of SLA research (Cohen, 1987; Zamel, 1985). In connection with oral contexts, the issue of teachers as evaluators of L2 learner output has been surveyed less.

Allwright (1975) is the pioneer in this research context. This author notices that teachers often provide imprecise feedback on learner errors. In particular, rather than locating the learner error and the source of inaccuracy, teachers have merely tended to repeat a correct target language form.

Remarkably, Chaudron's studies (1977, 1985, 1988) constitute the first attempts to find out the possible interplay of errors, feedback and learner repair. His investigation involved the observation of three French immersion teachers teaching both subject matter and French Language Arts lessons at two different times during one academic school year. For this author (Chaudron, 1988: 150), the 'treatment of error' was associated with "*any teacher behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error*". From the analysis of transcripts, he devised an intricate model of error correction processes. This pioneer framework allowed comparisons between the types of teacher reactions to error moves and subsequent potential student self-correction moves. Interestingly, this study attempted to present the priorities of teacher interventions in terms of:

- i. the foci of errors (morphological, syntactic, content, etc.)
- ii. the time for corrections
- iii. the corrective preferences in relation to the educational setting (during content or language arts lessons)

Hamayan and Tucker (1980) have also examined error correction practices in two educational settings: French immersion and French L1 classrooms at Grades 3 and 5. One striking discovery is that there were significant differences between L1 and L2 teacher corrective reactions. In particular, French immersion teachers tended to correct more explicitly errors in the initial class grades than in the higher ones. Thus, it seems that the proficiency student levels might shape teacher reactions. However, the reverse pattern occurred in L1 classrooms where there was more correction in higher levels. Regarding the period of the academic year, teachers provided more feedback in the beginning of the academic year than in the end.

In relation to teacher perceptions of errors, Kasper (1984) found that teachers tolerate better 'transfer errors'⁷⁵ in communicative tasks of EFL classrooms. In contrast, the teachers regarded already taught grammatical structures as the most serious errors. This study gives hints that there might be a correlation between the scope of error correction and the lesson objective.

⁷⁵ 'Transfer' involves L1 use to receive messages (reception) or to process output (production) during communication (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Kasper, 1984).

Overall, the final aim of this approach would be at optimising the provision of teacher feedback. However, there are no conclusive outcomes of general teacher patterns as evaluators of learner L2 productions.

4.3 ERROR TREATMENT

A kind of pedagogical feedback that has pervaded SLA literature is Error Treatment. In the 1970s, SL pedagogy has predominantly advocated that error correction was, essential in succeeding in SL learning. Nevertheless, there seem to be two disadvantages regarding this approach (Tarone, 1983):

- i. it focuses on structural L2 output
- ii. it does not deal with interlanguage processes

Gradually, there have been many attempts to itemise the differentiated types of error treatment in genuine foreign language oral contexts. Distinctively, Chaudron (1977) distinguishes three principal treatment types:

- i. actions developing learner autonomous ability to self-correct
- ii. treatments eliciting learner correct responses⁷⁶
- iii. positive or negative reinforcements involving teacher expressions of approval or disapproval⁷⁷

Prabhu (1987) distinguishes two main types of correction:

- i. **'systematic correction'** (i.e., presenting or anticipating errors while doing exercises)
- ii. **'incidental correction'** (i.e., corrections taking place immediately after a student makes an error)

⁷⁶ It can be equated with the present-day notion of 'implicit feedback'.

⁷⁷ 'Reinforcement' is restricted to the episodes in which a teacher draws explicit attention to learner performances after having provided feedback.

The latter type can be: i) limited to particular ‘tokens’, ii) responsive (i.e., not preventive), iii) facilitative (i.e., helpful to continue a task), and iv) transitory (i.e., momentary).

As referred in Chapter 1, the triggering issue lying behind error treatment research has been the question whether ‘comprehensible input’ is necessary to acquire an L2. This interest led some researchers to scrutinise the range of teacher reactions, taking into account learner errors. However, this matter has not been elucidated yet and is still progressing in SLA research.

Throughout the last three decades, numerous studies (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron 1988; Hendrickson, 1978) have attempted to address the following questions originally posed by Hendrickson (op.cit.: 389) about error treatment:

- 1) *“Should errors be corrected?”*
- 2) *“If so, when should errors be corrected?”*
- 3) *“Which errors should be corrected?”*
- 4) *“How should errors be corrected?”*
- 5) *“Who should correct errors?”*

In the following sections, we will try to answer some of those abovementioned questions related to teacher reactions to FL learner output giving at the same time an overview of the error treatment study area.

4.3.1 The arguments for and against correcting errors

In the 1970s and early 1980s, there was a clear division among SLA researchers between the issue of ‘correcting errors or not doing it’. These belligerent approaches had been influenced by the prevailing language acquisition theories and pedagogy that were the predominant views in those times. A number of proposals have been put forward regarding error correction in L2 classrooms.

Distinctively, most authors advocated the ‘non-correction of learner errors’ in the initial stages of SLA research (Truscott, 1999). The ‘anti error correction view’ claimed that teachers ignore them. This approach to errors was mainly based on the notion of the

Natural Approach of L2 Development (Bailey et al., 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974; Krashen, 1977; Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

Specifically, Krashen (1982), the major supporter of this view claimed that 'correction' was:

- i. useless for 'acquisition'
- ii. dangerous for provoking negative affective responses

During the 1970s until the mid 1990s, many researchers considered 'teacher reactions involving corrective feedback' could create confusion for learners since its provision was non-systematic and often contradictory (Allen et al., 1990; Allwright, 1975; Fanselow, 1977; Nystrom, 1983).

Allwright (1975: 98-9) asserts that:

“teachers have a duty, perhaps, to be inconsistent, in the sense that they must adjust their treatment of any error to the needs of the moment”.

Nevertheless, he also says that such “inconsistency” is inevitable and even desirable. For this author, this unpredictability and variety in error treatment might reflect the teacher attempts to cater for individual learner differences.

Surprisingly enough, Long⁷⁸ (1977) also signalled that ‘inconsistency in correction’ was damaging in that period of time. Similarly, other authors (Chaudron, 1986; Fanselow, 1977) defend this position suggesting that feedback often went unnoticed by students.

In particular, Chaudron (1988: 34) summarises the communicative approach paradoxes regarding error correction in the following claims:

“teachers must either interrupt communication for the sake of formal correction or let errors pass ‘untreated’ in order to further the communicative goals of classroom interaction”.

⁷⁸ In the present day, Long, as an SLA social interactionist researcher, defends the provision of negative feedback.

During the first stages of the communicative language teaching approach, FL instruction has been “meaning-focused”. For that reason, it was recommended that the teacher ignore learner deviant forms for the sake of classroom communication. Specifically, the learner use of a FL was considered as a means for communicating ‘meaning’ (Ellis, 2001). The underlying objective was rendering classroom interaction to similar features taking place in L1 natural acquisition environments (Chaudron, 1988; Inoue & Kubota, 1994). Furthermore, some authors have also backed this view with the study outcomes stemming from natural NS/NNS conversations where adult native speakers very often disregard or ignore learner adult errors (Ellis, 1989; Izumi, 1998).

In summary, the ‘anti error correction perspective’ has been based on three hypotheses suggesting that correction:

- i. is worthless owing to the existence of a Universal Grammar (UG)
- ii. negatively affects learner motivation to learn and confuses him/her
- iii. hinders the communicative approach dynamic in FL classrooms

Conversely, some theorists and teachers have defended the ‘pro error correction view’ in which errors are not overlooked. The outcomes of observation studies report the existence of corrective feedback and the subsequent learner potential use FL in educational settings.

More to the point, Vigil and Oller (1976) have suggested that uncorrected (but comprehended) errors might lead to ‘fossilisation’ from the mentalist viewpoint. That is, learners may be persuaded that their faulty L2 utterances are accurate. In addition, students might internalise deviant structures and develop classroom pidgins (Baralo, 1994; Hammerly, 1991; Ringbom, 1987; Schachter, 1984; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). This issue has been recently dealt in the study of learner ambiguous interpretations of ‘recasts’ (Carpenter et al., 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Based on the L1 Pro-Negative Evidence Assumption (see Section 4.1.1.2), a number of studies claim that L2 experts should correct learners as parents do with L1 children. That is, expanding and rephrasing what the learner has previously produced making it more correct. It seems that teachers give priority to error correction in the L2 classroom over other kinds of actions (Horowitz, 1986; Russell & Spada, 2006; Wiczorek, 1997).

Moreover, error correction is an easy way to assess learner products (Chenoweth, 1983; Wiczorek, op.cit.).

A number of observation classroom studies (Hall, 2007) have revealed that in formal instruction where a language learner generates an oral error in the target language, the teacher intervenes, being offered two main options:

- i. to ignore an inaccurate learner production and continue the classroom activity
- ii. to address the error providing negative feedback

A more recent approach which is being examined is the Focus on Form (FoF) in FL educational settings (see Chapter 3). Currently, one dilemma arises in the ways teachers might deal with L2 learner inaccuracies in linguistic acquisition contexts (Trofimovich & Gatbonton, 2006). The ongoing social interactionist research appears to reveal that teachers might follow distinct behaviour patterns in providing feedback according to: i) the nature of errors and ii) classroom features (for example, tasks, learners, teaching context, etc.).

In particular, Allen et al. (1990) showed in their study that teachers appeared to correct learner errors according to their personal beliefs. Specifically, teacher interventions appeared to depend on their sense of irritation against different types of errors. Significantly, only 19% of grammatical errors were corrected.

In her study, Doughty (1994) reports that the teacher delivered considerable feedback to 43% of the erroneous learner turns in FL classrooms. Moreover, the instructor tended to provide more feedback to learner turns containing solely one error than those turns having more. In addition, the teacher tended to repeat just well formed student utterances.

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study reported that the observed teachers also responded with some type of corrective feedback to 62% to the student errors in immersion classrooms. Besides this, some classroom observation studies claim that teacher reactions to FL learner output do not interfere excessively with communication and do not break the flow of classroom interaction when providing learner assistance (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Lightbown, 1991; Lyster, 1998b; Spada &

Lightbown, 1993; Willis, 1981). These studies appear to depict facilitative potential learning features which mirror L1 language expert interventions in learner output. Connected with this issue, Seedhouse (1997a) has proposed techniques of 'camouflaged' teacher interventions. That is, those procedures which do not hinder classroom interaction. The two procedures are the following:

- i. producing a correct form without explicit negative feedback or indication of an error
- ii. avoiding enhanced correction by pitch, loudness, or slowed down speech tempo

Specifically, there is empirical support that correction optimises grammatical accuracy of L2 learner speech (Carroll et al., 1992; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Tomasello & Herron, 1988, 1989; Trahey & White, 1993; White, 1991; White et al., 1991). The underlying assumption behind these types of studies is that teachers giving large amounts of helpful feedback to students push them ahead in their L2 accuracy. Nevertheless, in immersion classroom interaction, teachers naturally provide 'recasts', 'negotiation of form' and 'explicit correction' in ways which do not seem to interrupt the communicative flow (Lyster, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Lyster (1998b) found some instances of communicative flow being truly broken. However, these teacher interventions did not cause any apparent anxiety as Krashen predicted. In this sense, some researchers have suggested that certain interruptions for correcting in L2 classroom might be what some authors call 'influential feedback' (e.g., Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

Mitchell and Myles (1998) observed two teachers with whom:

- i. one explicitly taught and corrected Wh-forms in English
- ii. the other provided 'incidental correction' insisting on target language accuracy

Interestingly, the outcomes showed that incidental approach students outperformed the explicit approach students.

In general, social interaction studies put forward two advantageous error treatment features:

- i. bringing students' attention to their own errors
- ii. doing it in meaningful communicative contexts

Distinctively, some researchers have suggested that the ideal error treatment goal is in striving for learner self-correction (Green & Hecht, 1993; Lazaraton, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For this reason, 'implicit feedback' forms have been claimed to be more advantageous for learners, since they might facilitate 'self-correction' or 'self-repair' (Long, 1996). In case this learner action fails, the following step is to have another student correct the original error (Calvé, 1992).

Another group of scholars (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Chenoweth et al., 1983) has defended the provision of error treatment in affective terms. The main claim is that students need and want error correction. Namely, learners need to receive helpful guidance with their L2 productions. Additionally, as studies of learner views of teacher interventions report, learners want it. However, they do not like 'overcorrection'.

Currently, the question to what extent error treatment facilitates learning is still not clear. The study of teachers' reactions types are still in progress. Nevertheless, the 'pro error correction view' is favoured by the following factors:

- i. the existence of error correction in different learning contexts
- ii. the growing bulk of studies in progress associated with teacher feedback
- iii. the potential effects on learner internal processes
- iv. learner preference for error correction as a positive affective basis
- v. the medium of assessment for learner deviant structures

On balance, considering that there are legitimate arguments both for and against addressing errors, it seems that error correction is an existing L2 classroom phenomenon. Furthermore, there are different attempts to optimise learning strategies boosted by teacher reactions. The problem lies in when and how the language teacher might approach errors.

4.3.2 When correcting errors

The issue of 'time of correction'⁷⁹ entails two aspects:

- 1) the time in which teacher interventions take place during classroom interaction or during the school year period
- 2) L2 learner interlanguage stage of development

Regarding the second point, some researchers claim that there is a natural sequence of language acquisition. Therefore, learners can never acquire items, for instance, 'third-person-singular -s' in English, until they are "ready" for them. This fact is related to the natural order/sequence study and Pienemann's 'learnability' theory (1984). Looked at in this way, Brown (1994: 220) notes that, "*the question of when (and how) to treat an error has no simple answer*".

In addition, a number of researchers have attempted to give responses to the first matter regarding the provision time of the teacher reaction. They found that the flow of communication in the target language might be temporarily and immediately interrupted and/or can be further delayed. Along these lines, teacher corrective intervention may be:

- i. **'immediate'**, usually provided by interruption with immediate error correction
- ii. **'delayed'**, with one waiting moment at:
 - 1) transitional points of conversation (Day et al., 1984)
 - 2) a subsequent point of time within the same lesson
- iii. **'postponed'**, where errors are treated in another lesson

On the subject of the affective scope of immediate correction, it may disrupt learner practice and eventually inhibit learner willingness to attempt self-correction (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Chenoweth et al., 1983). This potential learner negative effect of the teacher intervention is referred to as 'negative affective feedback' in Vigil and Oller's term (1976).

⁷⁹ That is, when correction may take place.

Furthermore, it has been reported that teachers often rush into providing a correct response without giving students enough time to process feedback. For instance, White and Lightbown (1984) found that teachers in their study rarely gave enough time for 'student repair'. Idiosyncratically, this situation took place when:

- i. teachers repeated or recast learner utterances
- ii. transferred the original problematic issue to another student

Despite Long (1977) pointing out that for correction the sooner, the more effective, it seems that a waiting-time is desired. On this account, it appears that the shorter the waiting time, the fewer and the shorter the student responses⁸⁰. Thus, it appears that a prudential waiting time after learner productions gives learners opportunities for 'self-correction' (Fanselow, 1977; Ferrán Salvadó, 1990; Holley & King, 1971; Van Lier, 1988).

Regarding the benefits of having errors addressed on the spot, learners might realise that an error has been produced. Theoretically, some SLA researchers claim that learners need to notice the error (cf. Schmidt). This step raises learner consciousness about L2 production. Furthermore, other studies report this necessity in practice (Mackey et al., 2000).

Chaudron (1988) specifies that the learner should:

- i. acknowledge the error
- ii. listen to a teacher elaboration
- iii. repair the error, even if it takes several attempts

With reference to the period of the year, Chaudron (1977) concluded that teachers corrected more students when they gave a lesson in French as opposed to English and at the beginning of the year.

In relation to affective matters, Richards and Lockhart (1994) say that teacher feedback also increases motivation. In contrast, some researchers claim that if learners

⁸⁰ There is no certain guarantee that learners grasp the meaning or understand the gravity of the error with a waiting time.

constantly receive corrective feedback, they may become discouraged, frustrated and even lose enthusiasm for speaking the TL (Chastain, 1975; Truscott, 1999; Vigil & Oller, 1976).

Distinctively, Ulichny (1996) suggests that interrupting a conversation to correct language can upset students in using the L2. Truscott (1999: 441) goes further, saying that feedback provokes “*embarrassment, anger, inhibition and feelings of inferiority*”. Largely, paradoxically it seems that:

- i. overcorrection may have a punitive effect resulting in negative reinforcement
- ii. too little may not be understood or assimilated
- iii. no correction at all may positively reinforce an error to the point of fossilisation

4.3.3 Which errors to correct

Before determining which errors teachers should correct, SLA researchers have attempted to build extensive taxonomies of learner errors.

In the first stage of SL research, errors were considered as ‘detrimental’. The primary concern in that period was finding out ‘stigmatised errors’ (Corder, 1967). That is, those learner errors perceived by native speakers as unacceptable or incomprehensible. This distinction has led some SLA researchers to codify learner errors.

Burt and Kiparsky (1974) categorised errors into two types:

- i. **‘global’** (that is, affecting overall intelligibility)
- ii. **‘local’** (that is, minor linguistic mistakes)

The initial Chaudron study (1977) divided errors into lexical, phonological, morphological, syntactic, discourse and content. In relation to the occurrence of errors, Fanselow (1977) found that grammar errors are more frequent, but treated less. This author concludes that deciding which errors should be corrected depends on the course content.

Ramirez and Stromquist (1979) report a positive correlation between the correction of grammatical errors and gains in linguistic proficiency in ESL bilingual schools. However, this study did not examine the relationship between the correction and elimination of specific errors.

Furthermore, Chaudron (1977, 1986, 1988) codified errors in relation to teachers' priorities in correction and preferred corrective situations. Progressively, more researchers (Chun et al., 1982; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Nystrom, 1983) have enlarged this initial list of Chaudron.

A number of studies (Calvé, 1992; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ramirez & Stromquist, 1979) have been carried out in bilingual and immersion contexts in order to:

- i. to ascertain whether teachers should correct errors
- ii. to find out what really happened in relation to error correction

The final endeavour of studies about taxonomies of errors has been discovering:

- i. what types of errors give rise to different types of retroaction
- ii. what types of retroaction end in a learner repair

A comprehensive list of errors is made by Lyster and Ranta (1997) in Canadian French immersion. These errors are mainly classified as:

- i. 'unique'
- ii. 'multiple'

In particular, 'multiple errors' cover grammatical errors, gender⁸¹, lexical, phonological error and productions that contained references from the L1. Subsequently, classroom learner errors are catalogued according to their linguistic nature:

- i. **'Grammatical errors'** cover errors stemming from closed type of words (determiners, prepositions and pronouns), syntactic errors, verbal tenses,

⁸¹ A separate category for errors in grammatical gender was included because of their frequency.

verbal morphology, use of auxiliaries, the concordance of the verb with the subject, the gender, the concordance of the noun and the adjective, the formation of the plural, the negation, the interrogation, etc.

- ii. **'Lexical errors'** include the incorrect use of words belonging to open groups (nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives) and incorrect word formation of prefixes and suffixes.
- iii. **'Phonological errors'** encompass wrong pronunciation of L2 aspects.
- iv. **'Use of the L1'** embodies the unsolicited use of the L2⁸².

In the majority of cases, certain types of errors are much more likely to be treated than other forms. For example, in oral interaction discourse, content, and lexical errors receive more attention than phonological or grammatical errors. In addition, there are many errors that are not treated at all. Nevertheless, it has been also reported that there is considerable variation among teachers regarding how frequently error treatment takes place.

With reference to the type of target error, the teacher should choose the more effective and desirable treatment. Moreover, s/he should take into account that it is impossible to provide feedback to all errors.

Calvé (1992) proposes that teachers should target the following types of inaccuracies:

- i. recurrent errors
- ii. errors that are the current focus of the lesson
- iii. errors that the learner could have avoided
- iv. deviant structures that might be ready to be shortly acquired on the part of the learner
- v. errors that impede communication
- vi. errors that bother the interlocutor

Lennon (1991) suggests that in error identification L2 experts should consider two dimensions of error:

⁸² This category does not include the use of the L1 for metalinguistic goals.

- i. **'domain'** refers to the breadth of the context (word, phrase, clause, previous sentence or discourse)
- ii. **'extent'** relates to the size of the unit (morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence) that requires deleting, replacing, reordering or supplying to 'repair' a wrong production

Tomasello and Herron (1989) in their study compare two corrective methods for eight errors (identified as 'transfer errors') produced by college students enrolled in a beginning French course. The features of two conditions in this study are depicted in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 *Tomasello's and Herron's study of Explicit Negative Feedback*

TOMASELLO'S AND HERRON'S STUDY OF EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	
CONDITIONS	DESCRIPTIONS
The control condition	<p>a) Students were given the correct target language forms while translating sentences.</p> <p>b) Students received extra explanations about differences between their L1 and L2 as a measure to prevent mistakes before implementing the task.</p>
The experimental condition (Garden Path Condition)	<p>a) Students were deliberately led to make a transfer error while translating sentences from English into French.</p> <p>b) Students, after carrying out the tasks, were told the correct forms.</p>

In the Garden Path Condition, while providing feedback, the teacher wrote the correct and incorrect forms on the chalkboard. Thus, it is assumed that learners had more time for visual and cognitive comparison. Overall, the results of this study indicated that students in the Garden Path Condition consistently outperformed students in the control condition.

In the last ten years there are studies dealing with corrective feedback in natural SL conversation contexts. That is, they take place without researcher intervention by means of an experimental design. These studies try to determine the interactive processes, the priorities and results of error correction (Brock et al., 1986; Day et al., 1984).

Interestingly enough, 'content errors' have been neglected in the aforementioned studies. Furthermore, studies into the provision of feedback have not produced definite results despite taxonomies of errors (Truscott, 1999).

In the following section, we will present some significant models of error treatment in this field of acquisition research.

4.3.4 Error Treatment Sequences

Error treatment is an enormously complex process. The issue of 'how learners should be corrected' has been a constant centre of attention in SL teaching research (Harmer, 1991; Omaggio, 1982). Many studies claim that descriptive work of this issue needs to be carried out before investigating the effects of different error treatment types involved in error treatment. Consequently, a number of scholars have attempted to develop elaborative decision-making systems related to error treatment teacher behaviours (Chaudron, 1977; Day et al., 1984; Long, 1977).

Another type of approach has been building extensive taxonomies of various kinds regarding teacher corrective reactions (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Van Lier, 1988). Predominantly, studies examining teacher reactions follow the tracks of the initial discourse analysts (Allwright, *op.cit.*; Chaudron, *op.cit.*; Fanselow, 1977; Nystrom, 1983; Salica, 1981). A significant number have adapted the descriptive framework of Chaudron (1977) which is based on Fanselow's one. Those models attempt to portray features related to teacher reaction events in relation to foreign language learner output.

Allwright's (1975: 104) pioneer work attempted to present the basic options and possible features of error treatment. These teacher interventions include informational, remedial and affective aspects of error treatment. The basic options are illustrated in Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

Table 4.2 *Basic options of Teacher Intervention in Error Correction*

BASIC OPTIONS OF TEACHER INTERVENTION IN ERROR CORRECTION
1. to treat it or to ignore it completely
2. to treat immediately or delay
3. to transfer treatment or not
4. to transfer to another individual, a sub-group, or to the whole class
5. to return, or not, to original error-maker after treatment
6. to call upon, or permit, another learner (or learners) to provide treatment
7. to test efficacy of treatment

Table 4.3 *Further possible options of Teacher Interventions in Error Correction*

FURTHER POSSIBLE OPTIONS OF TEACHER INTERVENTION IN ERROR CORRECTION	
8.	fact of error indicated
9.	blame indicated
10.	location indicated
11.	opportunity for new attempt given
12.	model provided
13.	error type indicated
14.	remedy indicated
15.	improvement indicated
16.	praise indicated

Overall, Allwright's study notes that the provision of feedback is a complex phenomenon that goes beyond the IRF structure.

Long (1977) catalogues three teacher strategies which inform learners of their own errors:

- i. commission of error
- ii. location of error
- iii. identity of error

Chaudron's (1977) *Descriptive Model of Discourse in the Corrective Treatment of Learners' Errors* is a comprehensive feedback model which has been initially used as an observation template. It consists of a total of 31 'features' (i.e., corrective acts that are dependent on context) and 'types' (i.e., acts capable of standing independently such as repetition, expansion, reduction, emphasis, clue, repeat, loop, question, prompt, transfer, etc.) (see Table 4.4).

This model categorises different pragmatic functions of teacher talk and behaviours that might arise in learner error treatment during oral activities. It considers that teachers react to learner errors in a variety of ways. Interestingly, Chaudron has not referred to these teacher moves as 'feedback'⁸³. Some of them might correspond to types and features of 'explicit negative feedback' and 'implicit negative feedback'. However, this model has been the first attempt to look into relationships with the type of error, teacher feedback and learner repair. The significant outcome is that the most

⁸³ This scholar did not originally use the term 'feedback' at the time he designed his model of error treatment, believing that it was a very general descriptor.

common type of feedback consisted of the reformulation of learner utterances, accompanied by various features such as 'emphasis'. Throughout the years, some categories proposed by Chaudron (1988) have been reformulated by other authors. Take, for instance, the notion of 'repetition with change', which refers to 'recast' in a large number of present-day studies.

Chaudron (1977, 1988) presents a long list of 'feedback features and types'. Nevertheless, he does not present them as such since he was not satisfied with the notion of feedback.

Table 4.4 Chaudron's (1977) Descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors ⁸⁴

TREATMENTS	DESCRIPTIONS
1. Ignore (T⁸⁵)	The teacher ignores the student error, goes on to another topic and/or shows acceptance of content.
2. Interrupt (F⁸⁶)	The teacher interrupts the student utterance following error, or before the student has completed the utterance.
3. Delay (F)	The teacher waits for the student to complete utterance before providing feedback.
4. Acceptance (T)	Simple approving or accepting word (usually as a sign of reception of utterance) but s/he may immediately correct a linguistic error.
5. Attention (T-F)	Attention-getter, probably quickly learned by the students.
6. Negation (T-F)	The teacher shows rejection of part or all of the student utterance.
7. Provide (T)	The teacher provides the correct answer when the student has been unable or when no response is offered.
8. Reduction (F)	The teacher utterance employs only a segment of the student utterance.
9. Expansion (F)	The teacher adds more linguistic material to the student utterance, possibly making it more complete.
10. Emphasis (F)	The teacher uses stress, iterative repetition or question intonation to mark area or fact of incorrectness.
11. Repetition with no change (T) (optional EXP⁸⁷. & RED⁸⁸.)	The teacher repeats the student utterance with no change of error, or omission of error.

⁸⁴ The corrective categories are taken from Chaudron (1988: 146-8).

⁸⁵ 'T' stands for 'Type'.

⁸⁶ 'F' stands for 'Feature'.

⁸⁷ 'EXP.' stands for 'Expansion'.

⁸⁸ 'RED.' stands for 'Reduction'.

12. Repetition with no change & emphasis (T) (optional EXP. & RED.)	The teacher repeats the student utterance with no change of error, but locates or indicates fact of error.
13. Repetition with change (T) (optional EXP. & RED.)	The teacher simply adds correction repeating the learner previous incorrect utterance and continues to other topics.
14. Repetition with change and emphasis (T)(optional EXP. & RED.)	The teacher repeats the incorrect learner utterance and adds emphasis to stress location of error and its correct formulation.
15. Explanation (T) (optional EXP. & RED.)	The teacher provides information as to cause or type of error.
16. Complex explanation (T)	Combination of negation, repetitions and/or explanation.
17. Repeat (T)	The teacher requests the student to repeat the utterance, with the intent to have student-self-correct.
18. Repeat (implicit)	Procedures are understood that by pointing or otherwise signalling, teacher can have the student repeat.
19. Loop (T)	The teacher honestly needs a replay of the student utterance, due to lack of clarity or certainty of its form.
20. Prompt (T)	The teacher uses a lead-in cue to get the student to repeat an utterance, possibly pointing out an error or by a slight rising of intonation.
21. Clue (T)	The teacher reaction provides the student with isolation of type of error or of the nature of its immediate correction, without providing correction.
22. Original question (T)	The teacher repeats the original question that led to response.
23. Altered question (T)	The teacher alters original question syntactically, but not semantically.
24. Questions (T) (optional RED., EXP. & RED.)	Numerous ways of asking for a new response, often with clues.
25. Transfer (T)	The teacher asks another student or several, or the class to provide correction.
26. Acceptance*⁸⁹ (T)	The teacher shows approval of the student utterance.
27. Repetitions* (T)	Where the teacher attempts reinforcement of correct response.
28. Explanation* (T)	The teacher explains why response is correct.
29. Return (T)	The teacher returns to original error-maker for another attempt, after transfer. It is a type of verification.
30. Verification (T-F)	The teacher attempts to ensure understanding of correction; a new elicitation is implicit or made more explicit.
31. Exit (F)	At any stage in the exchange, the teacher may drop correction of the error, though usually not after explicit negation, emphasis, etc.

⁸⁹ ‘*’ Asterisk indicates acts involving ‘positive feedback’.

Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998) reformulating some of Chaudron's model features proposes a subclassification of teachers' moves involving error treatment (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 *Teacher Moves involving Error Treatment*

TEACHERS' MOVES INVOLVING ERROR TREATMENT		
I. NON INCORPORATION OF STUDENT'S UTTERANCES		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS ⁹⁰	EXAMPLES ⁹¹
Ignore	"The teacher ignores the student utterance, goes on to other topic and/or shows acceptance of content even if there is an error".	Example 4.1 S: Com/pu/ter program start second to third. T: Third. ⁹²
Exit	"At any stage in the exchange the teacher may drop correction of the error".	
II. INCORPORATION OF STUDENT'S UTTERANCES		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Acceptance	"The teacher simply approves or accepts the student utterance but he or she may immediately correct a learner error".	Example 4.2 S: It's something that you put on your foot. T: OK. That you put on your feet .
Interruption	"The teacher interrupts the student utterance following error or before the student has completed the utterance".	Example 4.3 S: Les dernières séances finient . T: Fini ↑ et quoi de plus?
Delay	"The teacher waits for the student to complete the utterance before providing feedback".	

Thus, teacher moves might:

- i. involve teacher incorporations of learner utterances
- ii. entail that the teacher ignores or drops correction regarding a previous learner utterance

⁹⁰ Definitions between brackets belong to Chaudron (op.cit.).

⁹¹ Examples are extracted from Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998).

⁹² In this example, the teacher does not take into account the learner errors. Specifically, the teacher neglects the use of the definite article in the student utterance, an error in pronunciation in the word "computer" and the correct verbal form of the verb "start".

'Soliciting teacher reactions' covers the moves where a teacher might solicit a learner who has originated a previous deviant utterance or ask another student/-s to provide correction. These moves are displayed in Table 4.6.

As for 'loop', the teacher used it when learners gave responses with insecurity. That is, providing a correct and a wrong L2 linguistic form as an answer of an exercise.

Example 4.7

S: Fifteen...Fifty pounds

T: Fifteen or fifty?

(Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

Moreover, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) have attempted to analyse all kinds of assessment in teacher talk⁹³. They classified them as acts such as: i) an acceptance, ii) a repetition of a response, iii) an evaluation and iii) a comment.

Table 4.6 *Soliciting Teacher Reactions*

SOLICITING TEACHER REACTIONS		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS ⁹⁴	EXAMPLES ⁹⁵
Loop	"The teacher honestly needs a replay of the student utterance, due to lack of clarity or certainty of its form."	Example 4.4 S: It is a place where you catch the /tran/. T: What?
Transfer	"The teacher asks another student or the class to provide the correction."	Example 4.5 S: It's something when... No lo sé explicar [Cat]. T: Can you help her? Who has the same paper? Sandra?
Verification	"The teacher attempts to ensure understanding of the correction and elicits correct response from the student."	Example 4.6 S: What you watched last night on TV? T: What did you watch? Com es formen les "questions" en passat [Cat]?
Return	"The teacher returns to the original error-maker for another attempt, after transfer."	

⁹³ Sinclair and Coulthard did not only focus on error correction.

⁹⁴ Definitions between brackets belong to Chaudron (op.cit.).

⁹⁵ Examples are extracted from Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998).

In addition to correction (i.e., explicit negative feedback), Frölich et al. (1985) identified different degrees of teacher reactions to learner messages completing Chaudron's model (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 *Range of Teacher Reactions*

RANGE OF TEACHER REACTIONS	
i) Non incorporation	(no feedback)
ii) Total or partial repetition of a previous utterance	
iii) Paraphrase	(completing or reformulating the previous utterance)
iv) Comment	(positive or negative without correction)
v) Expansion	(expanding the content of the previous utterances adding related information)
vi) Elaboration	(asking for more information related to the content of the previous utterance)

Furthermore, some researchers have identified pedagogical functions to give meaning to the patterns of teacher responses to students. Jarvis and Robinson (1997) classify the pedagogical functions into the following groups:

Table 4.8 *Pedagogical functions of Teachers' Responses*

PEDAGOGICAL FUNCTIONS OF TEACHERS' RESPONSES	
1. Accept learner utterances	
1a. Accepting	Assessing or showing that message has been received.
1b. Completing	Asking learners to complete words.
1c. Encouraging	Assessment.
1d. Confirming	When the teacher says yes after what he has said.
2. Model language	
2a. Reformulating	What the student has said.
3. Give clues	
4. Expand	
4a. Guide	Expanding a short learner response by guiding them to reason and think further to reach a correct response through a question.
4b. Bridge	Expanding what a learner has said and the teacher adds his/her own explanation.
5. Clarify comprehension or the task	
5a. Verifying, summarising and marking a proposal	
6. Reject and/or ignore	

In relation to the precedent functions, the teacher 'accept' function is noticeably frequent. The teacher may use the function of 'expand/guide' or 'expand/bridge', or may 'prompt or clue' students to articulate ideas. Therefore, it seems that there is flexibility in the choices of functions.

In the present day, the most popular and cited error treatment model is Lyster and Ranta's (1997). Their error treatment sequence encompasses different stages:

Table 4.9 *Lyster and Ranta's Error Treatment Sequence*

LYSTER AND RANTA'S ERROR TREATMENT SEQUENCE
1. Learner error (L1, gender, grammatical, lexical, phonological, multiple)
2a. Teacher feedback (explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition) 2b. Topic continuation (teacher/ student)
3. Learner uptake 3a. Needs-repair (acknowledge, different error, same error, hesitation, off-target, partial repair) 3b. Repair (repetition, incorporation, self-repair, peer-repair)
4. Reinforcement

In the latest version of this error treatment sequence (Lyster, 1999), the teacher has two choices after one incorrect utterance:

- 1) continuing the lesson without intervening
- 2) intervening immediately⁹⁶

After this latter option, there are equally two alternatives:

- i. the learner attempts to 'uptake'
- ii. the lesson goes on

If the teacher attempts to 'uptake', s/he has still two options: i) the student repairs or ii) s/he does not repair her/his utterance.

In summary, the final aim of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study was in:

- i. developing an analytic model grouping the sequences of error treatment in the SL classroom
- ii. applying this model to data analysis of four French immersion classroom interactions

⁹⁶ That is, in a retroactive manner in response to an error.

This corrective model has determined the frequency and distribution of corrective retroactions and the responses of students to corrections.

Another influential model of error treatment sequence is Mackey's (1999) Flow of Interaction Enhancement (IE) during the Performance Phase. This author presents different stages:

Table 4.10 *Flow of Interaction Enhancement during the Performance Phase*

FLOW OF INTERACTION ENHANCEMENT DURING THE PERFORMANCE PHASE
1. Output Enhancement⁹⁷ (OE)
2. Output 2a. Output A - Correct (TOPIC CONTINUATION) - Incorrect (REQUEST FOR REPETITION) 2b. Output B - No response (IE/OE)
3. Correction 3a. Correct (REPETITION OF MODIFIED OUTPUT=> TOPIC CONTINUATION) 3b. Incorrect (REQUEST FOR REPETITION=> RECAST TO MODIFIED OUTPUT)
4. No response (RECAST TO OUTPUT A or B (IE))
5. TOPIC CONTINUATION

Despite most studies on error correction having aimed at building models of error treatment, it is very intricate to make definite ones. The complexity of the decision-making process is evidenced in the inconsistency and lack of precision of error treatments manifested in some studies (Lyster et al., 1999).

Long (1977) notes that teachers often give more than one type of feedback simultaneously. That is, teachers often use one behaviour for more than one purpose. For instance, a teacher repetition which can occur after a learner error might serve as a model for imitation, or it can function as a reinforcement of a correct response.

Additionally, teachers frequently fail to indicate where and how an utterance is deviant (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For instance, they respond positively even when learners make errors. Furthermore, they correct errors in

⁹⁷ 'Output Enhancement' sets an obligatory context for a target form through a scenario.

one part of the lesson but ignore them at another stage, or they may give up correction if learners do not seem able to handle it.

4.4 CURRENT TYPICAL ORAL INTERACTION FEEDBACK TYPES

The issue of feedback is central in SLA research and practice. This notion has been widely used since the 1990s in FL acquisition research. We should recall that almost the totality of this present dissertation examines this issue. “Teacher reactions to foreign language learner output” is roughly equivalent to this term ‘feedback’.

The notion of ‘feedback’ has been divergent. One of the first references to the term ‘feedback’ in SLA comes from Vigil and Oller (1976). These authors stated that teachers had to provide two appropriate types of feedback to their learners:

- i. **‘cognitive feedback’**, which gives information about the use of the language
- ii. **‘affective feedback’**, which is the motivational support that interlocutors provide each other during an interaction⁹⁸

Those notions by Vigil and Oller were related to abstract notions of feedback. They did not refer to different forms of error treatment as in present-day SLA research.

In the 1960s and the 1970s, feedback was almost equal to ‘error correction’. However, Marshall (1965) and Barringer and Gholson (1979) examined variables such as:

- 1) timing of feedback (immediate vs. delayed)
- 2) the form of feedback (reward vs. punishment, verbal vs. monetary rewards)
- 3) the nature of feedback (positive vs. negative feedback).

The origin of the term feedback in SL research comes from the cybernetic notion of feedback (Menezes de Olivera e Paiva, 2003). Feedback designates:

“the processes by which a control unit of any kind gains information about the effects of its own actions, thus enabling the unit to evaluate and control its own further activity” (Alwood, 1995: 197).

⁹⁸ This type of feedback is related to the speaker-listener relationship.

Moreover, 'feedback' has been widely investigated in information theory. The psychologist Annett (1969: 26) defines 'feedback' as "*knowledge of results*". The notion of 'negative feedback' (Gold, 1967) applied to Linguistics in SLA comes from L1 acquisition research. It has been broadly defined as information following an error produced by a language learner. Discourse analysts label it 'repair' (Kasper, 1985). Second language teachers name it 'corrective feedback' (Fanselow, 1977). Recently, some linguists call it 'Focus on Form' in classroom second language acquisition Ellis et al., 2001b; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1991). Nevertheless, in the language acquisition field, some researchers also commonly refer to it as 'negative evidence' (White, 1989) or 'negative data' (Schachter, 1991) as in Psychology.

In summary, 'feedback' refers to the responses people get when they attempt to interact with other person/s in different contexts. Maybe the concepts that have lasted in current SL/FL research literature are the affective notions of 'positive' and 'negative feedback' in educational contexts that will be presented. Interestingly enough, most studies dealing with feedback have focused on written feedback (Brandl, 1995; Ferris, 1997; Gascoigne, 2004; Hyland & Hyland, 2006a, 2006b; Kepner, 1991; Young & Miller, 2004). In the following sections, we will define:

- i. 'positive' and 'negative' feedback
- ii. 'explicit' and 'implicit' feedback

4.4.1 Positive feedback

One of the topics that has been less investigated in language classroom research is 'positive feedback'⁹⁹ (Dreikurs et al., 1982; Reigel, 2005).

Table 4.11 *Positive Feedback*

POSITIVE FEEDBACK		
CATEGORY	DEFINITION	Example 4.8
Positive feedback	Confirmation in some way that a preceding behaviour of another participant is correct.	"That's right", "Your answer is right", "Yes, that word is pronounced the way you said it".

⁹⁹ 'Positive feedback' refers to all those teacher strategies that serve to indicate the correctness of L2 learner utterances. It is not an equivalent to 'positive evidence' (Long, 1996) that supplies learners with models of what is correct in the L2 or makes input more comprehensible in the cognitive sense.

Nunan (1991: 195) presents the view that:

"[...] Positive feedback has two principal functions: to let students know that they have performed correctly, and to increase motivation through praise."

It has usually been labelled and examined as 'signs of approval' (Chaudron, 1988; Ferreira, 2006; Long, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997, 1998a) which include:

- 1) **'simple affirmation'** or **'acknowledgment'** (e.g., "*oui, c'est ça*", and "*OK*".)
- 2) **'praise markers'** (e.g., "*très bien*", "*bravo*", and "*excellent*".)
- 3) **'repetition of the student repair'**

This type of feedback is usually explicitly provided by teachers.

'Positive statement' refers to the teacher approval of a student correct utterance (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998).

Example 4.9

T: What day is today?

Ss: Wednesday 15th April.

T: OK. [gesture of nodding]

(Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

In addition, teachers often repeat the correct learner response to reinforce it and encourage or praise the learner. Lyster (1998a) calls this type of feedback 'non-corrective repetitions'. These teacher strategies consist of a repetition of a correct learner utterance. Peculiarly, they act as reinforcement that follows a learner utterance. In these situations, the teacher reinforces the correct form by repeating it and demonstrating approval or praising.

Example 4.10

S: Best.

T: Best. [writes on the BB] OK.

(Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

The following two categories of 'repetitions' by Lyster (originally categorised as negative feedback): i) 'isolated declarative repetition' and ii) 'incorporated declarative repetition' that might be included in 'explicit positive feedback' together with 'positive statements' (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 2004). The categories of 'explicit positive feedback' are presented in Table 4.12.

In some cases, these repetitions might be accompanied by 'metalinguistic positive feedback'¹⁰⁰. In some situations, teachers may provide such explanations to inform the learner about the correctness of a learner utterance (Chaudron, 1987; Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998).

Table 4.12 *Types of Explicit Positive Feedback*

TYPES OF EXPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK	DEFINITIONS
Positive Statement	Teacher's 'approval of a learner correct utterance' that includes 'acknowledgments' and 'praise markers'.
Non-corrective Repetitions > Isolated Declarative Repetition > Incorporated Declarative Repetition	Echo after learner correct responses to reinforce them and confirm correctness. Exact repetition. Incorporation of the totality or part of a learner utterance into a longer statement to provide additional information.

An 'isolated declarative repetition' might consist of an exact echo of a learner utterance that confirms it. It provides confirmation of the learner message by repeating all or part of the utterance with falling intonation and no additional meaning. Moreover, 'incorporated declarative repetition' incorporates all or part of a learner utterance into a longer statement. It provides additional information. Other researchers have referred to this feedback as 'expansion' (Lyster, 1998a). It takes place when the teacher expands what a student has told and shows that his message has been understood.

Different types of 'positive feedback' and 'other types of negative feedback' (particularly, 'recasts') have been investigated in relation to potential ambiguity in classroom discourse for SL learners (Lyster, op.cit.). In particular, teacher positive feedback used with adjacent 'recasts' or 'repetitions' is considered as potentially

¹⁰⁰ These forms might correspond to Chaudron's (1988) 'expansions' or Lyster's (1998) 'incorporated declarative repetitions'.

ambiguous for learners in interaction. These signs of approval may accompany both 'recasts' and the 'non-corrective repetitions'.

By means of these types of repetitions, the learner can also get lost with ambiguity. The learner may not be sure if his utterance is really correct. 'Non-corrective repetitions' sometimes mislead learners since they are structurally similar to 'reformulations' or 'recasts'. For that reason, learners might misinterpret them ambiguously as 'negative feedback', as some studies report (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Hellermann, 2003; Lyster, 1998a; Mackey et al., 2000; Mackey et al., 2007). Additionally, learners sometimes feel dazzled when they believe that teacher intentions are to focus on 'form' or on the 'meaning' of deviant forms.

Some studies report that teachers frequently used the same sign of approval ("OK" or "*Très bien*") as a non-corrective repetition and after an L2 student deviant output producing cases of ambiguity. In some cases, teachers did not provide corrective treatment. This phenomenon is usual in immersion educational contexts (Chaudron, 1988; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Two other types of Lyster's repetitions that attempt to elicit further confirmation on the part of the learner might implicitly also provide 'positive feedback' (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13 *Types of Implicit Positive Feedback*

TYPES OF IMPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK	DEFINITIONS
Isolated Interrogative Repetition	Exact repetition of all or part of the learner utterance in a rising tone with no additional meaning seeking learner confirmation of the utterance.
Incorporated Interrogative Repetition	Incorporation of the student utterance in a question by which the teacher looks for additional information.

Regarding the length of feedback, Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998) shows that positive teacher linguistic reactions were shorter than negative reactions involving feedback. Many instances consisted only of one word such as "OK". In contrast, there were significant differences related to the target language being taught. The English teacher in this study only used "OK", whereas the French teacher used a larger lexical repertory ("*ça va*"; "*très bien*"; "OK"; "*oui, c'est ça*", "*bien*"; "*super*").

In relation to affective matters, some researchers argue that the teacher should provide feedback in a manner that is positive and uncritical. So s/he might enhance learner perceived competence and hence motivation (Noels, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997). This practice “holds that a positive affective response is imperative to the learner’s desire to continue attempts to communicate” (Brown, 1994: 218). For that reason, the factor of motivation should be studied in relation to positive feedback.

In general, it has been reported that feedback can be positive generally under the form of appraisals or exact repetitions of a correct response of a learner. Nevertheless, in some cases the use of some forms might result in ambiguity for learners (Ayoun, 2001; Lyster, 1998a).

4.4.2 Negative Feedback

During the last ten years, there has been a great debate in SLA about the role of ‘negative feedback’. However, in the present day, scholars remain less divided. Mentalists seem to acknowledge that ‘negative evidence’ is necessary for acquisition.

‘Negative feedback’ (i.e., error correction) has mostly been investigated in verbal instances that might consist of explicit utterances as: “*You can’t say that word that way*” or “*That word doesn’t mean what you think it does*” (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Chaudron, 1988). Traditionally, this type of ‘feedback’ took the form of ‘explicit correction’. Nevertheless, there have been changes in the ideal feedback characteristics according to teaching approaches and SLA theories.

Table 4.14 *Negative Feedback*

NEGATIVE FEEDBACK		
CATEGORY	DEFINITION	Example 4.11
Negative feedback	Indication that preceding behaviour of another participant is incorrect.	“No, that’s wrong.”

In present-day education, ‘punishing errors’ for pedagogical aims is not the main concern of teachers. On the contrary, signals of encouragement for using the FL appear to be important means for motivating students to learn. The communicative approach of teaching and immersion educational contexts have given rise to a varied range of ‘implicit feedback’ forms. A particular feature of the notion of negative

feedback is that there are different terms to refer to it according to the field of the linguistic study (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). These different labels reflect different research concerns and often various approaches to data collection.

Recent outcomes of different studies show that 'negative feedback' in second language conversations is carried out through miscellaneous series of acts or strategies for amending mistakes in one enhanced way (McDonough, 2005). That is, a rich feedback that makes learners realise their deviant L2 productions. In particular, some studies focus on negotiation strategies in oral contexts (repetition, clarification requests and comprehension checks), and recasts (Long, 1996), as we mentioned in Chapter 3.

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001b) suggest that teacher reactions to foreign language learner output might be carried out by means of two main moves: a) 'provide'¹⁰¹ that acts as explicit feedback and b) 'prompt'¹⁰² that ensues 'implicit feedback'.

Table 4.15 *Main Feedback Moves*

MAIN FEEDBACK MOVES	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Provide	Explicit data in the form of a definition, an example or an explanation.
Prompt	Clues designed to help the student correct the erroneous utterance.

In the following sections, we will develop the notions of 'explicit' and 'implicit' negative feedback and other separate categories of feedback.

4.4.2.1 Explicit Negative Feedback

'Explicit negative feedback', 'explicit correction' or 'error corrective feedback' is the type of feedback referring to the overt provision of the correct form or an explicit metalinguistic explanation (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977, 1988; Ellis et al., 2001a;

¹⁰¹ Chun et al. (1982) define '*on record corrections*' as a straightforward correction in a declarative utterance.

¹⁰² '*Off-record corrections*' (Brown & Levinson, 1978; Chun et al., 1982) consist of questions (often confirmation checks) or statements. They can be understood as a plain correction or as a continuing contribution to a conversation.

Fanselow, 1977; Sheppard, 1998; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009). This kind of pedagogical feedback has pervaded SL and FL research in teaching.

A group of researchers claim that 'explicit negative feedback' does not favour real classroom communication (Alanen, 1995; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis, 1993; Mackey, 1999; Murphy, 1986; Robinson, 1996). Nevertheless, it seems that most foreign language teachers rely heavily on error correction as the major source of feedback (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Chaudron, 1988).

Interestingly, this kind of feedback has been widely investigated in experimental conditions as literature reveals (Carroll & Swain 1993; DeKeyser, 1993; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long et al., 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Oliver, 1995; Salazar Campillo, 2003; Sheppard, 1998; Tomasello & Herron, 1988, 1989; White, 1991; White et al., 1991; Williams & Evans, 1998).

It is suggested that the teacher does not allot responsibility of learning. In mental terms, 'explicit negative feedback' is assumed to lessen (Chun et al., 1982; Day et al., 1984):

- i. learner building of hypotheses about language functioning
- ii. the checking function of hypotheses through discourse use

In contrast, non-experimental studies have reported that 'explicit negative feedback' is the most pervasive type of feedback in the classroom. One interesting study that defends the utility of 'explicit negative feedback' is Lyster and Ranta's (1997). Contrary to recent theories defending the oversupply of implicit forms of feedback in classrooms, these linguists have claimed that learners in their study took more notice of 'explicit negative feedback' forms than implicit forms (Ammar & Spada, 2006).

Vicente-Rasoamalala's (1998) pilot study in a non-experimental classroom context examined three different types of 'explicit negative feedback' inspired by Chaudron's (1988) notions (see Table 4.16). In it, 'provide' is usually preceded by a negative statement containing a 'no' or an element performing this function. 'Adjustment' here

coincides with Lyster's (1998a) 'isolated declarative recast'¹⁰³ that appears to be a form of explicit feedback and not an implicit one as was previously commented.

Table 4.16 Vicente-Rasoamalala's (1988) Explicit Negative Feedback Types

EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Provide	"The teacher provides the correct answer or linguistic item when the student has been unable to say it or when no response is offered".	Example 4.12 S: Je déteste les calves. T: Chauve est calvo [writing 'chauve' and 'chauves' on the BB]. Alors, tu détestes les chauves.
Adjustment ¹⁰⁴	"The teacher alters part of the student's utterance to achieve accuracy or to make it more complete".	Example 4.13 S: It's a fruit what the gorilla eat? T: It's a fruit that the gorilla eats↑.
Explanation	"The teacher provides information as to the cause or type of learner error', facts from the FL or further information about the adjusted utterance in an explicit way".	Example 4.14 S: J'aime les animales parce qu'ils sont jolis. T: Le pluriel d'animal est animaux.

These forms are equally subclassified into two main groups:

- i. the feedback that supplies learners with correct rephrasing of their non-target output
- ii. the feedback that provides learners with signals, rather than with alternative rephrasing, to facilitate peer - or self-repair of their non-target output

'Explicit negative feedback' is most widely adopted by teachers in a classroom context. In Vicente-Rasoamalala's (1998) study, explicit negative linguistic feedback totalled 52% of teachers' linguistic reactions in contrast to Lyster's 7% in an immersion context.

¹⁰³ Lyster (1998) defines the 'isolated declarative recast' as the teacher provision of confirmation of a learner's message by correctly reformulating all or part of the utterance, the error at least with falling intonation and no additional meaning.

¹⁰⁴ 'Adjustment' is an equivalent term for Chaudron's 'repetition with change' and 'repetition with change and emphasis' and Lyster's (1998) 'isolated declarative recast'. This latter term is considered as a type of recast-implicit negative feedback. Nevertheless, it seems to be a type of 'explicit negative feedback' since it provides information explicitly.

'Adjustment' was the move that teachers mostly used in the error correction of foreign language learner output. In particular, many learners' utterances containing mistakes were 'adjusted' by teachers. Occasionally, 'adjustment' involved 'reduction'. Namely, teachers only adjusted a segment of the learner utterance.

Regarding the linguistic focus, both teachers who participated in this study used reduced utterances to focus on grammar and phonological mistakes. Moreover, they made use of 'emphasis'¹⁰⁵ to reinforce correction.

Example 4.15

S: I'd love to, but I'm quite /busi/ next week.

T: *Repeteix amb mi:* [Cat] /bizi/.

(Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

In relation to the typology of 'explicit feedback', 'factual yes/no type responses' essentially amount to negative feedback in actual discourse in oral contexts.

4.2.2.2 Implicit Negative Feedback

The role of 'implicit negative feedback' in SLA has begun to attract linguists since the last decade¹⁰⁶ (Long et al., 1998; Lyster, 1998a, 2007a, 2007b; Mackey & Philp, 1998). This interest is partly inspired by recent trends in first language acquisition studies that also examine this type of feedback (Long, 1996).

'Implicit negative feedback' is characterised as the expert's feedback that encourages students to correct themselves (Long et al., 1998). That is, not giving at once the correct version for the learner output (Ellis et al., 2001a).

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) oral feedback often refers to the six common types of feedback illustrated Table 4.17.

¹⁰⁵ In Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998), 'emphasis' refers to the teacher's use of a stressed question intonation, to mark the incorrect point of the student utterance or gestures such as finger down to insist, or head movement to make the intention of his/her move stronger.

¹⁰⁶ These studies on 'implicit negative feedback' are based on Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996).

Table 4.17 Lyster and Ranta's Feedback Types

I. FEEDBACK PROVIDING LEARNERS WITH CORRECT REPHRASINGS OF THEIR NON-TARGET OUTPUT	
CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
Recast or reformulation	The teacher reformulates the complete, or a part of the production of a student, eliminating the error in an implicit way.
Explicit correction	The teacher provides the good form but clearly indicates that what the student said was not correct.
II. FEEDBACK PROVIDING LEARNERS WITH SIGNALS, RATHER THAN WITH ALTERNATIVE REPHRASINGS, TO FACILITATE PEER – OR SELF-REPAIR OF THEIR NON-TARGET OUTPUT	
CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
Elicitation	Techniques making the student find the correct form: i) the teacher starts a sentence making a strategic pause and invites the learner to complete it filling the blank with the correct form ii) the teacher attempts to solicit the correct form by means of questions iii) the teacher asks the student to reformulate his/her utterance
Metalinguistic feedback or cue	The teacher indicates to the student that there is an error by a comment, a question or a piece of information, but does not provide the correct form.
Clarification request	The teacher indicates that the student has not been well understood or has made an error and a repetition, or a reformulation is necessary.
Repetition of a learner error	The teacher repeats the part of the production that is erroneous. In most of the cases, s/he adjusts intonation to stress error.

Particularly, in providing 'implicit feedback', it seems that teachers offer the possibility to rebuild a message without giving an immediate correction by offering the student the possibility to verify their hypotheses on the functioning of language through interaction. This type of feedback has mainly been examined in oral contexts (Mohan & Beckett, 2001).

In the last ten years, researchers are investigating:

- i. how indirect feedback actually leads to more accurate learner output
- ii. if certain types of indirect feedback work better than other forms in this respect

These types of feedback have been codified according to outcomes from observational studies of immersion classroom interactions. Further details of learner responses to teacher feedback will be presented in Section 4.6.

4.4.2.2.1 Recast or Reformulation

'Recasts' or 'reformulations' are a target-like way of saying something that has been previously formulated in a non-target-like way (Braidí, 2002; Carpenter et al., 2006; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Farrar, 1992; Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Hauser, 2005; Kim & Han, 2007; Leeman, 2003; Long et al., 1988; Long, 2007; Lyster, 2007b; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Nicholas et al., 2001; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Oliver, 1995; Sheen, 2006).

Example 4.16

NNS: What doctor say?

NS: What is the doctor saying?

(Lyster 1998a: 58)

Table 4.18 *Main types of Recasts*

MAIN TYPES OF RECASTS	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Isolated recasts	Recasts in which no additional meaning is supplied.
Incorporated recasts	Recasts where the correct reformulation of all or part of the learner utterance becomes part of a longer statement.

In providing these forms, the L2 expert interlocutor provides correct versions or alternatives to the ill-formed, learner utterance. These alternative structures rephrase or reformulate the complete, or a part of the learner utterance in which one or more non-target-like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items is/are replaced by the corresponding target language form(-s) (Farrar, 1992; Long et al., 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Mito, 1993; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Nicholas et al., 2001; Ohta, 1995; Oliver, 1995).

Some types of 'recasts' are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only. Nevertheless, others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse. The two main types of 'recasts' according to features in their provision are: i) 'isolated recasts' and ii) 'incorporated recasts'.

Spada and Fröhlich (1995) referred to such reformulations as 'paraphrases' in their COLT scheme. Chaudron (1977) included such moves in the categories of 'repetition with change' and 'repetition with change and emphasis'.

A group of authors (Carpenter et al., 2006; Lyster, 1998a) have recently argued whether to include 'recasts' in the group which refers to 'feedback that provides

learners with correct rephrasings of non-target output'. These forms seem to be supplied in an explicit way.

Actually, it appears that the type of 'recast' that Lyster (1998a) labels as an 'isolated declarative recast' is not at all that explicit. This type of 'recast' should belong to the implicit group, since it provides the correction of an error in an indirect way. In this case, we see that the codification of feedback is complex and is sometimes guided by subjective criteria.

The whole range of 'implicit recasts' by Lyster (1998a) are presented in the following table:

Table 4.19 *Types of Recasts by Lyster (1998a)*

TYPES OF RECASTS	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Isolated interrogative recast	Reformulation of the wrong utterance of the student, the error at least, without modification of meaning but with a rising intonation.
Incorporated declarative recast	Incorporation of the correct reformulation in a comment reacting to the content of the learner utterance.
Incorporated interrogative recast	Additional information that the teacher seeks by incorporating the correct reformulation of all or part of a learner utterance into a question.

As Lyster says in 'isolated interrogative recast', the teacher 'seeks confirmation of the learner's message'. Regarding 'incorporated declarative recast', this category can be merged into the category of 'confirmation checks' in some cases. Moreover, the existence of 'short recasts' have been reported. These types of 'recasts' involve only one teacher reformulation of part of the learner inaccurate utterance.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) merge 'translations in response to a student's use of the L1' with the category of 'recasts'. They do this because translation infrequently occurs and appears to have the same function as a 'recast'.

With reference to 'recasts', it seems that throughout exchanges, the focus of interlocutors is usually on meaning and not on linguistic forms. In particular, 'recasts' have been directly or indirectly tested in classroom-based studies with an emphasis of Focus on Form (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Sheen, 2006; Zyzyk & Polio, 2008). In

focus-on-form treatment, a 'recast' often takes place when a request for repetition does not lead the learner to notice the mismatch (i.e., to modify incorrect output).

Doughty and Varela's (1998) experimental study in a content-based ESL classroom concluded that the teacher's repetition of the learner error preceded the 'recast' so as to highlight the target-non target mismatch. Furthermore, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that 'recasts' are the type of feedback used most frequently by immersion teachers¹⁰⁷. In this strategy, the central meaning of the learner original utterance is retained. Moreover, after 'recasts', the lesson goes on without any immediate effect on incorrect utterances by students.

Despite the attempt of many L2 studies to focus on the efficacy of them bringing divided views (Long, 2007), there are no conclusive results about their benefits. Sokolov and Snow (1994) suggest that 'recasts' are the most powerful element of input. In contrast, Lyster and Ranta (1997) state that in some instances teachers use 'recasts' that are ineffective at eliciting 'student-generated repair'¹⁰⁸. Long (1996) pointed out that 'recasts' are often ambiguous. In addition, Ellis (1998) concludes that 'recasts' are the least effective forms of negative feedback.

4.4.2.2.2 Clarification Request

'Clarification requests' implicitly indicate to learners either that there is (Lyster & Ranta, 1997):

- i. a problem of comprehensibility in meaning (that is, the teacher has misunderstood their utterance)
- ii. a deviant linguistic production (that is, the utterance is ill-formed in some way)

These forms consist of a question or a statement under the forms of 'clarification requests' with rising intonation asking for further clarification of a previous learner utterance (Doughty, 1994). For instance, they may consist of utterances such as

¹⁰⁷ 'Recast' was by far the most frequent type of feedback, accounting for almost 400 of 700 corrective feedback moves in Lyster and Ranta (1997).

¹⁰⁸ 'Student repair' is considered as a productive means to internalise language for many authors (Lyster, 1998).

“*Pardon me*” and “*Hein?*”, “*Excuse me*”, “*I don’t understand*” or “*What do you mean by X?*”, “*What?*”

This type of teacher strategy constitutes an ‘open signal’, leaving learners alone to solve their error as illustrated in the following example:

Example 4.17

S: Est-ce que, est-ce que je peux fait une carte sur le [“Can, can I made a card on the... for my...] ...pour mon petit frère sur le computer? (multiple errors) [“little brother on the computer?”]

T: Pardon? [“Pardon?”] (The teacher repeats the student’s error to highlight it and adjusts intonation to draw the student’s attention to it).

S: Le...le girafe? (gender error) [“The...the giraffe?”]

T: Le girafe? [“The giraffe?”]

(Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

It appears that indirect feedback in the form of ‘clarification requests’ pushes learners to improve their output during ‘negotiation of meaning’ (Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Pica, 1994b). Nevertheless, there is little evidence to show that this then leads to acquisition (Pica, op.cit.).

4.4.2.2.3 Repetition

This category refers to the teacher’s repetition in isolation of the student’s erroneous utterance designed for correction. Teachers adjust their intonation in order to highlight an error and to draw the student’s attention to it.

Example 4.18

S: When does start the film?

T: When does ([writing ‘when does’ on the BB] start the film?... *Al revès* [Cat].
When does start the film?’ is not correct.

S: When does the film start?

(Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

Regularly, the teacher may repeat the student’s response with correction. Nevertheless, repetition consists of 5% of the cases in Lyster and Ranta (1997). Take for instance,

Example 4.19

S: Le...le girafe? (gender error) ["The...the giraffe?"]

T: Le girafe? ["The giraffe?"]

There are repetitions of various kinds acting as corrective feedback (Chaudron, 1988; Nystrom, 1983; Salica, 1981). The common one is the 'repetition with no change and emphasis'. In this type of 'implicit feedback', 'the teacher repeats the student's utterance with no change of error, but locates or indicates a fact of error' (Chaudron, 1988). An example of this type of repetition is:

Example 4.20

S1: When were you last ill?

S2: I was last ill when... *No sé* [Cat].

T: I was last ill... *I digues algun mes o dia* [Cat].

(Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

Gaskill (1980) and Chaudron (1988) point out that repetitions have many functions other than corrective feedback. Lyster (1998a) claims that the existence of a type of repetition has no corrective roles. As we presented in positive feedback, 'non-corrective repetitions' are quite ambiguous for learners.

Interestingly, 'repetition involving the teacher's echoing of a preceding utterance by a learner' is presented as the least effective in terms of learning in some studies (Calvé, 1992; Fanselow, 1977; Walz, 1982). Curiously enough, this type of repetition is reported to be the more widely used by teachers.

4.4.2.2.4 Metalinguistic Feedback or Cues

Metalinguistic feedback is implemented by an utterance indicating that there is an error somewhere (e.g., "*No, there is a mistake*", "*Do we say it like that?*", "*That's not how you say it in French*"). It may provide either some type of metalinguistic information referring to the nature of the error (e.g., "*It's masculine*") or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Typically, in 'metalinguistic feedback', the teacher: i) poses questions, ii) provides comments or iii) gives information aiming at the accuracy of a student utterance.

In Lyster and Ranta (1997), 'metalinguistic feedback' occurs in 8% of the cases. Take for instance:

Example 4.21

S: Euhm, le, le éléphant. Le éléphant gronde [Fr]. ["Uhm, the, the elephant. The (multiple errors) elephant growls"]

T: Est-ce qu'on dit **le** éléphant? [Fr] ["Do we say *the* elephant?"] (p.45)

This type of feedback consists of either the following types displayed in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20 *Metalinguistic Feedback*

METALINGUISTIC FEEDBACK		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
1. Comment	The teacher states a fact or problem about the previous learner utterance without providing correction.	Example 4.22 S: Do you want go for a walk? T: →Something is missing. (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)
2. Implicit information	The teacher uses linguistic expression or items that might help students to remember facts or linguistic rules to self-correct.	
2.1 Linguistic cues	Linguistic expressions or items that might help students to remember facts and to internalise linguistic items or rules.	Example 4.23 "Encuentra el Findus" [to remember the English verb "to find"] (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)
2.2 Clues	The teacher suggests the type of error or the nature of its immediate correction to the student without providing correction.	Example 4.24 S: The shop closes for a week for December. T: →December isn't a duration. (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)
3. Metalinguistic question	The teacher asks the learner something related to the nature of the error but attempts to elicit the information from the student	"Is it feminine?"

Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998) reports linguistic cues that she heard from one of her teachers when she was student. For instance, the teacher used sentences in the L1 "encuentra el Findus" or "trae el brindis" to remember the English verbs "to find" or "to bring".

According to Edwards and Mercer (1987)¹⁰⁹, ‘metacognitive or metadiscursive comments’ (i.e., ‘metalinguistic feedback’) are cognitively positive for students since they focus attention on their own products or outputs.

4.4.2.2.5 Elicitation

There are three main techniques that teachers use to elicit directly the correct form from the student (Ellis, 1998; Nassaji, 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997): i) elicit completion, ii) elicit question and iii) repeat (see Table 4.21).

Table 4.21 *Types of Elicitation*

TYPES OF ELICITATION		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Elicit completion	Teachers may ‘elicit completion’ of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to fill in the blank.	Example 4.25 S: It's the/ kaing/ of rock. T: →It's not /kaing/. →It's... (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)
Elicit question	Teachers use questions to elicit correct forms from the student.	Example 4.26 T: <i>Le pluriel d' 'hôpital' est?</i> S: <i>Hôpitals.</i> T: <i>Non. → Comment c'est alors?</i> S: <i>Hôpitaux.</i> (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)
Repeat	The teacher explicitly requests the student to repeat the utterance/-s, with the intent to have the student self-correct.	Example 4.27 S: Japan is one of the most adaptable /nations/. T: /nei/tion. →Repeat. (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

‘Elicit completion’ may be preceded by some ‘metalinguistic feedback’ such as “*No, not that. It's a...*” or by a repetition of the error. ‘Elicitation questions’ differ from questions that are defined as metalinguistic clues in that they require more than a yes/no response¹¹⁰. The message of this type of feedback might be as in the following example: “*How do we say that in French?*”

¹⁰⁹ “*La maestra hacía este tipo de comentarios metacognitivos y metadiscursivos (por ejemplo comentarios sobre procesos mentales como el conocer o el recordar o sobre el discurso en sí en momentos en que los alumnos parecían no haber comprendido algún principio, procedimiento o instrucción [...]).*” (Edwards & Mercer, 1988: 100-1).

¹¹⁰ A question such as “*Do we say that in French?*” is metalinguistic feedback, not elicitation.

In 'repeat', the focus of this type of feedback is "Say *that again*". Interestingly, in Lyster and Ranta (1997) 'elicitation' feedback was offered in 14% of the cases.

4.5 THE NOTIONS OF UPTAKE AND REPAIR

Corrective feedback has been analysed in terms of its use and usability related to the learners' immediate responses to them (Ellis et al., 2001a; Lochtmann, 2005; Morris, 2002; Oliver, 1995, 2000; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Tsang, 2004). According to Chaudron (1977: 440):

"the main immediate measurement of effectiveness of any type of corrective reaction would be a frequency-of-count of the students' correct responses following each type".

Table 4.22 Post-Feedback Learner Moves

POST-FEEDBACK LEARNER MOVES	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Repair	Any simple repetition of a teacher's feedback move.
Uptake	Any move that involves self-repair on the part of the learner.

These learner signs of incorporation of feedback seem to be indicative of the possible learner use of it for acquisition. However, it is very difficult to gauge if they are actually doing it (Lin & Hedgecock, 1996; Long, 1977; Ohta, 2001; Schachter, 1983). These conditions might produce learner incorporation of teacher reactions that might lead to 'learner repair' and in the best cases 'uptake' or 'learner self-repair' (Ellis et al., 2001a; Loewen, 2004). This distinction is significant because it points to different levels of processing that may affect acquisition.

4.5.1 Uptake

'Uptake' is a general construct which refers to the learner oral response occurring after a retroactive teacher move in the error treatment sequence. We must distinguish between what is considered as the 'input' (i.e., mere reception) and 'intake' (i.e., actual absorption) of feedback (Chaudron, 1985). This term borrowed from Speech Act Theory (Austin, 1962; Geis, 1995; Levinson, 1983; Mey, 1993) has two different meanings (Ellis et al., 2001a) in SLA:

- i. what a learner is able to report during learning or at the end of the lesson (Alwright, 1984; Ellis, 1994; Slimani, 1989, 1992)
- ii. the learner immediate modification of their initial utterance following the language expert provision of feedback (Lyster, 1998a)

In the present empirical study, we will use the term 'uptake' in the sense of Lyster and Ranta (1997) that is widely accepted in this field. These authors define it as:

"a student's utterance that immediately follows the teachers' feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teachers' intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (1997: 49).

Nevertheless, this idea is not new. Chaudron (1977: 440) suggested that the *"main immediate measurement of effectiveness of any type of corrective reaction would be a frequency count of the students' correct responses following each type"*.

In particular, Lyster and Ranta's work has related 'uptake' to the provision of corrective feedback to examine immersion French and English primary education classrooms. For those authors 'uptake' helps learners: i) to 'practice' using items and ii) to automatise retrieval of items. In addition, Lyster and Ranta (1997: 58) concluded that

"the feedback-uptake sequence engages students more actively when [...] the correct form is not provided to the students [...] and when signals are provided to the learner that assist the reformulation of the erroneous utterance".

However, 'uptake' of feedback should not be interpreted as sign of acquisition or development or a requirement for it (Lyster, 1988a; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). It may be related to learner perceptions about feedback at the time of provision. The learner ensuing response to feedback cannot be equated with the ultimate use of the feedback in L2 development. 'Uptake' is only a manifestation that feedback has been incorporated by the learner. On the other hand, the absence of an immediate response on the part of the learner does not indicate the absence of interlanguage development.

Overall, 'uptake' is a construct that refers to a description that the student attempts to make with teacher feedback. There are three categories of 'uptake': i) acknowledge, ii) repair and iii) needs-repair. In the following table, we present the definitions:

Table 4.23 *Types of Uptake*

TYPES OF UPTAKE	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Acknowledge	The participant who initially produced the utterance that triggered the episode indicates acceptance of feedback, often by responding yes ¹¹¹ .
Repair	The participant who initially produced the utterance that triggered the episode produces the targeted feature correctly after feedback.
Needs-repair	The participant who initially produced the utterance that triggered the episode uses the target feature but incorrectly.

Distinctively, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that learners were able to 'uptake' or indicate that they had noticed target features after they had being given explicit correction of their deviant L2 utterances. However, 'uptake' does not take place when teachers do not provide opportunities for 'self-repair' (Oliver, 2000).

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a) have claimed that 'uptake' occurs even when the previous move does not involve corrective feedback. There are occasions in communicative lessons where learners themselves pre-empt attention to a linguistic feature (e.g., by asking a question), thus eliciting not a teacher feedback move but a teacher response move. Therefore, these authors have lately redefined the notion of 'uptake' as:

- i. a student move
- ii. one optional move (i.e., feedback does not compel the student to provide an uptake move)
- iii. one move occurring in episodes where learners have demonstrated a gap in their knowledge (e.g., by making an error; by asking a question, or by failing to answer a teacher's question)
- iv. a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant (usually the teacher), either explicitly or implicitly, provides information about a linguistic feature

¹¹¹ In Lyster's study, 'acknowledge' forms are often ambiguous. It is not clear whether the participant is responding to the form or the content of feedback.

The concept of 'uptake' has been widely criticised by some SLA researchers (see Lyster, 2007b: 117) because they interpreted that Lyster's term was the equivalent to intake in the pure acquisitional sense. Indeed, there seems to be insufficient empirical evidence showing the relationship between learner immediate incorporation and IL development. Researchers have, therefore, stressed that 'uptake' whether reformulation or repetition, is not necessarily an indication that feedback had a positive effect on IL development, nor is its existence the sole evidence for learning (Corder, 1967; Ellis et al., 2001a; Long, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Oliver, 1995; Schachter, 1983).

In summary, such a relationship seems worthy of further investigation to prove the effects of learner immediate response to feedback on L2 development.

4.5.2 Repair

'Repair'¹¹² refers to the correct reformulation of an erroneous production as uttered in a single student turn. Concerning the learner there are two types of moves after feedback: i) what leads to repair; ii) what has not been repaired and needs to be repaired.

There are four types of 'repair' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997): i) 'repetition', ii) 'incorporation', iii) 'self-repair' and iv) 'peer-repair':

Table 4.24 *Types of Repair*

TYPES OF REPAIR	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Repetition	The student repeats the reaction of the teacher that contains the correct form.
Incorporation	The student repeats the correct form given by the teacher incorporating it then in a longer production.
Self-repair	The student corrects his initial incorrect utterance in response to the teacher's reaction when the latter does not already provide the correct form.
Peer-repair	Another student different from the one who produces the initial error makes the correction in response to the teacher's reaction.

¹¹² This notion does not cover the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation nor does it refer to 'self-initiated repair'.

Teacher feedback may result in three types of actions that might involve the correct reformulation or 'repair' of an erroneous student production:

- i. 'self-repair' on the part of the learner
- ii. 'other-repair' by the teacher
- iii. 'other-repair' by a peer.

Correspondingly, these types of repair may imply completion, substitution, order change, deletion, matching, translation, imitation or repetition, monitoring, etc. of words.

In a deep analysis of 'learner repair', Lyster (1998b) revealed that most phonological repairs followed 'recasts' and most lexical repairs followed 'negotiation of form'. However, the majority of grammatical repairs also followed 'negotiation of form', not 'recasts'.

Regarding the context of occurrences of 'repair', Van Lier (1988) noted that repair occurs implicitly in the context of a conversational move or explicitly in the form of an overt correction.

In addition to the situation in which the learner does not reach repair after feedback, we find that s/he 'needs repair'. The circumstances that might arise are six varieties of recognition of that given state (see Table 4.25) i) 'recognition', ii) 'same error', iii) 'different error', iv) 'off-target', v) 'hesitation' and vi) 'partial repair'.

Table 4.25 *Types of Needs-Repair*

TYPES OF NEEDS-REPAIR	
CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
Recognition	The student may respond to the teacher reaction generally by a simple 'yes' or less frequently by a 'no' in response to the teacher's metalinguistic feedback (Calvé, 1992).
Same error	The student repeats her/his initial error.
Different error	The student responds to a teacher's reaction making a new error.
Off-target	The student responds to a teacher reaction turn, but s/he has not seized the linguistic aspect that the teacher has stressed. S/he makes another error.
Hesitation	The student hesitates when s/he responds to a teacher's retroaction.
Partial repair	The student has only partially corrected his initial error.

Regarding the interpretations of some of these phenomena, 'student hesitations' are the hints of the efforts the learner makes to solve his or her problem alone. If s/he fails, s/he asks for help from the language expert.

Another important aspect of the 'needs-repair' category is that it can lead to additional feedback from the teacher and allows error treatment sequences to go beyond the third turn.

In sociocultural terms, some authors (Van Lier, 1988) assume that 'self-repair' is more favourable for acquisition than 'other-repair'. This kind of repeat is less favourable for acquisition. Therefore, a number of studies are interested in finding out what types of corrective feedback lead students to self-correct errors.

4.5.3 Possible correlations with Teacher Reactions and educational contexts

In this section, we comment about the potential effects of different types of feedback mainly gauged with reference to:

- 1) the types of linguistic features targeted
- 2) the characteristics of participants
- 3) the context
- 4) the tasks

A number of studies examine relationships among different feedback in a variety of teaching contexts. Feedback has been assessed in interaction. Interaction is considered as potentially rich to get opportunities for receiving 'negative feedback' (Rabie, 1996). In recent years, many researchers have been interested in the amount of 'uptake' that implicit types of feedback - especially 'recasts'¹¹³- might provide (Long, 1996).

Formerly, Chaudron (1977, 1986, 1988) remarked that students corrected more errors when the teacher 'isolated a student's error and stressed producing an interrogative tone', and 'repetition'. Distinctively, Chaudron (1977) and others (Lyster, 1998a;

¹¹³ It seems that 'recasts' draw the learners' attention to differences between input and output as some L1 authors also suggested (Farrar, 1990).

Roberts, 1995) suggested that those forms are more noticeable when teachers shorten the learner utterance to locate the error and then add stress for emphasis.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) aim at finding out what types of corrective feedback lead to 'learner uptake' (i.e., responses to feedback). In their study, teacher feedback episodes reacting to learner errors leading to 'learner uptake' amounted to 55%. However, only 27% of the feedback utterances led to 'student repair'. A significant half did not give the chance to learners to 'uptake' because teachers moved on with the lesson. For the explicit correction, 50% of reactions are not followed by 'uptake'.

Specifically, the most effective technique appears to be 'elicitation' (48%) (used 94 times during the study) which has triggered, each time, 'repair' by students as in Ellis (1998).

Other types of feedback were also conducive to student repair with the following percentages: 'metalinguistic feedback' (45%), 'clarification requests' (27%) and 'repetition' (31%). It appeared that some teachers' repetitions of the students' L2 deviant productions pushed learners to 'self-correct' or 'repair'.

With respect to the total amount of feedback, 53% of the 'recasts' did not elicit any response and only 5% of the responses were modified. Particularly, only 23% of errors treated by means of 'isolated recasts' were successfully repaired. Less than a third of 'recasts' were followed by 'uptake' and even fewer led to actual 'repair'.

Significantly, some authors (Lyster, 1998a; Mackey & Philp, 1998) present 'recasts' as 'red herrings' for corrective purposes since students do not appear to interpret them as feedback. However, they claim that 'recasts' may be beneficial for long-term IL development regardless of the fact that they are not incorporated in learners' immediate responses.

Pica (1988) found that in her study learners did produce output that is more grammatical when the language experts requested 'confirmation' or 'clarification', in less than half of their total responses. Furthermore, the learners were much more likely to produce output modifications in response to 'clarification requests'. In contrast, there were less output modifications after 'confirmation requests' and 'repetitions'.

Similarly, weaker impact has been reported with 'recasts'. For instance, Tomasello and Herron (1988, 1989) concluded that 'recasts' do not seem to work in the L2 classroom because students in a classroom context believe that a teacher's positive response indicates that no correction is needed. In a subsequent study, Ellis (1998) claims also that 'recasts' are the least effective form of negative feedback.

In contrast, Long, Inagaki and Ortega (1998) and Mackey and Philp (1998) defend the view that this type of feedback might have positive effects on the FL learner. Their results provide support for the claim that 'implicit negative feedback' plays a facilitative role in SLA.

In Izumi's (1998) study, non-native speakers used NS 'recasts' when they were available. Mackey (1999) found that interactional modification that is 'negotiation with a recast' led to L2 development and that more active involvement in negotiated interaction led to greater development.

A number of researchers have attempted to implement form-focused instruction in communicative language teaching by providing interactional modifications such as 'recasts' and 'requests for repetition' in L2 classrooms (Ellis, 2002). Based on positive reports on the impact of 'recasts' on first and second language development (Doughty, 1994; Farrar, 1992), Doughty and Varela (1998) conducted an empirical study examining the effects of 'recasting' on L2 learning in the context of a content-based ESL science class in the US.

Significantly, in Carroll and Swain's (1993) it seemed that 'feedback locating the errors plus a grammatical rule' was more effective than 'feedback provided in the form of cues' from which learners could only deduce that some aspect of their utterance was inaccurate.

Mackey and Philp's (1998) experimental study indicates that some learners can acquisitionally benefit from feedback even if they do not uptake 'recasts' of their deviant utterances. Furthermore, Mackey et al. (2000) found that grammatical feedback that was presented through recasts or corrected versions was worse perceived by learners than feedback on vocabulary or phonology that was given in negotiation.

In relation to the level of learners, Yamaguchi's (1994) study reports that beginning learners were much more likely to imitate NS utterances after 'corrective recasts', than after 'non-corrective recasts', or topic continuations and changes. In Carroll et al.'s (1992) study, the proficiency levels of L2 students seemed to benefit better from 'negative feedback' in more advanced learners, as opposed to less advanced learners.

As regards age, Oliver's (2000) study has attempted to see differences in the provision and use of 'negative feedback' with adults and children in teacher-fronted lessons and in pair-work tasks in intermediate ESL lessons to adult and child learners. This author found that the teachers responded with 'negative feedback' to approximately half of the student non-target-like production. Hence, the adult learners received more feedback than the child learners do. The children seem to be more likely to receive 'recasts' and adults more likely to experience a negotiating strategy involving a 'confirmation check' or a 'clarification request'.

With reference to the age of the language experts in Oliver (1995), adults delivered negative feedback more often than children did. Children were much more tolerant of non-native like pronunciation in the L2 and thus did not provide NF. Moreover, NS children used 'clarification requests' and 'recasts' completing interactive tasks with NNS (Oliver, 1995). However, she found no significant differences in the use of negative feedback in either context (teacher-fronted or pair-work tasks). In connection to this issue, some authors claim that a greater cognitive maturity and deeper involvement in personal interactions may also allow adults to take advantage of 'recasts' as reactive implicit negative feedback (Gallaway & Richards, 1994; Oliver et al., 2008).

Regarding the typology of tasks, Brock et al. (1986) found that while corrective feedback had no effect in non-classroom conversations, but was very effective in games in a classroom setting. This study is interesting since it seems to show links between incorporation of teacher feedback and tasks focusing on linguistic accuracy or fluency. Therefore, this aspect should be examined in further studies (Samuda, 2001).

The provision of feedback has also been examined according to the context of instruction. Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a) report that 'learner uptake' was generally high and successful in the ESL classroom adopting a Focus on Form

approach of teaching than immersion classrooms. 'Uptake' was higher and more successful in reactive FoF and in student-initiated FoF than teacher-initiated FoF. The level of 'uptake' was also influenced by whether meaning or form was negotiated and by the complexity of an episode.

A number of studies have adopted a semi-experimental design to gauge the effect of feedback acting upon some specific linguistic problems for learners. Most studies presented in the following table have reported some gains.

Table 4.26 *Interactionist studies on Experimental Feedback Intervention*

INTERACTIONIST STUDIES ON EXPERIMENTAL FEEDBACK INTERVENTION			
AUTHORS	YEARS	LANGUAGES	LINGUISTIC FOCUS/I
Carroll & Swain	1993	English	Dative constructions
Doughty & Varela	1998	English	Verb tense and aspect markers
Mackey & Philp	1998	English	Questions
Spada & Lightbown	1993	English	Questions
White et al.	1991	English	Questions
White	1991	English	Adverb placement
Williams & Evans	1998	English	Participial adjectives
Long, Inagaki, & Ortega	1998	Spanish	Adjective ordering
Long, Inagaki, & Ortega	1998	Japanese	Adverb placement
Carroll, Roberge, & Swain	1992	French	Suffixation in French
Tomasello & Herron	1989, 1989	French	Transfer errors
Lyster & Izquierdo	2009	French	Grammatical gender

In order to exemplify the procedures of experimental studies we enter details of several of them. Long et al. (1998) compared the effectiveness of 'models versus recasts' in acquiring a new linguistic structure, making learners participate in a communicative game delivered through a laboratory setting.

Concerning immersion classrooms, the ambiguous use of feedback has been noted in some studies (Allen et al., 1990; Chaudron, 1977; Netten, 1991) similarly to ESL classroom studies by Allwright (1975) and Fanselow (1977). The difficulty precisely lies in feedback that can have more than one function, as we explained in the case of 'recasts' (Chaudron, 1988).

In general, the effectiveness of interactional feedback provided in L2 classroom settings has been questioned (Foster, 1998; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Musumeci, 1996). The general work in progress is aiming at discovering an empirical relationship with interaction, noticing and L2 development needs in the L2 classroom context. Most studies have examined feedback targeted to some linguistic forms and have only presented assumptions. For that reason, we need more results of studies and detailed longitudinal studies to draw more definite conclusions.

4.6 FURTHER TRAITS IN TEACHER REACTIONS OR FEEDBACK

4.6.1 Feedback on Content and Feedback on Form

Richards and Lockhart (1994) code feedback relating to the nature of the assessment. That is, whether it involves 'a global assessment of meaning'. They distinguish two forms of feedback: i) feedback on content and ii) feedback on form.

Table 4.27 *Foci of Feedback*

FOCI OF FEEDBACK	
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS
Feedback on content	Feedback assessing global meaning.
Feedback on form	Feedback focussing on form.

'Feedback on content' usually involves an acceptance of a correct response, an indication of an incorrect response, any praise, a repeat or a criticism. In contrast, 'Feedback on form' concerns actions such as asking the student to repeat what he has previously done; telling the error and asking the student to self-correct; comment on an error and explain why it is not good; asking another student to correct the error; or using a gesture to indicate an error. Five target foci of feedback on form can be distinguished: i) grammar, ii) vocabulary, iii) spelling, iv) discourse and v) pronunciation.

It seems that decisions about types of feedback are also influenced by the context and the nature of the lesson. Some studies report that teachers react to certain non-target forms with 'recasts', in order to continue the lesson (Long et al., 1998). In particular, to facilitate the delivery of a complex subject matter related to content.

4.6.2 Simple and Multiple Feedback

Teacher reactions to learner output can consist of one single move or a complex move. As for the typology of teacher reactions, they can be 'mono-episodic' or 'multi-episodic' (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998).

'Mono-episodic teacher reactions' are those instances of teacher reactions comprising a single teacher's move in relation to foreign language output and involve 'simple feedback'. For instance, a mono-episodic reaction might involve only a 'positive statement' for confirming correct forms; only a 'negation' in the case of error correction; or no action when teachers decide to 'disregard' learner errors.

In contrast, 'multi-episodic teacher reactions' are characterised by their containing of different types of teacher feedback on concatenation (i.e., 'multiple or complex feedback'). 'Multiple feedback' refers to the combination of more than one type of feedback in one teacher turn.

This complex teacher feedback takes place when the learner does not correctly modify output after receiving several types of teachers reactions. As for the typical occurrences, 'repetition' is common in a 'clarification request', 'metalinguistic feedback', 'elicitation', and 'explicit correction' (Ferreira, 2006). However, 'repetition' does not occur in recasts. In implicit correction, we find usually the complex move consisting of a 'recast plus metalinguistic feedback' (Tsang, 2004).

In Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998), one interesting teacher reaction is that of 'adjustment' with 'expansion'. This phenomenon is very typical in FL classrooms. It appears that teachers prefer long learner answers to a single word. Thus, they want learners to repeat the adjusted utterances.

Example 4.28

T: *Comment a-t-il les yeux?*

S: *Bleus.*

T: *Il a les yeux bleus.*

Moreover, 'explanations' usually occurred immediately after another teacher's reaction. The content of 'explanations' is related to references on FL grammar points and differences among languages. We usually find them after 'adjustments'.

Example 4.29

S: *Le mois prochain nous serons de vacances.*

T: *En vacances. "De vacances" est la traduction directe du catalan ou de l'espagnol.*

Some 'explanation' reaction types of the French teacher contained directives concerning how to pronounce words.

4.6.3 Non-verbal features

A question that has arisen in SLA research but has not been widely studied in FL classrooms is the role that non-verbal devices play in educational interaction (Allen, 1995, 2000; Barnett, 1983a, 1983b; Brown & Gullberg, 2008; Capper, 2000; Grant & Hennings, 1971; Gullberg, 2006a, 2006b; Harris, 2003; Kellerman, 1992; Poyatos, 1980, 1994; Valenzeno et al., 2003). These elements play a highly important and essential role in foreign language classroom communication.

Table 4.28 *The nature of Non-Verbal Actions*

THE NATURE OF NON-VERBAL ACTIONS	
TYPES	DEFINITIONS
Embodied action	Range of visible body displays playing a role in any interaction.
EXAMPLES	
A hand gesture, a head shake, a display of gaze direction, body position or an act of pantomime.	
Material action	Action involving some transaction with an object presenting a visual component.
EXAMPLES	
Use of pictures, writings or objects.	

In recent years, non-verbal features have been incorporated from a Conversation Analysis approach (McNeill, 1992; Olsher, 2004) and the study of feedback in computer communicative settings (Blake, 2000; Cerrato, 2007; Heift & Rimrott, 2008; Morris, 2005; Schwienhorst, 2004; Smith, 2003; Sotillo, 2005). Such studies claim that gesture, like language, might be a semiotic mediation system in every face to face communicative act. In special cases, non-verbal elements accompanying teacher reactions are only mentioned in the majority of these studies (Faraco & Kida, 2008; Gullberg & McCafferty, 2008; Stam & McCafferty, 2008).

The FL classroom face-to-face context is not an exception in body language use. These types of non-verbal features take place. However, few studies have dealt with this aspect. Non-verbal elements such as proxemics, kinesics, gestuality and

paralinguistics are elements reported in non-verbal communication in SL classrooms (Ferraio Tavares, 1999; Pennycook, 1985; Von Raffler-Engel, 1980).

Theoretically, some authors that defend the use of gestures in teaching a FL, such as Krashen in his Input Hypothesis (1982), suggest that the inclusion of gestures might facilitate the 'binding' and 'mapping' processes to acquire new vocabulary (Carels, 1981; Omaggio, 1986; Seaver, 1992) (see Chapter 1). In addition, gestures might be helpful in providing feedback (Gullberg & McCafferty, 2008; Lazaraton, 2004; Omaggio, 1986; Sime, 2006, 2008; Walz, 1986).

Furthermore, it seems that there is mutual dependence of gesture and speech in teacher and learners classroom actions (Gullberg, 2006a, 2006b). Participants might demand a reiteration, by means of gestures or a short question of verification of their hypothesis of comprehension (Arditty & Prodeau, 1999).

We find instances where teachers echo learner utterances with higher pitch or use the blackboard while giving explanations (Arditty & Prodeau, op.cit.). Moreover, Long (1989), Omaggio (1986) and Wong-Fillmore (1985) suggest using 'extra linguistic cues' -such as pictures, gestures, and drawings- to clarify the information.

'Non-linguistic behaviours' include gestures, facial expressions, and body language, among others (Cameron, 2001). As reported in Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998) illustrative gestures that mime objects, describe actions or movements might play a semantic role that is more important in class. The study also reveals that we can distinguish similar 'paralinguistic mechanisms' and 'non-linguistic' features that accompany teacher reactions to foreign language feedback.

'Paralinguistic mechanisms' consist of intonation, stress, rate of speech, and pauses or hesitations. In particular, intonation may help to sustain the interaction and encourage reciprocity. Intonation could be an analytical cue, but this does not appear in gesture. For example, referring tones (fall-rise tone movements) can be used to invite participation and may sustain unfinished business. Proclaiming tone (fall or rise) can be used to develop new aspects.

For example, Lightbown and Spada (1990), Lightbown (1991) and Sime (2008) find that feedback that drew learner attention to their errors was accompanied by explicit paralinguistic signals such as hand signals or dramatically raised eyebrows. In the face-to-face situation, teacher intervention feedback can be gestural.

Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998) identified different types of 'non-verbal cues' and 'non-verbal elements' that reinforce teacher reactions in response to learner output. In particular, teacher gestures invite the learner to 'self-repair'.

Table 4.29 *Types of Non-Verbal Feedback*

TYPES OF NON-VERBAL FEEDBACK		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Nod	The teacher moves his or her head up and down to show approval of the student utterance.	Example 4.30 T: What day is today? SS: Wednesday 15th April T: OK. [gesture of nodding]
Explicit negation	The teacher moves the head or a finger side by side to reject part or all of student utterance.	Example 4.31 T: <i>Pregunta el preu del cotxe. Qu� es pot preguntar sobre el preu.</i> [Cat] <i>�Cu�nto cuesta</i> [Sp]? S: How does it cost? T: [The teacher says 'no' with head gesture]
Implicit repeat	The teacher requests implicitly the student to repeat the utterance/s, with the intent to have the student self-correct by means of gestures.	Example 4.32 S: How long...How long... <i>Com �s durar</i> [Cat]? T: It's last . How long does the film last? [moving head for 'repeat'] S: How long does the film last?

The teacher in some cases uses gestures to stress his reaction to learner output. Gesture holds, thereby, discursive coherence, which is threatening at the moment of lexical insecurity in teacher/learner interaction.

Significantly, in this study using an example from our data:

- i. 'Nods' implicitly mean a 'positive statement'.
- ii. The instructor often moves head for 'implicit repeat'.

In relation to 'soliciting teacher reactions', some instances of 'implicit transfer' have been found. In these cases, the teacher directs eyes or makes a gesture towards another student for correction.

Example 4.33

T: And the stay?

S: Where is the stay?

T: Aquesta no és precisament la pregunta [Cat]. [directing view towards another student for transfer]

On the other hand, 'non-verbal elements reinforcing reactions' have been identified. Some paralinguistic elements or actions that can take place during reactions can be considered as mediators of teaching. In Vicente-Rasoamalala's study (1998) two types of elements presented on Table 4.30 are salient in the classroom.

Table 4.30 *Types of non-verbal elements*

TYPES NON-VERBAL ELEMENTS		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Writing on blackboard	This classroom tool might reinforce- the 'provide', the repetition' and the 'adjustment' teacher reactions.	<p>Example 4.34 S: <i>Je déteste les calves.</i> T: 'Chauve' est 'calvo [Sp]' [provide] [writing 'chauve' and 'chauves' on the BB]. <i>Alors tu détestes les chauves.</i> [Fr]</p> <p>Example 4.35 S: When does start the film? T: When does ([writing 'when does' on BB] start the film? ... <i>Al revès</i> [Cat]. When does start the film? is not correct [writing correctly] [adjustment]. S: How long does the film last?</p> <p>Example 4.36 S: How much does it cost? T: OK [confirmation] [The teacher writes on the BB 'How much does it cost?']</p>
Gestures	Teacher gestures might help students to illustrate explanations.	<p>Example 4.37 T: What day was yesterday? S: <i>Ayer</i> [Sp]. T: This [finger down to insist on 'this'¹¹⁴ holiday].</p>

In it, the use of the blackboard was the commonest 'non-verbal element' that enhances some teacher reactions. To a certain extent, that tool is significantly deployed as a 'mediator' of teaching. It is an element that the teacher makes use of reinforce his or her reaction towards foreign language learner output. It should be noted that paralinguistic elements might act as 'mediators' of learning from the Neo-Vygotskian point of view. If the benefit is derived from processing information presented simultaneously through two modes, i.e., verbal and visual information, it seems that gestural communication completes word meaning in some cases.

¹¹⁴ In this example, the English teacher moves down his finger when she is reacting to convey a 'clue'.

In many episodes, teachers use writing on the blackboard to reinforce the input they 'provide' (47.1%) or the elements they 'adjust' (35.3%), or to confirm correct forms (17.6%). On the other hand, gestures fulfil functions as paralinguistic-cues for learners, thus they respond to self-correction such as those coded as 'implicit negation' or 'implicit repeat'.

Conversely, the learners in some studies have shown themselves able to seek help prompting teachers' reactions in at least in three ways:

- i. non-linguistically, by making eye-contact with the teacher or by making some kind of motion with their hands
- ii. phonologically by drawing out the vowel of the final syllable uttered ('voice trails') or by ending with rising intonation
- iii. with an explicit verbal request

Therefore, the non-linguistic and phonological signals are also constituents of the foreign language classroom interaction (Hodge, 1971; Kellerman, 1992; McNeill, 1992).

4.6.4 L1 Alternation

Some studies report that in FL classrooms teachers might provide feedback in the L1, i.e., 'code-switching' (Auer, 1998; Elridge, 1996; Martin, 1996) or 'alternation' (Coste, 1997; Nussbaum, 1994). These notions refer to the pedagogical use of the native language in foreign language classrooms.

Some types of 'alternation' in teacher reaction episodes have been reported in Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998):

Table 4.31 *Types of Alternation*

TYPES OF ALTERNATION		
CATEGORIES	DEFINITIONS	EXAMPLES
Alternation in metalinguistic comments	It occurs when the teacher uses the L1 to explain facts about the FL, such as grammar rules, or sociolinguistic use of words, etc.	Example 4.38 "En català i en castellà no hi ha article davant de pa. Però en francès que et diuen els partitius?" [Cat]

Alternation for teaching directions	In this type of alternation, the teacher uses the L1 to make clear his or her directives about foreign language tasks. For example, to make a student repeat an utterance; to ask a student some 'elaboration', etc.	Example 4.39 S: It's an idea who changed the world. T: An idea ↑ <i>Què pronom relatiu hi ha després [Cat]?</i>
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A number of specialists have banned 'code-switching' from FL classrooms since it might undermine the learning process (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Chambers, 1991; Macdonald, 1993). However, it naturally takes place in many FL classrooms as observational studies depict (Antón & DiCamilla, 1998; Arnfast & Jørgensen, 2003; Matthey, 1996; Py, 1995; Turnbull, 2001; Wells, 1998).

It seems that 'alternation' is a valuable teaching tool to ensure learner comprehensibility of the utterances (Cook, 2001; Edmondson, 2004; Hancock, 1997; Kotter, 2003; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004; Macaro, 2001). Nevertheless, teachers who make use of the L1 in class often do so in a limited manner during "*pedagogical interactions*" (Lin, 1988: 88). For instance, explanations of linguistic content, or transmission of information about classroom rules or assessment.

The occasional "*brief but cogent use*" (Modica, 1994: 289) of the L1 on the part of the teacher to keep students "*tuned in*" to what the teacher is saying can turn "incomprehensible messages in the target language" (Weschler, 1997) into input that is comprehensible in spot translation. Consequently, it might be usable by learners. This increased understanding might promote student participation in the learning process (Modica, op.cit.).

Interestingly, Macaro (2001: 544) reports a study on teacher beliefs in 'code-switching'. In his study, one teacher revealed two different functional reasons for using the L1 since:

- i. it might promote deeper understanding of semantic and syntactic equivalents in order to lead learners into a state of confusion
- ii. it might avoid the breakdown of the flow of classroom interaction

4.6.5 Feedback adjustment

A number of authors (Kennedy, 1996; Schachter, 1991; Sharwood Smith, 1988) advocate that learner characteristics and linguistic development should be investigated in more detail to adjust the feedback better.

Lightbown and Spada (1991) attempt to do it in their study to explore:

- i. whether different types of error correction strategies are more effective at different times in learner development
- ii. if teachers go through different behaviour stages during error correction activities depending on their perceptions of learners' development

Their study concludes that possibly feedback adjustments to the individual learner cannot be determined a priori and they have to be collaboratively negotiated with the learner during an activity. Nevertheless, researchers and teachers still cannot know the ideal developmental match of a teacher reaction to learner output adjusted to the IL state of students (Truscott, 1999).

'Oral feedback' has also been examined according to the sociocultural or Neo-Vygotskian framework. Neo-Vygotskians also claim that when teachers give more implicit forms of feedback to their students and less explicit forms during correction, learners take more control over their linguistic activity in the L2. Van Lier (1988) adopting sociocultural theory to the educational context warns teachers that too much 'other-repair' (other-regulation) might inhibit or delay the development of 'self-repair' (self-regulation). Therefore, he says that the least effective technique for correcting a student's incorrect language use simply is to give them the answer. Applying Van Lier's ideas, Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) present how feedback is negotiated in the ZPD within a particular tutorial and across tutorials.

Overall, most studies into this issue concluded that types of meaningful comments significantly appeared to lead to student improvement. This stimulating feedback - in the developmental sense - might contain new information or additional information that may help learners to generate or restructure concepts required to understand an error that the teacher previously pointed out.

4.7 BELIEFS AND PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER FEEDBACK

4.7.1 Teacher beliefs in learner output intervention

The overwhelming literature on feedback has focused on its typology. Only a few studies have investigated learner use of and attitude towards feedback or L2 student preferences regarding teacher feedback (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2004; Cohen, 1987; Enginarlar 1993; Leki, 1991). In contrast, studies focusing on teacher beliefs in education are increasing (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg, 2003; Tabulawa, 1998). The idea behind is that beliefs tend to shape teacher instructional practices (Johnson, 1992). However, little is known about student preferences for different kinds of feedback (Alanen, 2003). That is, whether all learners prefer the same kind of feedback, if these preferences play a role in their success in language learning. In the majority of studies, asking teachers whether errors should be corrected, the answer is 'yes' in most cases (Chenoweth et al., 1986; Comps, 2003; Lee, 2004; Leki, 1991) although in some cultures like East Asian ones it is not the case (Gay, 2000, 2002; Katayama, 2006, 2007; Loewen et al., 2009; Yan & Horwitz, 2008).

In relation to teacher beliefs on correction, treatment means for some teachers just giving learners information of their errors (Long, 1977). Nevertheless, for other teachers, it has to cover giving learners information, remedies and opportunities to practice (Allwright, 1975). Therefore, teachers are possibly driven by personal motives.

As for the provision of feedback, McCargar (1993) reports in his study that teachers clearly disagreed that they should correct every student error. In relation to the assessment of the statement: "*teachers should point out student errors without correcting them*", that was presented in a questionnaire, the teachers agreed. In this study, the ESL teachers question error correction, but students, like those in other studies (Hedgecock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Leki, 1991; Wieczorek, 1997), wanted error correction. Nevertheless, Wajnryb (1992) claims that 'hypercorrection' might discourage students from risk-taking and experimentation. Allwright and Bayley (1991) advise that teachers should allow the learners some interactional space to use the L2.

In Vicente-Rasoamalala's (1998) study, the teachers participating in this study answering questions about corrective feedback expressed the following ideas:

- i. explicit and implicit corrections are necessary
- ii. correction or “negative input” is needed to push the student to produce precise, coherent, and appropriate speech
- iii. corrective treatment is carried out only for what is necessary according to the student level
- iv. correction makes communication difficult
- v. good linguistic models and hearing correct FL speech is important for students

Interestingly enough, Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) report in their study about teachers’ beliefs about incidental Focus on Form that there were some inconsistencies in their beliefs and actual practices.

Overall, it appears that the way teachers deal with student errors basically depends on their own beliefs on the nature of the learning process, an awareness of students’ needs and the objectives of the course. According to this account of studies, it should be essential that observations of teacher behaviours and teacher self-reports be incorporated into this area of research (Mackey et al., 2004; Noels, 2001; Zyzyk & Polio, 2008).

4.7.2 Learner perceptions and effects of teacher reactions to their output

For most FL students, teacher reactions to their output make them think of “*bad*”, “*error*”, “*mistake*”, “*correction*”, “*editing*”, “*fix*”, “*problem*”, etc., when the feedback teachers anticipate is corrective input focused on grammar, orthography, etc. Most empirical studies concerned with learner effects of teacher reactions to their output have focused on feedback given by teachers on writing assignments (Edge, 1989; Ferris, 1997; Makino, 1993; Reid, 1993; Truscott, 1996). The area of FL writing has been largely investigated because of the growing interest in L2 learner revision techniques.

Some L2 researchers have claimed that the learner awareness of errors is inadequate according to the grammatical accuracy advocated by “fluency-first” approach of FL acquisition (Krashen, 1984; Zamel, 1985). Nevertheless, this approach also disregards the needs and expectations of learners (Egi, 2004).

As regards oral errors, Cathcart and Olsen (1976) conducted a survey of 149 adult learners, which showed a strong preference for error correction. However, when learners were actually corrected intensively, they did not like it. They also showed that younger language learners such as children at primary school may respond even more negatively to extensive error correction by the teacher and this in turn could have negative consequences for their motivation.

Concerning the affective effects for learners, Nunan and Lamb (1996: 70) found that learners did not like non-verbal signals of disapproval such as the teacher waving a finger or the teacher saying 'no'. Neither did they particularly liked repetitive, (ritualistic) ways of correction consisting of providing:

- i. the correct form without explanations
- ii. metalinguistic information aimed at triggering the right answer on the part of the student
- iii. asking the student to repeat the sentence

In general, learners would like to increase their involvement and opportunities to self-correct. In addition, they would like teachers to provide information and clarification, making them believe that errors are signs of the progress of the learning process, rather than evidence of failure.

4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the teacher reaction features in the light of feedback studies. We have examined the complex nature of negative feedback according to: i) the provision, ii) the typology, iii) the occurrence and iv) the effects.

It seems that the overwhelming literature on SL feedback has focused on its typology. Characteristically, classifying it mainly as 'explicit or implicit negative or positive feedback'.

Specifically, 'teacher feedback' informs learners whether their utterances are correct or incorrect. Such forms can consist of: i) a positive assessment of a learner utterance (positive feedback) or ii) a negative judgement of it (negative feedback).

Regarding the context, most of the studies on feedback have dealt with language schools and immersion contexts and not with mainstream education in FL classrooms (Lyster, 1998a, 1999, 2007b).

The most recent studies attempt to examine how learners attend to, interpret and use corrective teacher feedback during conversational classroom interaction (Nabei & Swain, 2002). “Implicit negative feedback” is an issue recently being explored in oral contexts because of their positive effects on learners. Teacher interventions might be considered as a means of ‘scaffolding’ (Wells, 1999). Nevertheless, the aspect that has not been still demonstrated is a direct relationship between these strategies and actual language learning.

A number of studies dealing with teacher reactions state that some features and different types of teacher reactions in oral contexts have been neglected, such as positive feedback (Ferreira, 2006) and non-verbal components accompanying linguistic teacher reactions. Feedback might involve praise (i.e., the positive assessment of the student production), although this feature has not been explored much either.

Despite considerable research activity, there is little generalisable evidence about the precise mechanisms that might impact on learner development. What is far less certain is the long-term effect of such teacher intervention as studies mostly consider immediate repairs or possible ‘uptake episodes’.

In summary, there is still only limited empirical evidence that input and interactional modifications appear to facilitate language development.

PART II
The Empirical Part

Chapter 5

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

In the previous chapters, we examined studies stemming from a number of research traditions - both theoretical and practical - as a preliminary step to understanding and illustrating the pertinent research conducted in the area of teacher reactions to foreign language learner output. In particular, we provided a picture of oral interaction in SLA and teacher feedback studies (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; Chaudron, 1988; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Fanselow, 1977; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1996; Lyster, 1998a; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 2000; Swain, 1995; Van Lier, 1996).

The current study seeks to contribute to FL classroom research by providing further empirical data obtained from one slightly unusual environment: the Senegalese international immersion bilingual schools. In order to conduct further research in the area of FL acquisition, this empirical study has focused on teacher reactions to foreign language learner output in a formal instruction (FI) learning context. We have adopted a micro-level research analysis approach, bringing together several SLA perspectives.

This chapter presents the statement of purpose of this dissertation. In it, the research questions and their respective theoretical motivations are put forward. Finally, the research hypotheses are stated.

5.1 GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

All forms of 'negative evidence' (i.e., Input) can potentially facilitate foreign language learning, including teachers' reactions to foreign language learner output provided through conversational interaction. It is, therefore, important to ascertain the nature and frequency of the use of these reactions in the FL classroom. As McCarthy states:

"With a more accurate picture of natural discourse, we are in a better position to evaluate the descriptions upon which we base our teaching, the teaching materials, what goes on in the classroom, etc." (McCarthy, 1996: 12).

For this reason, examining cases of teacher reactions to foreign language learner output under forms of negative feedback might be helpful so as to better understand this phenomenon. In particular, the data samples including such classroom moves might reflect teachers' idiosyncratic choices from a range of pedagogical options that could guide learners in the acquisition of FL forms, functions and meanings (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Pica, 1994b).

The dissertation focuses on teachers' reactions to FL learner output, which is considered as a specific type of purpose driven classroom activity¹¹⁵ (Brazil, 1985). The 'reactions' refer to verbal and non-verbal¹¹⁶ teaching strategies used in providing feedback and to those which disregard learners' TL deviant productions.

As claimed by linguistic and psychological approaches, teachers' reactions to foreign language learner output which includes 'negative feedback' appears to play a significant role in the process of FL acquisition. Hence, the present study attempts to further illustrate this issue using empirical data gathered from the observation of foreign language immersion classrooms at 2 private international bilingual schools in the country of Senegal. More specifically, data provided by 2 different levels of education - primary and secondary - are analysed. It must be emphasised that only non-native learners' production is studied in the empirical part of this thesis. That is to say, learners who are NSs of English (Settings 1 and 2) or NSs of Spanish (Setting 3) are excluded from the analysis. This mainly affects the subsample in one of the settings (Setting 2).

Overall, the general aim driving this study is to identify instructional sequences that would optimise learning according to SLA postulates with data from 3 different FL immersion learning settings, which are analysed as microanalysis case studies of Formal Instruction (FI) in the immersion learning contexts.

Taking into account the background research, the present study attempts:

¹¹⁵ Brazil sees speech as a purpose-driven activity in which speakers and hearers work together to reach 'target states' of shared understanding.

¹¹⁶ The non-verbal components are often dismissed in previous teacher feedback studies.

1) to gain further insight into how three teachers deal with their students' output in three differentiated immersion settings at two private Senegalese international bilingual schools (one primary school, THE A SCHOOL, and one secondary school; THE B SCHOOL) (see Table 5.1):

- i. The first setting is officially called "*Intermediate English Level*"¹¹⁷ immersion in the primary school stage (Years 1-6 at the A School). The learners' age range is from 5 to 10 years. Separate from the mainstream academic EFL programme, it integrates CLIL ¹¹⁸ (Content and Language Integrated Learning) activities tied to contents of core subjects taught in French that have been previously dealt with in the same period of the academic year.
- ii. The second setting, which is officially named "*Advanced English Level*" immersion consists of classrooms where non-native proficient learners of English are grouped together with English native peers in English language classrooms in the primary school stage (Years 1-6 at the A School). The learners' age range is from 5 to 10 years. The English subject lessons program is a conventional one designed for native and near-native speakers of English in which periodic CLIL activities are implemented in tandem with the contents of core subjects taught in French studied in the same period of the year.
- iii. The officially named "*Spanish Immersion*" involves precocious¹¹⁹ learning of an L3 in the secondary school stage (Years 9-10 at the B School). The learners' age range is from 13 to 14 years. In addition to the conventional ELE programme, CLIL special activities are held in conjunction with the contents taught in English and French core subjects.

The term "*immersion*" in the A and B Schools refers to the teaching approach in which students receive academic instruction of core content subjects in a language that is not

¹¹⁷ In the A School non-native English learners receive precocious instruction of English compared to counterpart educational institutions in Senegal.

¹¹⁸ For more information about CLIL, please review Pérez (in press, 2009).

¹¹⁹ In the B School learners receive precocious instruction of an L3 in contrast with counterpart educational institutions in Senegal which do so in Year 11.

usually their mother tongue (Cloud et al., 2000; Snow, 1990; Swain, 2000; Swain & Johnson, 1997; Wesche, 2001). In addition, students attending such schools are “immersed” in an environment that might be foreign to them. In particular, they might receive cultural exposure in daily school activities by interacting with students and school staff that do not share their mother tongues. This term will be used to refer to our data from now on.

Table 5.1 *FL immersion settings under study*

FL IMMERSION SETTINGS						
Settings	School	Teacher	Learners' age range	Learners' L1s	Grades	Course name
1	A	1	5-10 yrs.	French, English, Wolof, German, Portuguese, Italian, Arabic, Diola, Japanese, Thai and Indonesian	Years 1-6	Intermediate English
2	A	2	5-10 yrs.	French, English, Wolof, German and Arabic	Years 1-6	Advanced English
3	B	3	13-14 yrs.	French, English, Wolof, German, Arabic and Korean	Years 9-10	Spanish immersion

Abbreviations: L1: Mother tongue yrs.: years

Specifically, the Senegalese international bilingual schools participating in the present study run two-way immersion programmes in English and French (Bae, 2007; Fitts, 2006; Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Primarily, academic instruction is carried out mainly in two languages and progressively in other foreign languages (either English and French or Spanish and others as an L3) are incorporated precociously in an immersion approach, in contrast to conventional state schools. Some studies report that ‘environment’ (i.e., unique interactional contexts) - what is called ‘settings’ in this study - shapes teachers’ strategies (Eisenhart, 2001) (see 6.3 for a detailed description of the educational system in Senegal).

- 2) to present a framework for analysing the teacher’s and the learner’s moves in classroom discourse. The focus is on two aspects of reactive teacher moves: i)

the immediate provision of teachers' negative feedback for learners and ii) the incorporation of feedback in the learners' subsequent target language productions

3) to assess the aforementioned moves as potentially helpful instances of language acquisition in terms of learning episodes

4) to aim at identifying the teachers' strategies dealing with foreign language deviant learner oral output that appear to produce more learner self-repair or uptake

Consequently, teachers' reactions episodes will be analysed considering:

- i. the outcomes of SLA studies and theories on feedback and negotiation of form and meaning in FL learning contexts
- ii. the three different types of FL classrooms in immersion settings
- iii. beliefs concerning teachers' reactions held by teachers and learners participating in this empirical study

5.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Our study draws on two main sources: previous studies conducted in this field and reviewed herein; and the empirical data gathered during the observation of different grades of FL classrooms within the 3 settings presented and which represent various levels of teaching. A total of 14 lessons were observed to this end. Three research questions emerge from this work relating to the learning episodes that take place when: i) a learner initiates a conversation in a FL with an ungrammatical or a problematic element in it, ii) subsequently, the teacher reacts to this utterance and next iii) the learner responds to the teachers' interventions.

This general statement is subsequently specified in the following research questions:

► RQ 1. *What are the types of teacher reactions to learners' FL faulty utterances in the three different kinds of classroom immersion situations identified in Senegalese international bilingual schools?*

In order to establish a typology, we examine whether the different types of teacher strategies in relation to TL learners' deviant productions might be influenced by factors such as: i) FL immersion classroom contexts, ii) the learners' level of TL proficiency and iii) the teachers' profiles. The aim is to portray the recurrent types of teacher reactions and identify how they involve learners in potential self-repairs of their own errors. Furthermore, this question could have implications for learner motivations: teachers who do not help students in adjusting their productions may risk having students withdraw or be unhappy in experimenting with the TL.

In addition, relationships between 'learner uptake' manifestations and salient contextual features in Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs) during FL classroom interactions will be sought. Moreover, a coding system is developed by which to classify teachers' moves following the FL learner's output in oral contexts. We transcribe episodes according to conversation analysis procedures. Finally, the present study takes into account the participants' views about teacher reactions to FL learner output by triangulating data on these classroom phenomena.

► RQ 2. *What types of teacher reactions may generate learner responses in the forms of repair or uptake according to the typology and the FL immersion contexts?*

In order to address this question, by means of the typology, those types of teacher reactions leading to FL student responses will be identified. The student's response that immediately ensues from the teacher move is examined in order to give a comprehensive account of the effects of teacher feedback to learner uptake in the FL classroom (Ellis et al., 2001a; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

In the present study, 'uptake' refers to learners' or peers' actions which signal that the feedback given by the teacher to the FL learner's deviant TL forms has actually been perceived as such. This notion includes both those instances where learners may successfully incorporate the corrected features into their own productions and those where they may not integrate them. The focus is on teachers' verbal and non-verbal scaffolding on classroom performances. This question also relates to the availability or accessibility of negative evidence for learners after teachers' provision of feedback.

Using a diversity of teacher reaction episodes¹²⁰ involving negotiation of form or meaning (Gass & Varonis, 1992; Long, 1994), we draw out the relationship between the teachers' reactions to learners' output and the subsequent learners' response¹²¹ or 'learner uptake' (Ellis et al., 2001a; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a). We postulate that a manifestation of learners' potential use of teachers' reactions acting as feedback is 'learner uptake'¹²² in FL learning contexts (Lyster & Ranta, op.cit.). Thus, 'uptake instances' may give hints of how learners potentially recognise or perceive teachers' reactions as negative feedback.

► **RQ 3. *What status and role may learners' responses have in their interlanguage development?***

In order to address this issue, episodes will be gauged in relation to the amount of teacher help provided to learners which leads to potential interlanguage development.

We will examine learners' involvement in repairing errors in teacher reaction episodes according to the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) and the sociocultural or Neo-Vygotskian Theory (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Vygotsky, 1978). To this end, we examine both the sequences that facilitate learner self-regulation according to Neo-Vygotskian terminology and the negotiation of form and meaning.

Teacher reactions are said to:

- i. promote noticing and acquisition of foreign language forms (Lyster, 2007b; Oliver & Mackey, 2003)
- ii. provide opportunities for learners to modify their output, pushing them to notice gaps in their interlanguage knowledge (McDonough, 2005)

¹²⁰ 'Episodes' refer to the sequences including a student's L2 utterance, the teacher's reactions and the student/s' subsequent response or uptake as well as other interactional moves that might arise in the classroom.

¹²¹ The term 'uptake' is hereinafter used to refer to learner responses in the sense of Lyster and Ranta (1997). For these authors, this label refers to the learner's response move that immediately follows the teacher's reaction move. It may involve successful cases of 'self-repair' on the part of the learner but not necessarily.

¹²² 'Uptake' is not 'intake'. Specifically, 'intake' (Corder, 1967) refers to actual internalised knowledge.

The focus here is on whether negotiated meaningful interaction provides learners with enhanced feedback and subsequent possibilities for 'learner uptake'.

5.3 THE HYPOTHESES

Starting from the assumption that corrective feedback moves are more complex than the simple tripartite IRF structure identified traditionally in classrooms consisting of: i) *Initiation*, ii) *Teacher Reaction* and iii) *Learner Response*, we postulate the following three hypotheses relating to the RQs, respectively:

- a. **In relation to RQ1 we hypothesise that teacher reactions to foreign language learners' deviant output may produce different patterns according to the nature of the interactional FL classroom context.**

We assume that teachers may display different and recurrent reactive verbal and non-verbal behaviours in relation to learner output according to variables such as learners' and teachers' characteristics and beliefs, course level, the number of students in classrooms, motivation, the features of the programme, teaching methodologies and approaches.

- b. **In relation to RQ2 we hypothesise that the episodes of teachers' reactions involving negotiation may trigger learner uptake. Regarding this condition, we examine environment variables that might potentially boost negotiation:**

- b1. The teacher's competence in the TL and their years of teaching experience
- b2. Small classroom groups
- b3. Learner competence in the TL

- c. **In relation to RQ3, we hypothesise that some teachers' reactions to foreign language learners' episodes may be potentially more beneficial for learners' interlanguage than others, as some theories and studies claim.**

Implicit negative feedback obtained through negotiated interaction and recasts facilitates SLA (Long, 1996; Lyster, 2001, 2007b; Pica, 1998). In addition, from the Neo-Vygotskian psychological perspective, it is suggested that adjusted teacher help

and feedback rightly tuned to the individual situation of the learner might potentially widen the learner's linguistic repertoire and therefore enhance foreign language acquisition (Lantolf, 2006). This perspective assumes that the different levels of help that teachers offer to learners range from 'other-regulation' (other-repair) to 'self-regulation' (self-repair).

5.4. SUMMARY

The main issues addressed in this chapter are: i) the general statement of the problem, ii) the research questions and iii) the hypotheses. In particular, the empirical study carried out at two bilingual Senegalese schools attempts to examine how teachers' communication behaviours, related to their interventions towards learner output, might affect successful FL acquisition. In this sense, negotiation instances or degrees of teacher collaboration could be viewed as windows of opportunity for second language learners to acquire and develop their interlanguage.

In order to investigate this issue we analyse the case studies that endeavour to examine potential beneficial episodes for learners in English and Spanish immersion foreign language classrooms at two Senegalese bilingual international schools (one primary and, the other, secondary). Several existing studies (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) have focused on teacher feedback and student intake yet none, to our knowledge, have used data from the context of the African school system, albeit private. Furthermore, few have dealt with the context of international schools.

In summary, we attempt to determine the extent to which different types of negative feedback might attract learner attention to L2 errors. This aspect will be assessed in relation to subsequent instances of 'learner uptake'.

Chapter 6

METHODOLOGY

The previous chapters have laid the foundations for the theoretical approach and the research questions in the empirical part of the study. This chapter introduces the methodology used to study 3 FL immersion settings in two private Senegalese international bilingual schools, with teachers interacting with their students in FL classrooms. It includes the following sections:

- 1) Research paradigms
- 2) The setting
- 3) The general design of the study
- 4) Participants
- 5) The classroom oral data: verbal and non-verbal components
- 6) Units of analysis and coding
- 7) Transcription
- 8) Interviews and questionnaires

6.1 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

This research consists of a small-scale ethnographic descriptive case study that deals with SLA classroom interaction. Specifically, it focuses on teacher feedback, using classroom data collected in Senegal, a West African country. It collects naturalistic data and combines two types of research approaches to phenomena (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Candela et al., 2004; Creswell, 1997; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Merriam, 1988; Miles & Huberman 1994; Peirce, 1995):

- i. a **'quantitative approach'** whose objective is to measure the phenomenon "Teachers' Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output" with numerical data
- ii. a **'qualitative approach'** by which to document the participants' beliefs, experiences and behaviours

The differences between both procedures are summarised in Table 6.1:

Table 6.1 *Quantitative vs. qualitative approaches*

QUANTITATIVE APPROACH	QUALITATIVE APPROACH
Assuming an etic approach (i.e., external perspective).	Adopting an emic approach (i.e., insider's participant point of view in a given study).
Data collection examining and controlling external variables.	Data mediated through the researcher analysing particulars such as words (e.g., from interviews), objects (e.g., an artefact) or images (e.g., video captures) involving fieldwork.
Causal explanations.	Process oriented.
Classification of features by constructing statistical models in an attempt to explain the phenomena observed.	Consideration of the experiences and the views of the participants.
Starting with hypotheses and theories.	Ending with hypotheses and grounded theory (that is, empirical data without preconceived theories).

A hybrid method, or Multimethodology (Arminen, 2000; Boxer & Cohen, 2004; Brannen, 2005), which mixes research approaches is adopted in this study. In particular, teachers' reactions are studied according to Conversation Analysis, social interactionism and sociocultural or Neo-Vygotskian perspectives. Nevertheless, we should be cautious with conclusions drawn from data stemming from mixed methodological approaches.

Chaudron (1988) warns researchers of:

- i. the failure to validate the categories for measuring instructional features
- ii. the dangers of establishing theoretical links between the observed processes and learning outcomes

This author further advocates a solution which could achieve "*a careful development of research into specific sorts of classroom behaviours that would validate their meaningfulness for L2 learning*" (p.28).

This empirical study has tried to cope with these potential methodological problems through a meticulous literature review appertaining to those research areas related to the dissertation.

6.2 THE SETTING

We believe that a description of the setting is key to understanding the interaction activities analysed in this dissertation. Therefore, the social and economic circumstances affecting the country, the schools and the characteristics of the participants are relevant.

6.2.1 The country: Senegal

The data collection sites for this study are located in two private international bilingual immersion schools in Senegal. The researcher selected these schools as the context of her PhD dissertation study while she was a visiting lecturer of the Spanish International Cooperation Agency at a Senegalese university.

Senegal is a former colony of France. French has been the only official language since independence in 1960 (Calvet, 1994; Chafer, 2003; Daff, 1996; Dreyfus & Juillard, 2005; Manning, 1998). As shown in Table 6.2, French is used for official affairs and by the middle and upper classes. Likewise, it is the sole medium of instruction in education (Moreau, 1992). Nevertheless, thirty-six indigenous languages are commonly spoken in local contexts. In 1971, the Government of Senegal recognised six of these as “national languages”.

‘Wolof’ is the mother tongue of the Wolof people, who represent 45% of the population of Senegal. Nevertheless, Senegalese people belonging to other ethnic groups speak this language either as a mother tongue or as a second language. It is more commonly spoken than French both at home and in public. In addition, Wolof is overtaking the former colonial lingua franca in TV, radio and media advertising. The other national languages in Senegal are Pulaar (23%), Serer-Sine (15%), Diola (5%), Malinke (4%) and Soninke (2%) (Gordon, 2005). Furthermore, an influential Lebanese community maintains Arabic as their mother tongue and vehicular language. Nevertheless, it seems that this fact is not ordinarily reflected in reference sources about Senegal¹²³.

¹²³ The first Lebanese settlers arrived in different African countries in the 1950s. Today, they control most commercial activities in West Africa. In Senegal, most of them have Senegalese nationality.

Another significant feature of Senegal is the low literacy rate of the population (38.3 % in 2003 according to UNESCO sources) despite the fact that education is compulsory for children from 7 to 13 years of age. In the last five years, a nationwide campaign has been underway to encourage the enrolment of all Senegalese children in school. This fight against illiteracy is particularly aimed at girls, who have traditionally been deprived of education, and young boys known as “talibés” who beg on behalf of “marabouts”¹²⁴ (Daun, 2005; Diouf-Kamara, 1995). Nonetheless, these campaigns have not been very successful. (For more facts: http://dakar.unesco.org/education_fr/index.shtml).

Table 6.2 *Information about Senegal*

INFORMATION ABOUT SENEGAL	
Location	Western Africa, on the coast of the North Atlantic Ocean, between Guinea-Bissau and Mauritania.
Languages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • French (official) and 36 indigenous languages. • “National languages”: Wolof (45%), Pulaar (23%), Serer-Sine (15%), Diola (5%), Malinke (4%) and Soninke (2%).
Literacy rate	Very low (38.3 % in 2003).

As is the case in most Third World Countries, the Senegalese education conditions are not the best for teaching and learning. The main factors leading to this situation are:

- i. the total number of educational institutions cannot meet the demand for schooling due to the large population and its fast growth rate
- ii. educational resources such as state-owned buildings, facilities and teaching staff are deficient due to the country’s financial problems

Over the last 35 years, Senegal has experienced very high demographic growth. 43.7% of the population belongs to the 0-14 age group (Source: The CIA Facts World Book, 2003). For this reason, classrooms are overcrowded at all levels of education. In the best of cases, the average number of students per class is 75 in Senegalese state secondary schools.

In public tertiary education, the average class size is also relatively high (over 350 students per class). Surprisingly, the school enrolment rate is very low considering the total number of school-age children. Overall, only 41% of Senegalese students are

¹²⁴ In many parts of Africa, as a part of their Koranic instruction, children beg for ‘marabouts’, i.e., Muslim holy men.

enrolled at primary school level and only 25% at secondary school level (Source: UNESCO, 2003).

A further problem of general education in Senegal is the scarcity of teachers. Since 1995, each year around 1,200 volunteer instructors (in many cases university students) work for the Senegalese Government to improve this situation. These people receive the promise that within five years they will be hired to teach in government-funded schools. However, state school teachers are underpaid and have second jobs in private schools. The most visible signs of the deteriorating Senegalese public education system are the continuous teachers' struggles with the Government for decent wages and working conditions together with the numerous student strikes.

Another factor hindering schooling in Senegal is that a large number of educational buildings, the majority of which belong to the state, are derelict. All these factors have led to a decline in the quality of education in Senegalese schools over the last 25 years. As a result, a significant number of students abandon school each year due to the lack of quality, mainstream, state-provided education. Overall, for most Senegalese facing harsh living conditions, education does not appear to meet their social expectations.

In addition, these circumstances have induced the privileged sectors of the Senegalese population to enrol their children in private schools - a phenomenon which is widening the inequalities in Senegalese society. This situation has generated two parallel educational systems:

- i. one type of education for a small group of rich people
- ii. another type for the underprivileged majority

The education programme in Senegal was mainly inherited from the French curriculum (Dreyfus & Juillard, 2004; Dumas et al., 2004; Guttman, 1995; Locraft, 2005; Ndiaye, 2006). Over the years, this curriculum has undergone some modifications. Nevertheless, we find that implementation varies according to the financial status of schools. Thus, private schools with more resources follow the present-day French curriculum and use current French textbooks. In contrast, most Senegalese state schools that adopt a Senegalese curriculum dating from 1986 rely on largely outdated

material and lack resources. In addition, there are huge inequalities between the curriculum followed in the Dakar region state schools and that of the rest of Senegal.

Despite the differences between private and state schools, both apply very traditional teaching methods. Magisterial classrooms are favoured and students are expected to write down every word that the teacher says in the form of dictation. In such a context, teachers dominate classroom talk and students remain silent for most of the time. Furthermore, learners are not allowed to speak in class unless the teacher asks them to do so¹²⁵. In a report for the AECI (Spanish International Cooperation Agency), Vicente-Rasoamalala (2002) suggested that this kind of educational practice might also be influenced by traditional Koranic instruction. In this type of religious instruction, students take dictation and learn the Koran by heart. The aforementioned circumstances prompted the decision to use foreign language classrooms in which communicative teaching methods would be more likely employed as the settings for our analyses.

6.2.2 The schools

The preliminary step for this study was to examine, in situ, the general state of the education system in Senegal. This initial stage was done through field work carried out in both state and private schools in Dakar. Having observed the intricacies of the Senegalese education situation, the researcher decided to search for schools in which there would be interaction in FL classrooms, taking into account that:

- i. few schools in Senegal followed a communicative approach to language teaching as traditional approaches dominate FL teaching
- ii. it is difficult to make contact with a school headmaster or headmistress and convince him/her to allow research to be undertaken in his/her school
- iii. it is harder still to obtain the permission of the headmaster/ headmistress, teachers and parents to video inside the classrooms

After two months of contacting and visiting some schools and presenting the study at meetings with the schools' staff and the students' parents, two were chosen as the

¹²⁵ Some Senegalese teachers commented that they used this teaching procedure since class groups are very large.

education centres for the study and each agreed to participate. They are formally 'Senegalese schools'¹²⁶ which also possess international-school features: one catering for kindergarten and primary education and another for secondary education. The children of the Senegalese elite classes and many children of expatriates on temporary assignment in Senegal attend them.

Both schools follow the Senegalese education programme reinforced with elements taken from French, British and American curricula. The Senegalese educational curriculum appears to allow a certain amount of flexibility and these schools take advantage of this. Firstly, they can benefit from small class-sizes and low teacher/student ratios compared with most schools in Senegal. Secondly, their curricula material can be adjusted to the needs of their students, who have different language levels and educational backgrounds.

These two private schools run combined Franco-Senegalese and Anglophone programmes which involve foreign language teaching in both French and English languages (Genesee, 1994; Johnson & Swain, 1997; Snow & Brinton, 1997; Snow et al., 1989) and FL CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) or content-based activities (Marsh & Langé, 1999; Marsh & Marsland, 1999; Marsland, 1999; Navés & Muñoz, 1999; Pérez, 2008; Wolff, 1999) to different degrees. We consider that these schools employ two-way immersion programmes (Bae, 2007) in which two languages are used as the main vehicles for instruction and communication within the school. Also, we identified two groups of learners interacting in daily school activities: local students and expatriate students.

The main objectives of the programmes in both schools are:

- i. to prepare students to perform successfully in classrooms where the foreign language is often the medium of instruction for content subject areas
- ii. to start bilingual lessons from the initial levels of education
- iii. to acquire linguistic and content knowledge in French and English
- iv. to gain a greater understanding and appreciation of Senegalese and foreign cultures

¹²⁶ There are other international schools in Dakar that fulfilled these requirements but depend on foreign governments and do not follow the Senegalese national curriculum.

Apart from implementing the curricular objectives, a subsidiary target of both schools is to develop the learners' global ability to acquire foreign languages incidentally outside the classroom, in authentic situations, as the primary school claims in its information brochure. For this reason, the L2 or L3 is embedded in everyday school life. In this way, students are obliged to speak these languages constantly in a multicultural environment.

6.2.2.1 The A School: two bilingual French/English tracks in kindergarten and primary school

The A School is a bilingual French/English kindergarten and primary school with French as the major language of instruction. Officially, this educational institution identifies itself as "*a bilingual French and English Senegalese school*". In particular, it runs two bilingual programmes of "*precocious immersion*"¹²⁷ for students who are not proficient in English (8 hours) or French (3 hours). The school places emphasis on the mastery of basic linguistic and content process skills and the application of knowledge in core subject areas by using English and French. In addition, it uses both languages for internal communications.

Depending on the students' L1 and individual needs, learners choose one bilingual track out of two main options (Track 1 or Track 2) in which they learn either English and/or French as a foreign language at different levels (see Table 6.3). Herein, we refer more to teaching "settings" rather than "tracks" for the descriptive purposes of the study. This is due to the fact that we examine exclusively the EFL immersion situations of the A School and only the L3 Spanish immersion of the B School.

From 6 years of age, depending on their proficiency in foreign languages, students receive 1 hour per day of remedial French or English plus CLIL¹²⁸ activities following two differentiated tracks:

¹²⁷ In most Senegalese schools, a second language is not introduced until 11 years of age.

¹²⁸ It must be born in mind that these lessons include CLIL activities covering a range of areas which revisit themes in the core dominant languages of the syllabi.

TRACK 1

The non-English speakers who attend the A School at kindergarten age (from 3 to 5 years old) receive one 45-minute session of English per day. Since relatively few native English learners attend this school (10%), more emphasis is given to English instruction and CLIL activities than L2 French. This track intends to move increasingly competent learners towards access to Track 2.

The brochure of the A School states that the non-native learners of English will learn further English by interacting with the native speakers through the academic programmes and routine social interaction.

TRACK 2

An “*advanced English language track*” that includes 2 hours per week of Literature in English is offered for native and near-native English-speaking students. Regarding non-native learners of French, the school advertises that pupils will learn French:

- i. through mainstream subjects taught in French
- ii. by sharing school life with native French speaking peers of their own age

Furthermore, learners with low-level French as a FL take extra daily intensive and remedial French lessons as a foreign language (3 hours per week). They do not study Literature in English until they are able to follow confidently the core academic courses in French. However, we must bear in mind that native speakers of English are non-valid subjects in the present study.

In general, for both Tracks 1 and 2, fundamental elements in core subjects taught in French, such as Biology, Social Sciences, Maths and Music, are also covered in English. In addition, the A School organises what they call “Full English Days” addressed to all students regardless of their respective mother tongues. This type of activity takes place three times per year. It consists of a thematic day where students have to talk and perform activities in English. During the academic year in which the present study took place, the selected themes were World Music, the Middle Ages and Asia. Moreover, this institution runs English programmes to prepare French-speaking

students with a view to continuing their studies in any of the international Dakarise secondary schools¹²⁹.

Table 6.3 *The A School: general features of the language programmes*

THE A SCHOOL: GENERAL FEATURES OF THE LANGUAGE PROGRAMMES											
Levels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kindergarten • Primary school 										
Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • From 3 to 10 years old • Children of the Senegalese elite and children of expatriates¹³⁰: L1 French-speaking students: 20% L1 English-speaking students: 10% Other L1s: 70% (Wolof, German, Portuguese, Italian, Arabic, Diola, Japanese, Thai and Indonesian) 										
The Language programmes	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <p>French as the main medium of instruction in core subjects</p> <p>PLUS</p> </div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-top: 10px;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <th colspan="2" style="background-color: #e91e63; color: white;">TRACK 1</th> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"> Intermediate English immersion + Periodic CLIL activities in English </td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">8 hours per week</td> </tr> </table> <p style="text-align: center;">OR</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <th colspan="2" style="background-color: #008000; color: white;">TRACK 2</th> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"> Advanced English for native and near-native English-speaking students + Periodic CLIL activities in English </td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">5 hours per week</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"> Literature in English or French remedial precocious instruction for non-proficient French-speakers </td> <td style="padding: 5px; text-align: center;">3 hours per week</td> </tr> </table> <p style="text-align: center;">PLUS</p> </div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-top: 10px; text-align: center;"> <p>Full English days for both tracks</p> </div>	TRACK 1		Intermediate English immersion + Periodic CLIL activities in English	8 hours per week	TRACK 2		Advanced English for native and near-native English-speaking students + Periodic CLIL activities in English	5 hours per week	Literature in English or French remedial precocious instruction for non-proficient French-speakers	3 hours per week
TRACK 1											
Intermediate English immersion + Periodic CLIL activities in English	8 hours per week										
TRACK 2											
Advanced English for native and near-native English-speaking students + Periodic CLIL activities in English	5 hours per week										
Literature in English or French remedial precocious instruction for non-proficient French-speakers	3 hours per week										

Abbreviations: L1: Mother tongue CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

¹²⁹ In these schools, English is used for most content subjects.

¹³⁰ Expatriate parents are primarily employees of multinationals, multilateral organisations (UN, EU, CRI, etc.), embassy staff and diplomats.

6.2.2.2 The B School: International Bilingual English/French secondary school with L3 Spanish, German and Arabic

The B School is a bilingual secondary school in which an International Programme completes the Senegalese Programme until Year 11 (15 yrs.). This school seems to give priority to communicating information rather than learning formal English or French grammars by following an immersion-type programme in English and/or French.

It is assumed that students have high oral and written commands of both languages before entering the school. The prerequisite for entry to the school is to pass proficiency tests in both English¹³¹ and French. Specifically, students pursue differentiated programmes depending on their L1 background. The backbone of the curricula content is the Senegalese programme with additional elements from the British and the American programmes. Subjects are taught 49% in French and 50% in English¹³² throughout a typical school day.

In this school language programme, Spanish, German and Arabic are introduced as L3s from Year 8 as Table 6.4 shows. The L3 is taught 3 hours per week from 13 years of age onwards. Spanish is actually the “foreign language” for the majority of students¹³³. It is also used for some CLIL activities such as poster exhibitions and essay contests. Furthermore, English is the major language used for internal communications for two reasons:

- i. First, the principal and owner of this school is an English native speaker.

¹³¹ The brochure of this school states that extra private intensive language courses are given to students who have problems in following the regular school programme.

¹³² The remaining one percent corresponds to language classroom hours of Wolof and the L3 offered in the secondary school.

¹³³ During some preliminary observational sessions prior to the present study, the researcher found that in the B School, FL learners' oral interventions in content classrooms were almost non-existent. As mentioned above, in Senegal most classes are taught as magisterial classrooms. This dynamic reflects the general educational practices in that country. Furthermore, it also mirrored the particular philosophy of the B School, where strict discipline is the rule. Nevertheless, in Spanish FL Classrooms there was more classroom interaction. This fact perhaps reflected the Spanish teacher's belief that communication and production were necessary for learning a foreign language.

- ii. Second, this school is advertised as an international bilingual school where English immersion is favoured.

This school is reputed to be a very strict institution from which students that get bad marks or display disruptive behaviour are expelled. Prospectively, this institution prepares students to follow the three last courses of the International Baccalaureate.

Table 6.4 *The B School: general features of the language programmes*

THE B SCHOOL: GENERAL FEATURES OF THE LANGUAGE PROGRAMMES	
Levels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secondary school • International baccalaureate
Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • From 11 to 17 years old • Children of the Senegalese elite and children of expatriates <p>L1 French-speaking students: 31% L1 English-speaking students: 15% Other L1s: 54% (Wolof, German, Arabic and Korean)</p>
The Language Programmes	<p>French (49%) and English (50%) as the languages of instruction</p> <p style="text-align: center;">PLUS</p> <p>Wolof and Spanish/Arabic/German as FLs (3 hours per week from 13 yrs.) (1%)</p>

Abbreviations: FL: Foreign Language yrs.: years

6.3 THE GENERAL DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This study involves 3 immersion settings that examine, microgenetically, instances of language learning in short-term longitudinal case studies (Gánem Gutiérrez, 2008; Werstch, 1985).

6.3.1 The classroom settings

Tables 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7 below describe the features of the foreign language classrooms selected in both schools. Seventy lessons were examined including core subjects¹³⁴ in second or third language classrooms. The learner participants' ages in the A School range from 5 to 10 years of age and in the B School from 13 to 14.

¹³⁴ That is, 'compulsory' as opposed to remedial lessons.

The corpora collected include recordings of classes in the following categories:

- i. **A School:** English as a Foreign Language lessons¹³⁵ (EFL) (Setting 1 and Setting 2)
- ii. **B School:** Spanish as a Foreign Language lessons (ELE) (Setting 3)

6.3.1.1 The A School: EFL classrooms

In the A School, the focus of the investigation is on the English immersion classrooms at six different grade levels (Years 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6). As Table 6.5 shows, English classrooms in the A school are divided into:

- 1) A group of Intermediate English (Setting 1), (Track 1 in Table 6.3) which contains the less proficient learners of English.
- 2) A group of Advanced English (Setting 2), (Track 2 EFL option in Table 6.3). In this environment, non-native proficient learners of English are grouped together with English native student peers (10%). The Track 2 curriculum follows some advanced contents of the English language in American programmes and some typical activities for native English children such as “show and tell”.

Table 6.5 A School classroom information

DATA FROM THE A SCHOOL CLASSROOMS				
FL IMMERSION CLASSROOM SETTINGS		Senegalese/English grades	Students' ages	n ° of subjects
SETTING 1	Intermediate English Level Immersion (Track 1)	GS (Grande Section)/ Year 1	5 yrs.	G1: 10
		CP (Cours Préparatoire)/Year 2	6 yrs.	G1: 16
		CE1 (Cours Élémentaire1)/Year 3	7 yrs.	G1: 12
		CE2 (Cours Élémentaire2)/Year 4	8 yrs.	G1: 11
		CM1 (Cours Moyen 1)/Year 5	9 yrs.	G1: 12
		CM2 (Cours Moyen 2)/Year 6	10 yrs.	G1: 4
SETTING 2	Advanced English classrooms (Track 2)	GS (Grande Section)/ Year 1	5 yrs.	G2: 12
		CP (Cours Préparatoire)/Year 2	6 yrs.	G2: 10
		CE1 (Cours Élémentaire1)/Year 3	7 yrs.	G2: 10
		CE2 (Cours Élémentaire2)/Year 4	8 yrs.	G2: 8
		CM1 (Cours Moyen 1)/Year 5	9 yrs.	G2: 9
		CM2 (Cours Moyen 2)/Year 6	10 yrs.	G2: 4
Total n° of lessons: 70		Total n° of the subjects		n= 118

Abbreviations: n: number FL: Foreign Language yrs.: years

¹³⁵ It must be born in mind that these lessons include CLIL activities covering a range of areas which revisit themes in the dominant core languages of the syllabi.

As Table 6.6 shows, both groups implement occasional English CLIL activities connected with mainstream French content lessons. These take place every two weeks, coordinated with content teachers, and all the students share the same lesson in English.

Table 6.6 *A School groups per grade information*

GROUPS PER GRADE IN THE A SCHOOL		Programme
SETTING 1	Intermediate English	Conventional English PLUS CLIL activities
SETTING 2	Advanced English	

Abbreviations: CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning n: number

6.3.1.2 The B School: Spanish as a Foreign Language classrooms

In the B School, the study was conducted with data from ‘Spanish as a Foreign Language Classrooms’ (Setting 3) at two grade levels of secondary school (Year 9 and Year 10) (see Table 6.7). These classrooms correspond to the first years in which Spanish is taught as a L3.

Table 6.7 *B School classroom information*

DATA FROM THE B SCHOOL CLASSROOMS				
FL IMMERSION CLASSROOM SETTING		Senegalese/English grades	Students' ages	n° of subjects
SETTING 3	Spanish FL classrooms	4 ^e /Year 9	13 yrs.	18
		3 ^e /Year 10	14 yrs.	20
Total n° of the subjects			n= 38	

Abbreviations: FL: Foreign Language yrs.: years n: number

6.4 THE PARTICIPANTS

There are two kinds of participants in this study: i) teachers and ii) learners.

6.4.1 Teachers

Three teachers took part in the study, all experienced and well qualified in the area they were teaching. Two of them (T1-T2) teach English in the A School and the third one Spanish (T3) in the B School:

- **Teacher One (T1)** was a Gabonese teacher who had been teaching English as a Foreign Language for 2 years in Japan and 6 years in Senegal. She had been to the US several times to receive teacher training. She taught the mainstream levels of English FL in the A School.
- **Teacher Two (T2)** was a US teacher with 20 years experience. She had been teaching for ten years in Spanish-English bilingual schools in California (USA), five years in Mexico and five years in Senegal at an American university and the A School. In the A School, she was the instructor for the advanced level courses of English.
- **Teacher Three (T3)** was a Senegalese teacher who had been teaching Spanish as a FL for thirty years. Apart from being a teacher in the B School, he was also teaching part-time at a university and in a state high school. Six years before the data collection time, he obtained a grant from the Spanish International Cooperation Agency to follow a teacher training summer course in Spain (Universidad de Alcalá de Henares).

The following table shows the teachers' profiles, the school where they were teaching, their nationality, their L1 and language of instruction, their qualifications as well as the years of teaching experience they had at the moment of data collection.

Table 6.8 *Teachers' profiles*

TEACHERS' PROFILES							
Identification	School	Nationality	L1	Language of instruction	Qualifications	Years of teaching	International practice
T1	A	Gabonese	French and Fang	English	University degree	8 yrs.	2 yrs. in Japan
T2	A	American	English	English	University degree	20 yrs.	10 yrs. in USA 5 yrs. in Mexico
T3	B	Senegalese	Wolof and French	Spanish	University degree	30 yrs.	0 yrs.

Abbreviations T: Teacher L1: Mother tongue yrs.: years

The teachers in this study were selected for the following reasons:

- they had initially been recommended by their respective headmasters and peers as good teachers before their classes were observed

- ii. they kindly consented to participate in this study (see Appendix B)
- iii. they agreed to their lessons being videorecorded, which is a frequent obstacle in ethnographic studies

In order to control affective variables such as the 'observer's paradox', the researcher decided to conceal the real purpose of the study from the participating teachers. Therefore, teachers were unaware of the research focus. They only knew that the researcher was interested in recording classroom interaction. Since the study was meant to be purely observational and descriptive, there was no control over the way the teachers conducted their classes. Significantly, teachers continued with their regular classroom activities while video recordings were being made.

6.4.2 Students

The schools involved in this study chiefly receive learners with international experiences and/or backgrounds, as mentioned above. The students participating in it include:

- i. 118 learners of English with different levels of proficiency studying at the A School
- ii. 38 learners of Spanish as a L3 studying at the B School

A survey of biographical information and the daily instrumental language use of the students was conducted. Table 6.9 shows their profiles. The ages of the learners range from five to fourteen years. Their nationalities were varied, though the majority of them were Senegalese. The other learner participants belong to expatriate families working for international organisations. For this reason, their stays in the country are temporary in most cases. Consequently, the number of enrolments fluctuates each academic year. Fortunately, however, during the data collection period of the study the subjects' drop-out rate was very low.

The table also shows that 5% of the learners speak one or several languages other than French or English at home on a regular basis. The language backgrounds include French, Wolof (the most widely spoken Senegalese language), English, German, Japanese, Italian, Portuguese, Indonesian, Thai and Arabic. We can see that a wide

range of ethnic groups is represented (see Appendix C). Due to the professional status of their parents, a good number of the learners had had the opportunity of staying or living in English-speaking foreign countries. Therefore, contact with foreign languages and cultures is natural to most students. Three points are worthy of note. Firstly, many Senegalese subjects who have a good command of English belong to the Senegalese elite families. Secondly, for the majority of learners French is not their native language¹³⁶. As we can observe in the table, most Senegalese students speak Wolof at home (60%) or with a good number of their peers. Thirdly, in Senegal, it is frequently forbidden to speak a language other than French at school and university.

Curiously, some teachers in the A School stated that many Senegalese students had considerable difficulties with French. For those learners, it was like a foreign language, despite it being the official language in Senegal. This situation is evidenced in daily life as many Senegalese people are unable to speak or write in French confidently.

Table 6.9 Profiles of participating students in the study

PROFILES OF PARTICIPATING STUDENTS								
SCHOOL	Ss Ages	L1	%	L2	%	L3	%	N of Ss
A	5-10 yrs.	Wolof	60 %	French	56 %	Spanish	1%	118
		French	20 %	English	4%			
		English	10 %					
		German	2,5 %					
		Portuguese	2 %					
		Italian	2 %					
		Arabic	1 %					
Other (Diola, Japanese, Thai, Indonesian)	1,5 %							
B	13-14 yrs.	Wolof	50 %	English	13%	Italian	1%	38
		French	31%					
		English	15%	French	65%			
		German	2.5%	Diola	1%	Arabic	2%	
		Arabic	1%					
		Korean	0.5%					

Abbreviations: yrs.: years Ss: Students L : language; N: number

¹³⁶ As mentioned, French is the official language of Senegal. However, we find that it is not the vehicular language for most natives.

6.5 DATA

This section details the data analysis procedures employed in the present study. The main purpose of the analysis is to examine the teachers' reactions to learners' productions and the students' responses to them. In this study, the data supplied for analysis consists of:

- i. video snapshots of TREs
- ii. field notes of observations
- iii. questionnaires
- iv. interviews

Specifically, the analysis primarily draws on a corpus containing transcripts of video recordings from natural FL classroom interaction - in total 26 hrs 30 min of recording. Analysis of teachers' reactions to foreign language learner output was conducted for three types of immersion settings:

- 1) Intermediate English FL classrooms
- 2) Advanced English immersion classrooms
- 3) Spanish as a FL

In the classroom oral corpus of data, videoed Teacher Reactions Episodes were identified and transcribed. In the transcripts, we looked for excerpts that illustrated the phenomena formulated in the research questions. In order to shed light on the nature of TREs, we adopted some principles of Conversation Analysis in our approach to the analysis of videoed data. The analysis is based on a corpus-driven approach. Nevertheless, Conversation Analysis can be problematic methodologically since a well-defined analytical classification system does not exist in this approach.

The TREs identified in transcripts were analysed in terms of the language acquisition facilitative features that some current SLA theories assume in different types of feedback (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Swain 1995).

In line with hybrid methodology, similarities and dissimilarities among the compiled database of TREs were also examined qualitatively (Stivers, 2004). Questionnaires

and interview analysis provided the means to elucidate some aspects of the three research questions thus allowing for triangulation of data.

6.5.1 The classroom oral data: verbal and non-verbal components

Classroom observations and data collection lasted a full school year but took place in various stages. In fact, this process covered a period of five months - between the end of October 2002 and the end of June 2003. These sessions depended on holidays, extra-curricular activities, the researcher's free time and teachers' absence through illness. Table 6.10 displays the agenda information of the observational sessions and recordings.

The full data set consists of 70 observed and videotaped lessons containing the classroom interactions of 3 teachers with their students. Five lessons for each type of classroom group level were examined (for further details, see Tables 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7).

Table 6.10 *The recordings*

THE RECORDINGS			
Classroom settings	Number of classroom observational sessions	Number and types of classroom Lessons	Dates
T1	30	5 lessons of each English Intermediate classroom (2 CLIL)	October-November 2002 March 2003 June 2003
T2	30	5 lessons, each of English Advanced English classroom (2 CLIL)	November 2002 March 2003 June 2003
T3	10	5 lessons of Spanish as a Foreign Language	October 2002 March 2003 June 2003
	Total	70 lessons	

Abbreviations: CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

6.5.2 Data collection procedures

This section presents the observation and data collection procedures in detail. The researcher was present as a non-participant observer during the naturally occurring lessons, collecting data and video recording them.

The study employed four modes of data collection instruments conventionally adopted in quantitative and qualitative SLA ethnographic research:

- 1) video recordings
- 2) field notes
- 3) learner and teacher questionnaires
- 4) teacher interviews

This configuration of data collection sought to detect links between various aspects of teachers' reactions to foreign language reactions, such as the participants' situations, beliefs and actions.

6.5.2.1 Video recordings: technicalities and corpus

The central issue of this study is how teachers react to foreign language learner output. Therefore, visualising this aspect through video recordings might help to examine better this classroom interaction situation.

In relation to teacher feedback, some studies have reported that non-verbal elements also occur alongside verbal elements in classroom interactive contexts (Capper, 2000; Harris, 2003; Valenzano et al., 2003). Consequently, the audio-format alone was not suitable; it would eliminate from the analysis potentially significant non-verbal information in the data collected (Alibali & Nathan, 2007; Amit, 2000; Goldman-Segall, 2004; Vicente-Rasoamalala, 2006; Zanón et al., 1992). Examples of non-verbal elements are words written on the blackboard and teacher gestures acting as feedback for foreign language learners. For this reason, video recordings appear to be the best means for capturing the whole phenomenon.

The videoed corpus of this study totalled approximately 26 hours and 30 minutes of classroom conversational interactions. The recorded talk was 'naturally occurring' and not elicited (i.e., not arranged for research purposes). Only the lesson parts in which the teachers' and students' oral interactions took place were videoed. In order to analyse comprehensively the interactional TREs (Teacher Reaction Episodes) we included:

- i. the learner error
- ii. the teacher reaction
- iii. the learner response (if applicable)

Example 6.1

S1: Después limpie bien [the learner error]

T3: Después de ↑ [the teacher reaction]

S1: Limpiar [the learner response]

Concerning data collection technical details, the recordings were made in stereo with a MV 300 Canon digital camcorder. The camera was strategically mounted on a tripod about two metres from the participants in order to best capture the classroom interactions.

The spatial setting was a key factor in facilitating the examination of how TREs took place. For this reason, the researcher usually recorded the lesson from the back or from one side of the classroom. The camera was placed to depict primarily student and teacher interaction and the blackboard¹³⁷. Nevertheless, the position also depended on the lighting conditions in the classrooms. Clear visibility of the learners and the teachers was a priority at all times.

In some cases, the researcher used the zoom feature only for focusing on blackboard writing. After filming, the videotapes were digitised and processed on a computer using *Magix Software* and *AVD Video Processor* programmes. These steps made it possible to produce screenshots in order to discriminate TREs (Teacher Reaction Episodes) and facilitate data segmentation.

Collecting and working with videorecorded data was a laborious task. For example, in the year 2003, cutting clips and editing movies of 30 minutes in MPEG and AVI formats took several hours. However, thanks to the technological progress of the last couple of years the newest versions of video editing software programmes and PC processors have accelerated the editing process. Despite the demanding editing work, videoed material appears to capture more accurately the face-to-face nature of classroom interaction (comprising teachers' reactions), which in descriptive terms is more complex than audio-recorded classroom exchanges.

¹³⁷ The use of the blackboard is one of the common instruments of mediation in classroom learning contexts (Butzkamm, 2003).

6.5.2.2 Note-taking sheet

Additional sources of documentation are field notes taken while observing the participants in the classrooms under study. Their aim was to supplement the data captured from recordings in real time and *in situ* as ethnographic studies do.

It was anticipated that technical problems might arise with the camera on some occasions and some phenomena might not be well captured by it. For this purpose, before starting the study, the researcher produced a formatted note-taking sheet that was enclosed in a mini-notebook. In this way, she could write things in a more discreet way during and after the classroom observations (see Appendix D).

6.5.2.3 Questionnaires and interviews

In order to obtain a more global insight into teacher reaction practices, questionnaires were used to survey teachers' and students' views and beliefs on behaviours in FL classrooms (see Appendix E). As complementary sources of data, short semi-structured interviews were conducted with the teachers. The interviews served to discover teachers' opinions and experiences relating to the subject of the present study.

6.5.2.3.1 The learners' questionnaires

Learners' views were taken into account since the learners were the social actors, who generated FL output, to whom teachers reacted. A questionnaire was employed to obtain learners' background information about their mother tongue, the foreign languages they spoke and their perceptions of teacher feedback.

The list of questions was not supplied to all learners participating in this study. It was only delivered on the last day of classroom observations to the secondary school students. It was assumed that the learners at the primary school were too young. Furthermore, the younger students that could read and write, might, nevertheless, have difficulties in interpreting the questions and completing the questionnaire. To overcome this problem, the teachers and tutors of the A School provided the biographical information of the student groups.

The questionnaire distributed to learners at School B and written in English consisted of five parts:

- i. **Part A** asked for student background information such as their mother tongue, the languages they speak, the number of FL learning years, the hours of study, opinions, practices and the level of interest in learning the FL.
- ii. **Part B** consisted of 18 Likert-scale statements relating to teachers' provision of negative feedback and to which learners were asked to respond by indicating their degree of agreement.
- iii. **Part C** presented 6 Likert-scale statements referring to descriptions of some aspects of classroom behaviour. Students were asked to indicate how frequently certain phenomena were observed, from 1= *never* to 6= *always*.
- iv. **Part D** asked learners to rank the importance of different aspects regarding grammar, vocabulary, spelling and discourse in the FL.
- v. **Part E** had a space in which to write three points that students liked about learning the FL and three points that that they disliked.

Most items of the questionnaire were presented in a Likert-scale and had a closed-end format. However, in the final part, there was some space left for students to express what they liked or disliked while learning the foreign language (Spanish as a L3) (see Appendix E for the questionnaires).

6.5.2.3.2 The teachers' questionnaires

At the end of the study's observation and data collection period, the teachers also filled out a short questionnaire that covered questions about:

- 1) their attitudes toward FL teaching
- 2) their didactic goals
- 3) their perceptions of their role as teachers
- 4) their beliefs on correction

- 5) their views regarding their exchanges with students
- 6) the uses of the FL and the L1 in language classrooms

6.5.2.3.3 The teachers' interviews

The researcher regularly conducted informal mini-interviews with the teachers before and after lessons. In these interviews, the participating instructors expressed their beliefs about FL and immersion education. Furthermore, the teachers and the researcher watched the recordings together. During these sessions, teachers' comments about their classroom practices were encouraged.

In addition, the researcher formulated open-ended questions with prompts and probes especially designed to examine further aspects regarding TREs. This type of format made it possible to ask additional pertinent questions. The topics discussed mainly covered teachers' beliefs, perceptions and criteria on their reactions to foreign language learner output.

6.6 UNITS OF ANALYSIS AND CODING

This section presents the basic unit of analysis and the coding categories for the study. Data coding was developed at various stages from pre-defined categories adopted from previous studies and from observations during the present study.

Initially, reflective work on the objectives produced a start list of codes for the analysis. The main categories of TREs are reformulations of:

- i. Chaudron's Error Corrective Model (1977, 1988)
- ii. Vicente-Rasoamalala's pilot study on "Teachers' Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output" (1998)
- iii. Lyster's works on teacher interactional feedback (1998a, 2004, 2007b)

The units of analysis and categories of "Teachers' Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output" were refined and reformulated progressively. This categorisation was done according to existing studies relating to SLA classroom interaction and the provisional outcomes of the present study. Additionally, we prioritised a deeper

examination of teachers' reactions in the form of 'negative feedback' as a potential facilitator of language acquisition, as was discussed in Chapter 5.

The subsequent sections present the descriptions and examples of the units of analysis and the categories concerning Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs) taken from the corpus and organised around the research questions of the study.

6.6.1 Units of analysis

The main unit of analysis in the study is the Teacher Reaction Episode (TRE) consisting of a prototypical three-part basic sequence¹³⁸:

1. FL Student Initial Turn → 2. FL Teacher Reaction → 3. FL Student Response

Example 6.2

S1: Oh, I have a nose ache. (FL Student Initial Turn)
T2: No. No. [negation with head moving] My nose hurts. [other noises and voices]
My nose hurts. (FL Teacher Reaction)
Ss: My nose hurts. (FL Response)

This triadic TRE (Teacher Reaction Episode) sequence coincides with the traditional IRF classroom exchange structure (Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; see Chapters 1 and 3). Nevertheless, the notion of "reaction" includes the teachers' actions that are contingent to what a student has previously done regarding a FL production, irrespective of the teacher feedback provision and possible 'learner uptake' in Lyster's sense (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; see Chapter 4).

Over the last decade, Lyster's categories have widely been accepted in this research area for the analysis of feedback (Lyster & Ranta, op.cit.). However, taking into account the data extracted from our videoed corpus, we expand his basic sequence of provision of implicit negative teacher feedback forms into: i) learner error, ii) teacher feedback and iii) potential learner uptake. In the present study, the sequences comprising the whole process of teachers' reactions have been categorised as 'episodes'.

We should clarify that we dismissed from the analysis:

¹³⁸ The instances in which the learner immediately self-corrected an error without the help of the teacher were not taken into account.

- i. the episodes of teachers' actions involving native English-speaking learners' output
- ii. the students' turns which entailed teacher non-corrective reactions to learners' products as in Lyster and Ranta's study (1997)

For coding and analytical purposes, teacher and student utterances are considered as adjacent pairs in this study. Firstly, we take 'the utterance' (i.e., a unit of meaning bounded by a pause) as the basis for video data segmentation (Pica & Washburn, 2003). The main reason for this is that learners' and teachers' utterances are considered to be the basic parts that construct the turns of Teacher Reaction Episodes.

In cases where more than one utterance occurred, each utterance was separately coded. This categorisation was necessary to determine how the participants allocated turns. In particular, the focus was on how teachers provided feedback in their turns as ways of supporting and encouraging both learners' use of the FL and classroom participation in joint learning processes.

Through an extensive examination of the data compiled we sought to determine the Basic Teacher Reaction Episode. This smallest exchange type consists of the first two initial turns. Therefore, the boundaries of this sequence unit correspond to 'a minimal exchange of information'¹³⁹.

1. FL Student Initial Turn → 2. Teacher Reaction Turn → 3. [FL Student Response]

Example 6.3

S1: We can ride our **b/i/ke** in the park. (FL Student Initial Turn)
T1: We can ride our bike in the park. (FL Teacher Reaction)
 (No FL Response)

This basic sequence that takes into account adjacent pairs illustrates one regular aspect of TREs conversational turns in FL classroom interaction.

In order to delimit the episodes' sequences of video data, the researcher viewed the recordings numerous times in order to verify that:

¹³⁹ 'Minimal exchange' is an interactive situation in which a piece of information provided by one or several speakers is complete.

- i. all teacher reactions episodes had been identified
- ii. the beginnings and the endings of the TREs had been rightly marked
- iii. each TREs had been properly transcribed

Overall, the notion of TRE appears not solely limited to the “teacher treatment of error in FL learners’ productions”. Analysis of the videorecorded classroom interactions (which forms the corpus of data) suggests that, in general, Teacher Reaction Episodes usually begin with a learner production that might consist of:

- i. oral utterance that may be correct or deviant in form or/and content
- ii. non-verbal response communicating an intended message in the target language
- iii. silent response to teacher’s previous questioning

The end point of a sequence takes place after one of the following three conditions:

- i. the teacher ignores the utterance
- ii. the teacher offers a written and/or oral feedback response with the possibility of student repair or some type of learner uptake
- iii. another student provides feedback encouraged by the teacher

The last segment of TREs might cover the resultant moves on the part of the following participants:

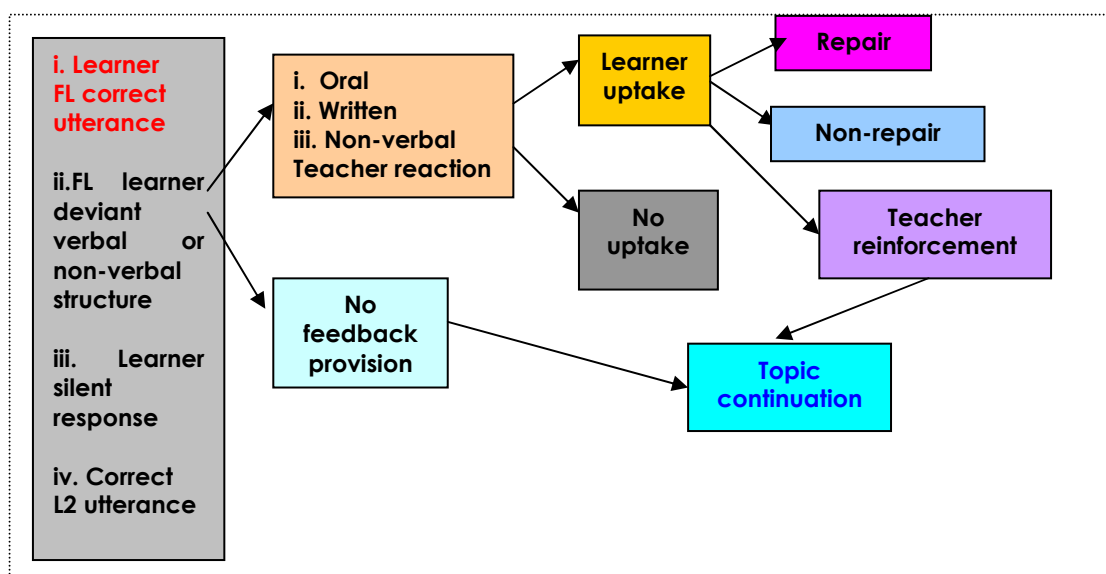
- 1) the learner
- 2) other(-s) learner(-s)
- 3) the teacher

Nevertheless, one significant feature of TREs in this study concerns the non-verbal elements and learner silent responses accompanying teachers’ reactions. Such non-verbal elements have not been fully considered in previous classroom teacher feedback studies (Poyatos, 1994). Among those non-verbal elements (see Chapters 3 and 4), we find:

- i. **'non-verbal cues'** (such as the 'nod', 'implicit negation', 'implicit repeat' and 'implicit transfer')
- ii. **'non-verbal actions'** reinforcing reactions such as 'embodied actions' (e.g., gestures) and 'material actions' (e.g., writing on the blackboard¹⁴⁰)

In this study of TREs, paralinguistic speech signals including hesitations are also taken into account in the analyses. Moreover, the non-verbal elements taking place during the interaction such as gestures or tools of education mediation in socio-cultural terms (such as the use of the blackboard) were noted and categorised. The flowchart in Figure 6.1 summarises the potential series of options that constitute complex teachers' reactions to FL learner output.

Fig. 6.1 Flow chart of the Teacher Reactive Episodes



We put in red the learner initial turn involving a correct utterance in the FL and which we omit from the data analysis of the present study.

The Basic Reactive Episode can be interpreted as containing the following potential moves in conversation analysis terms (see Table 6.11).

¹⁴⁰ Within this group, the most significant non-verbal element appears to be the use of the blackboard.

Table 6.11 *Teacher Reaction Episode Moves*

TEACHER REACTION EPISODE MOVES		
STAGE	CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
1.	FL Student Initial Turn	First learner turn involving a L2 production a) with or b) without errors triggering a teacher reaction
2.	Teacher Reaction Turn	Teacher turn a) providing feedback in reaction to L2 learner output in relation to its form or its content b) continuing conversation negotiating for repair
3.	FL Student Response Turn	Second learner turn a) learner incorporation of the teacher reaction b) continuing conversation

6.6.2 Coding the general characteristics of TREs

Each TRE is coded in terms of the following general characteristics:

1) trigger, 2) complexity and 3) regulation.

1) **TRIGGER**. This descriptor refers to the nature of the deviant learner utterance.

The problem might lie in:

- i. **Content**¹⁴¹: One participant might fail to understand something said by another participant through conversational interaction. This aspect is linked to 'negotiation of meaning' issues.

Example 6.4

S1: →I am at school **all the day**.

T1: What do you mean all day or everyday?

- ii. **Form**: This refers to didactic interaction episodes involving 'negotiation of target language forms'.

Example 6.5

S1: →**Son bolivia**.

T3: Son↑

S1: →**Bulivianos**.

¹⁴¹ These two references of 'trigger' occur during i. interactional discourses (i.e., concerning the creation, maintenance and extension of personal and social relations) and ii. transactional discourses (i.e., relating to the exchange of some form of good, service or information), respectively (McCarthy, 1996: 136-7).

T3: Son bolivianos.

2) **COMPLEXITY**¹⁴². This refers to whether the TRE is:

- i. 'simple' (i.e., involving a single exchange)
- ii. 'complex' (i.e., involving several exchanges)

'Simple TREs' are usually defined as being short: up to four-turn exchanges. In contrast, 'complex ones' consist of episodes containing more than five-turn exchanges:

Example 6.6

S1: I go to the pool.

T2: Went to the pool.

S1: Went to the pool.

'Complex TREs' often arise when the first attempt at resolving a linguistic problem has failed:

Example 6.7

S1: Ella me dijo que se despierte.

T3: Se [0.3] ¿Por qué se? *Shuuh*[Fr]. [to other two students talking in the classroom]

S1: Porque está ella despierte.

T3: ¿Por qué, Alisha? Explícate. Tu primera idea.

S1: Porque ella dijo que *je me réveille* [Fr].

T3: ¿Quién debe despertar? ¿Hacer la acción?

S1: Ella. Yo.

T3: Cuidado y reflexionemos. Bien. (0.3) ¿Quién debe hacer la acción?

S1: Me, me, me dijo. Yo (0.7) debo despertar.

T3: ¿A quién? Entonces la persona que hace la acción y se despierta son diferentes.

S1: Ella me dijo que la despierte, que le despierte a las cinco.

T3: Bien.

This type of reactions covers those didactic moves in which the teacher:

- i. solicits from the student that originated a previous utterance
- ii. asks another student/s to provide correction

¹⁴² The feature of 'complexity' in teachers' reactions often concerns the length of the TREs.

Complex episodes usually involve 'soliciting teacher reactions' as Vicente-Rasoamalala's (1998) study reported. (For more definitions and examples, see Chapter 4).

- 3) **REGULATION.** This notion refers to the extent to which teachers' reactions supply learners with different degrees of helpful feedback.

In Neo-Vygotskian terms, the teacher might intervene in learner output to different degrees. Some authors have provided a list of levels of teacher regulation or help in a classroom context (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994).

As we stated in Chapter 2, the Vygotskian concepts of 'other-regulation' and 'self-regulation' are progressively being applied in SLA research. In this study, we attempt to interpret data adopting a socio-cultural theoretical background. In this understanding, analysing the levels of regulated help directed at learners, one might assess their potential effects in FL language learning.

Regarding the potential benefits of teacher help, recent SLA studies refer to teacher feedback facilitative forms. These notions are similar to the Neo-Vygotskian regulatory functions. The difference is that in SLA, the treatment of the problem source (involving a linguistic or non-linguistic feedback) is primarily coded as either:

- i. **'explicit'**, referring to the direct teacher treatment of the learner utterance dealing with the problem
- ii. **'implicit'**, relating to the indirect teacher treatment of the learner utterance and concerning various implicit reactions

As noted in Chapter 4, SLA studies classify teachers' reactions in four main groups:

- 1) 'negative feedback'
- 2) 'positive feedback'
- 3) 'explicit feedback'
- 4) 'implicit feedback'

This study focuses on 'explicit' and implicit negative teacher feedback for the analysis. Given the situation that some episodes end with positive teachers' reactions (or positive feedback) we include this category in the analysis of TREs if it occurs.

6.6.3 RQ1 categories

Research Question 1 involves the categorisation of the features and components that might occur in TREs turns.

6.6.3.1 FL student initial turn

Student initial turns are identified in the data as either containing errors or without errors. In the present study, we only carry out a deep analysis of learners' productions containing FL deviant forms. If a turn is assessed as incorrect, the linguistic source nature of the error has been mentioned. Nevertheless, content errors which are grammatically correct have not been taken into account for the analyses.

The following table shows a sub-classification of FL Student Initial Turns.

Table 6.12 *Subclassification of FL Student Initial Turns*

SUB-CLASSIFICATION OF FL STUDENT INITIAL TURNS		
CRITERIA	CATEGORIES	DESCRIPTIONS
a) Correction	i) correct ii) incorrect iii) incomplete ¹⁴³	Teachers might rate learners turns as the categories exposed.
b) Source	i) morphosyntactical error ii) lexical error iii) phonological error iv) content error iv) code-switching ¹⁴⁴ v) silent response	Teachers' reactions might focus on specific L2 features of a learner production.
c) Typology	i) unique error ii) multiple errors	Teachers' might act upon a unique learner error or multiple ones.

The notion of 'linguistic focus' refers to the nature of the ill-constructed linguistic form addressed by the teacher during a TRE. In particular, it deals with aspects of the target

¹⁴³ An incomplete utterance may include 'ellipsis', 'a self/other interrupted learner attempt' or a learner's silent response to the teacher's questioning.

¹⁴⁴ 'Code-switching' (i.e., productions that had instances of the L1 were also considered as errors).

language: grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. This conception is connected in some way to the 'topic' (i.e., the message content of the speech event). However, in this case it refers to the nature of the learner output trigger. We contemplate the linguistic foci as triggers of TRE in the present study. The main reason for this is to determine whether:

- i. there might be any relationship between the choice of one TR and the foci
- ii. a given choice of some teachers' reactions might be more effective than others acting upon some problematic foci

The five linguistic foci are listed in the following table:

Table 6.13 *Linguistic foci*

LINGUISTIC FOCI	DESCRIPTIONS	
Lexical	Incorrect use of words	
	Example 6.8	
	S: Teacher, he → has sick.	
Content	Problems of meaning	
	Example 6.9	
	S: The valley is blue .	
Phonological	Wrong pronunciation	
	Example 6.10	
	S: /a/p posite .	
Morphosyntactical	Problematic aspects in:	
	i) clause formation and inflection	
	Example 6.11	S: Gloria ha partido → en Inglesia .
	ii) clause structures	
	Example 6.12	S: →I've got eyes is black.
iii) word order		
Example 6.13	S: I know → what is it .	
L1	Unsolicited use of the L1	
	Example 6.14	
	S: → Parce que she is malade (0.2) /maleide/.	

These types of foci also include non-native or substandard uses of the foreign languages reacted to by teachers. For instance, lexically imprecise or socio-linguistically inappropriate FL forms. These types of learner productions are considered to be language learner errors. Furthermore, 'teacher reactions' might often be triggered by multiple L2 learner deviant structures of various types. That is, ill-formed utterances may contain errors pertaining to more than one of the aforementioned linguistic foci. When this occurs in a student turn (e.g., phonological + L1), the trigger is coded as 'multiple foci'.

6.6.3.2 Teacher reaction turn

The notion of 'teacher reaction turn' is coded in relation to the FL learner's preceding utterance as:

- i. providing negative feedback (in reaction to learner error) focusing on form or on content
- ii. continuing conversation through 'negotiation'¹⁴⁵

The types of teachers' reactions to foreign language learner output might be either 'simple' or 'complex'. The types of feedback which are presented in this study are not mutually exclusive.

Chaudron (1977) classified some forms of teachers' corrective reactions as 'features'¹⁴⁶. However, in the present study 'features' are conceived as the general descriptors of 'teacher reaction episodes' (TREs) that might take place after learner output (see Table 6.14).

In particular, the notion of 'features' is reformulated covering:

- i. teachers' incorporations of student's utterances refers to implicit or explicit reactions to FL learner output or productions
- ii. teachers' non-incorporations of students' utterances or Disregard Teacher Reactive Episodes (DTREs)

¹⁴⁵ Teacher reactions functioning as topic negotiation strategies are coded as 'negotiation of meaning' (Ellis et al., 1994). These reactions typically include metalinguistic comment, questions, repetitions and expansions. Nevertheless, sometimes repetitions and expansions work only as 'topic continuation'.

¹⁴⁶ Chaudron (1977) subdivided the categories of his model as 'types' and 'features'. 'Types' were those teacher strategies that existed independently of the context. In contrast, 'features' depended on the context. However, some structures were both feature and type.

Table 6.14 Types of teachers' incorporations of students' utterances

TYPES OF INCORPORATIONS	
TYPE A. NON-INCORPORATIONS OF STUDENTS' UTTERANCES (DTRES) ¹⁴⁷	
A1. Ignore ¹⁴⁸	DEFINITION
Example 6.15	<i>"The teacher ignores the student's utterance, goes on to another topic and/or shows acceptance of content even if there is an error."</i>
T2: Who is going to Thiès? S1: I doesn't have to go. S2: I am a Tidiane but I don't have to go. S3: Yes, me aussi I am a Tidiane.	
A2. Exit	DEFINITION
Example 6.16	<i>"At any stage in the exchange the teacher may drop correction of the error."</i>
S1: I did want. T1: No. Think about it. S2: It is time. T1: →OK. <i>La prochaine fois je reviendrai pourquoi j'ai dit no</i> [Fr].	
TYPE B. INCORPORATIONS OF STUDENTS' UTTERANCES (TRES)	
B1. Acceptance	DEFINITION
Example 6.17	<i>"The teacher simply approves or accepts student's utterance but, in some cases, he or she may immediately correct a learner error."</i>
S1: Our br/ai/dge. T1: →OK. Our bridge.	
B2. Interruption	DEFINITION
Example 6.18	<i>"The teacher interrupts the student's utterance following the error or before the student has completed the utterance."</i>
S1: Forty. T1: →Stop. Is it forty or fourteen?	
B3. Delay	DEFINITION
Example 6.19	<i>"The teacher waits for the student to complete the utterance before providing feedback."</i>
S1: I have two tooth. T2: →You have two teeth.	

(For more examples and definitions see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.4)

6.6.3.3 FL student response

FL student responses are either coded as an 'incorporation of the negative feedback' (specifically, the recast form) or as 'a continuation of the conversation'.

The 'continuation of the conversation' can be achieved in a variety of ways:

- i. as an answer to a question (Yes or No questions)
- ii. as the use of a negotiation strategy
- iii. as the repetition of either self or other (excluding incorporation of a 'recast')

¹⁴⁷ DTRE stands for Disregard Teacher Reaction Episode.

¹⁴⁸ This category has been referred to as "Ignore error" by Oliver (1995, 2000).

6.6.3.4 Explicit linguistic feedback

'Explicit linguistic feedback' is the assessment that the teacher provides directly. In particular, this type of feedback can be delivered by the following moves:

- i. **'Explicit positive feedback'**: teacher strategy that is used to indicate the correctness of FL learners' utterances (Chaudron, 1988; Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998).
- ii. **'Explicit negative feedback'**: feedback that explicitly provides the correct form of a FL learner mistake.

Previous studies on teachers' feedback have focused almost exclusively on 'explicit negative feedback' because this TR form has traditionally been the main strategy for error correction. In contrast, 'explicit positive feedback' has been only marginally taken into account. In the present study the latter form, discussed below, is not statistically analysed.

1) EXPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK

Explicit signs of approval are based on Lyster's (1998a) categories. This author refers to them as 'feedback provided after learner repair'. Instead of using Lyster's 'repetition of student's repair', we adopt the term 'repetition'. This notion covers the 'non-corrective repetitions' distinguished by Lyster (op.cit.). The following table presents the sub-categories of 'explicit positive feedback' referred to in this study:

Table 6.15 *Types of Explicit Positive Feedback*

TYPES OF EXPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK	DEFINITIONS
1. Positive Statement	Teacher's approval of a learner's correct utterance that includes 'acknowledgments' and 'praise markers'.
Example 6.20	
S: I go to school. [low voice] T: →Yes.	
2. Non-corrective Repetition	Echo after learner's correct responses to reinforce them and confirm correctness.
2.1 Isolated Declarative Repetition	
Example 6.21	
S: Susan wants to ride her bike in the park. T: →Susan wants to ride her bike in the park.	Exact repetition.

2.2 Incorporated Declarative Repetition¹⁴⁹	Incorporation of the whole or part of the learner's utterance into a longer statement to provide additional information.
Example 6.22	
T: What is she doing? S: She is riding a horse. T: → She is riding a horse. Yes.	

2) EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK

The following table shows the different types of 'explicit negative feedback':

Table 6.16 *Types of Explicit Negative Feedback*

TYPES OF EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	DEFINITIONS
1. Provide	Explicit provision of the correct form.
Example 6.23	
S: Oh, I have a nose ache. T: → No. No. [negation with head moving] My nose hurts. [other noises and voices] My nose hurts. Ss: My nose hurts.	
2. Adjustment	Alteration of part of the student's utterance to achieve accuracy or to make it more complete ¹⁵⁰ .
Example 6.24	
S: I brush my tooth. T: → My teeth.	
3. Explanation	Explicit provision of information concerning the cause or type of learner error.
Example 6.25	
S: This are r/ei/ding. T: → This is reading. Reading ce n'est pas [Fr] is c'est [Fr] are.	

6.6.3.5 Implicit linguistic feedback

'Implicit linguistic feedback' is that feedback which invites students to correct themselves verbally. This category is subdivided into:

- i. **'Implicit positive feedback'**: the teacher implicitly confirms the correctness of learner utterance but asks for reconfirmation from the learner.
- ii. **'Implicit negative feedback'**: the teacher feedback encourages students to self-correct.

¹⁴⁹ This form is also called 'expansion' (Chaudron, 1977, 1988).

¹⁵⁰ 'Adjustment' is an equivalent term to Lyster's 'isolated declarative recast'.

1) IMPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK

Two types of non-corrective repetitions can perform this kind of feedback, as shown in the following table:

Table 6.17 *Types of Implicit Positive Feedback*

TYPES OF IMPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK	DEFINITIONS
1. Isolated Interrogative Repetition	Exact repetition of all or part of the learner's utterance in a rising tone with no additional meaning, seeking learner confirmation of the utterance.
Example 6.26	
S: And watch TV. T: → And watch TV ↑ Very good.	
2. Incorporated Interrogative Repetition	Incorporation of the learner's utterance in a question by which the teacher looks for additional information.
Example 6.27	
S: I like playing football T: Good. Oh, I see. (0.3) → Do you like playing football?	

2) IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK

'Implicit negative linguistic feedback' can be implemented by the following implicit teacher moves, reformulated from Lyster and Ranta (1997):

Table 6.18 *Types of Implicit Negative Feedback*

TYPES OF IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	DEFINITIONS
1. Recast or Reformulation	Target-like way of saying something that was previously formulated in a non target-like way.
Example 6.28	
S: C/u/t, c/u/t. Open↑ the tomato. T: → You cut the tomato into slices. [writing on the blackboard]	Reformulation of the learner's wrong utterance minus the error with a rising intonation to seek learner confirmation.
1.1 Isolated Interrogative Recast	
Example 6.29	
S: I went. T: → I went to ↑	Incorporation of the correct reformulation in a comment reacting to the content of the learner's utterance.
1.2 Incorporated Declarative Recast	
Example 6.30	Additional information sought by the teacher incorporating the correct reformulation of all or part of a learner's utterance into a question.
S: /a/pposite. T: → Opposite. It means the same as in front of.	
1.3 Incorporated Interrogative Recast	
Example 6.31	
S: Put tomato. T: → Put some tomato?	
S: [silent response]	
T: Put some tomato on the bread.	

2. Clarification Request	Teacher's request for further information from the learner to show that something is wrong in his or her utterance, thus encouraging learner self-repair.
Example 6.32 S: I go to school. T: →Mmm?	
3. Repetition	Teacher's repetition isolating the learner's erroneous utterance to indicate the error.
Example 6.33 S: I go School <i>Bilingue</i> [Fr]. T: →I go↑ School <i>Bilingue</i> [Fr].	
4. Metalinguistic Feedback	Questions or information related to the learner's incorrect utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.
4.1 Comment¹⁵¹	
Example 6.34 S: I doesn't have. Don't have. T: →You cannot say doesn't have, don't have.	Fact or problem related to the learner's previous utterance is signalled without explicit negative feedback.
4.2 Implicit Information	
Example 6.35 S: Está está partido↑ (0.3) a inglés. T: Mira →¿Cómo se forma el participio? (0.2) los tiempos en pasado.	Use of a linguistic expression or items that might help students to remember facts or linguistic rules so as to self-repair.
4.3 Metalinguistic Question	
Example 6.36 S: Dad drink cola. T: You said dad drink. [writing on the BB] →Where is the mistake here?	Teacher question relating to the nature of the error with an attempt to elicit the information from the student.
5. Elicitation	
5.1 Elicit Completion	Eliciting completion of a learner's utterance by strategically pausing the teacher's utterance to allow for self-repair as if the learner were to fill in the blank.
Example 6.37 S: I went. T: →I went↑	
5.2 Elicitation Question	Questions used to elicit correct forms from the students.
Example 6.38 S: I did. T: →I did, what?	
5.3 Repeat	Teacher's request for the student to repeat the utterance/s with intent to learner self-repair.
Example 6.39 S2: Rusos. Rusosos. T3: →Repite bien.	

6.6.3.6 Non-verbal elements in teachers' reactions

As stated in Chapter 4, the verbal and the non-verbal elements may be complementary in face-to-face communication (Argyle, 1975; McNeill, 1992). These non-verbal elements might play essential roles in foreign language classroom communication

¹⁵¹ 'Comment' is a category generated by the researcher.

(Gullberg, 2006a, 2006b; Gullberg & McCafferty, 2008). The illustrative study of the present dissertation examines the non-verbal elements involved in TRES.

The episodes including non-verbal actions during interactions were divided into two groups of actions (Olsher, 2004: 223):

- i. **'embodied action'** (i.e., involving body movements)
- ii. **'material action'** (i.e., including visual materials)

Fig. 6.2 *Embodied action*



Fig. 6.3 *Material action*



In this section, we present the two specific types of non-verbal elements that will be taken into account in the analysis of TRES:

- i. 'teachers' non-verbal cues'
- ii. 'non-verbal elements reinforcing teachers' reactions'

1) **TEACHERS' NON-VERBAL CUES**

As demonstrated by Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998), there are two general types of teachers' non-verbal cues relating to TRES:

- i. **'Non-verbal transfer'**: soliciting a reaction in which the teacher directs eyes or makes a gesture towards another student for other error-correction.
- ii. **'Implicit non-verbal feedback'**: non-linguistic feedback that invites students to self-correct.

In particular, we will focus on the types of non-verbal feedback shown in Table 6.19, i.e., those which are closely related to the subject of the present study.

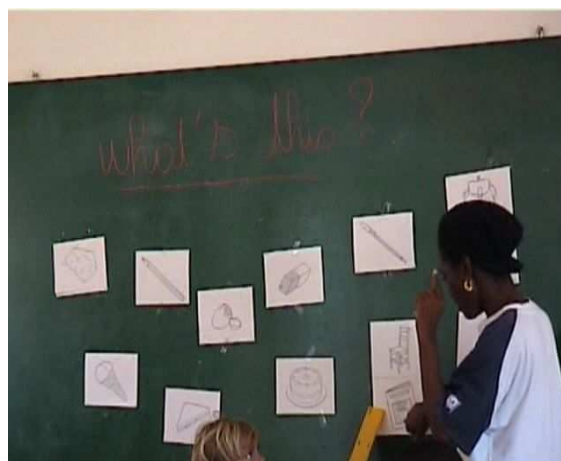
Table 6.19 *Types of non-verbal feedback*

TYPES OF NON-VERBAL FEEDBACK	DESCRIPTIONS
Positive nod	The teacher moves his or her head up and down to show approval of the student's utterance.
Explicit negation	The teacher moves his or her head, wags a finger or utters sounds to reject part or all of the student's utterance.
Implicit repeat	The teacher implicitly requests the student to repeat the utterance/s by means of gestures and sounds, in order to induce the student to self-repair.

Fig. 6.4 *Implicit repeat*



Fig. 6.5 *Explicit negation*



2) NON-VERBAL ELEMENTS REINFORCING TEACHERS' REACTIONS

'Non-verbal elements reinforcing teachers' reactions to output' might mediate in teaching. It appears that two types of elements are salient in the classroom (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998, 2005a, 2005b, 2006):

- i. writing on blackboard
- ii. gestures

Table 6.20 *Non-verbal elements reinforcing teachers' reactions*

NON-VERBAL ELEMENTS REINFORCING REACTIONS	DESCRIPTIONS
Writing on blackboard	This tool might reinforce the 'provide', the 'repetition' and the 'adjustment' reactions of teachers.
Gestures	Teachers' gestures might help students to illustrate explanations.

We assume that the behaviours generated in this study cannot be considered as regular or the norm; non-verbal communication behaviours do not appear to have universal meanings (Salzman, 2001; see Chapter 3, Section 3.2). They may convey different meanings in different cultures¹⁵². Additionally, some non-verbal actions might be associated specifically with the cultural background of the participants (Kitao & Kitao, 1987). For this reason, in studies dealing with non-verbal actions, we should not universalise the results. Consequently, the outcomes of the present study (conducted in Senegal and also involving teachers of different nationalities) cannot be generalised since it is a case study.

6.6.3.7 The use of the L1: 'code-switching'

'Teacher linguistic reactions to foreign language learner output' might contain L1 utterances or instances of 'code-switching' (Arnfast & Jørgensen, 2003; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005; Macaro, 2001; Martin-Jones, 2000; Mattsson & Burenhult-Mattsson, 1999; Moore, 2002; Rolin-lanziti & Bronlie, 2002). Some authors call it 'alternation' (Castellotti, 2000; Causa, 1996, 1997; Coste, 1997; Nussbaum, 1994).

The types of 'code-switching' examined in this study are shown in Table 6.21 below:

Table 6.21 *Types of Code-switching*

TYPES OF CODE-SWITCHING	DEFINITIONS
Code-switching in metalinguistic comments	Teacher's use of the L1 to explain facts about the FL, such as grammar rules, or socio-linguistic usage of words, etc.
	<p>Example 6.40</p> <p>S: I did (0.3) I did work. T: →You did↑ work? Chippenda? If you say I did work, tu sais qu'est-ce que ça veut dire en français I did work? Tu as fait, tu insistes, tu démontres à parler. Tu insistes, tu es en train de faire une insistance [Fr].</p>

¹⁵² For example, Latin cultures, in general, display more non-verbal behaviours in face to face communication than Anglo-Saxon cultures. Also, the latter cultures make more use of them than the majority of Asian cultures. In some Asian cultures, the extensive use of gestures while talking (in particular, illustrators) is considered very characteristic of people lacking in intelligence. In contrast, their absence in Latin cultures indicates that someone shows indifference to the ongoing conversation. Interestingly, in Japanese culture what the verbal utterance actually says is often not the real message, and the receiver should rely on the facial expressions of his/her interlocutor.

Code-switching for teaching directions	The teacher uses the L1 to make clear his or her directives about foreign language tasks, for example, to make a student repeat an utterance; to ask a student for some 'elaboration', etc.
	Example 6.41
	T: → <i>Alors je reviens, quand vous ne connaissez pas un mot en anglais quelle</i> (0.2) <i>quelle est la question à poser</i> [Fr]?

Most examples occur while the teacher is speaking to provide translation, contrast or exemplification, or is checking for comprehension (Rolin-Ianziti & Bronlie, 2002).

6.6.4 RQ2 categories: uptake and learner self-repair moves

Learners' subsequent responses following teachers' reactions to deviant structures are coded as 'uptake' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) in order to analyse them for further analysis (see Table 6.22).

Table 6.22 *Uptake and success*

UPTAKE TYPES	DESCRIPTIONS
Sign of uptake	When a student correctly repairs a linguistic feature or clearly demonstrates understanding of an item.
	Example 6.42
	S: I was/hed/ music show. T: not wash/ed/. I watched. S: → I watched music show on TV.
Unsuccessful uptake	It takes place when:
	i. There is no attempt to repair.
	Example 6.43
	S: → Tiene fotos. T: Sí, tienen faltas.
	ii. An attempted repair fails.
	Example 6.44
	S: She is malaide. T: She is malaide [laughing] why? S: → She has sick. She has sick.
	iii. Learners clearly fail to demonstrate understanding of the targeted FL feature.
	Example 6.45
S: Here there is a ski building in New York. T: Sky (0.3) Skyscraper. S: → The ski building is big.	

On the assumption that 'uptake' is more likely to facilitate acquisition, some researchers draw a general distinction between 'successful uptake' and 'unsuccessful uptake'. Nevertheless, in this study we reformulate these notions since it is not yet known what is really happening within the learner in cognitive terms.

In the analysis of TREs it is necessary to determine whether instances of 'student uptake' showed that they had actively processed the targeted FL feature. That is, if they seemed to have understood the information provided or to have productively used the linguistic feature highlighted by the teacher.

Obviously, we do not presuppose, for example, that one student's repetition of a teacher feedback form should be seen as proof of successful learner processing. Nevertheless, a student's response showing self-correction might be viewed as a potential external indication of learning¹⁵³.

At the time of writing, what actually happens in learners' minds is still not known (see Chapters 1 and 2). In recent years, a related notion of 'uptake' that has become the object of considerable attention is 'L2 repair'.

Teacher feedback may result in main three types of actions that might involve the correct reformulation of an erroneous student production:

- i. 'self-repair' on the part of the learner
- ii. 'other-repair' by the teacher

In the present study we analyse specific 'learner uptake types' classified by Lyster (1998a, 2001) and enumerated in the following table:

Table 6.23 *Learner uptake types (adapted from Lyster's categories, 1998a, 2001)*

LEARNER UPTAKE TYPES	
TYPES OF REPAIR	DESCRIPTIONS
Repetition Example 6.46 S1: E/gz/ercicio. T3: E-jer-ci-cio. S1: →Ejercicio.	The student repeats the reaction of the teacher that contains the correct form.
Incorporation Example 6.47 S: Is a crayon box T1: Pencil↑ S: →It's a pencil case	
	The student repeats the correct form given by the teacher incorporating it then in a longer production.

¹⁵³ Non-vocal sounds, head-nods and smiles might suggest 'repair' operations for the learner producing deviant output. However, in this study we will take into account only the linguistic uptake since it could be considered as external learner manifestations of teacher feedback incorporations.

Self-repair	The student corrects her/his initial incorrect utterance in response to the teacher's reaction when the latter does not directly provide the correct form.
Example 6.48	
S1: Miriam es de Sueza. T3: Piensa mejor una palabra. S1: →De Suiza	
Peer-repair	A student other than the one who produces the initial error repairs the deviant structure in response to the teacher's reaction.
Example 6.49	
S1: I (0.3) yesterday I look television. T1: Alors [Fr], he said yesterday I look↑ television. S2: Moi. [Fr]→Watched television.	
TYPES OF NEEDS-REPAIR	DESCRIPTIONS
Recognition	The student may respond to the teacher reaction generally by a simple 'yes' or less frequently by a 'no' in response to the teacher's metalinguistic feedback (Calvé, 1992).
Example 6.50	
S1: En la pa/gi↑/na seis. T3: Página. S1: →Sí, el número seis.	
Same error	The student repeats his/her initial error triggering a TRE.
Example 6.51	
S1: Teacher,→ <i>la colle</i> [Fr]. T1: The glue. [2 minutes later] T1: Where is the glue? S1: <i>C'est quoi</i> [Fr]→ <i>grue</i> ?	
Different error	The student responds to a teacher's reaction producing a new error.
Example 6.52	
S1: Take it from /pocket/. T: Pocket? S1: Not pocket, uh, →/bok/. S2: Bottom. S1: Yeah, bottom. (Suzuki, 2004)	
Off-target	The student responds to a teacher's reaction turn, but s/he has not grasped the linguistic aspect that the teacher has stressed. S/-he makes another error.
Example 6.53	
S: I have two tooth. T: You have two teeth. S: →Two tooth. (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)	
Hesitation	The student hesitates when s/-he responds to a teacher's retroaction.
Example 6.54	
S: <i>Je suis la maison.</i> T: <i>Falla</i> [Sp]. S: →A ? [...] <i>en la maison?</i> (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)	
Partial repair	The student has only partially corrected his/her initial error.
Example 6.55	
S1: I go by foot to tennis club. T1: Go? Yesterday? By foot? S1: →I went by foot.	

In general, L2 learner repair moves are still in the process of being described and analysed in detail in SLA interaction research. The ultimate goal is to determine the optimal conditions in which teacher feedback triggers 'repair'.

6.6.5 RQ3 categories: possible interconnections

The main body of our analysis in this section relates teachers' reactions to learner uptake and ultimately to language acquisition. In this study, we attempt to identify the possible interconnections between the foci of learner non-target utterances triggering 'teachers' reactions' and the types of Teacher Reaction Episodes that may produce learner uptake by measuring their percentages.

Also, we describe the learner cognitive dimension of teachers' reactions in terms of implicit and explicit teacher help as an exploratory sketch to assess TREs according to the sociocultural theory. The significant instances of teachers' reactions to foreign language learner output that arose from observation are analysed using a list that represents a Regulatory Scale. This tool classifies the different levels of teacher regulation or help. It is adapted from the list of regulative help originally devised by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994)¹⁵⁴. By analysing the levels of regulation, one might gauge their potential effects in FL language learning, assuming Vygotskian¹⁵⁵ postulates.

On this Regulatory Scale, high scores are obtained when teachers provide explicit forms of feedback for students. The learner progresses less in FL learning episodes when s/he is 'other-regulated' by another person who delivers 'explicit feedback'. In contrast, lower scores are obtained when learners are given implicit forms of feedback which make them 'self-regulate' in the Neo-Vygotskian sense. Frequencies and percentages are calculated for types of episodes, cognitive stages of regulation, and types of didactic reactions.

Teacher Reaction Episodes are gauged in relation to the amount of the teacher's aid to learners. We analyse this aspect basing on i) the sociocultural notion of 'self-regulation'

¹⁵⁴ The Regulatory Scale by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) is found in the Appendix A.

¹⁵⁵ We use Vygotskian terminology in this study since in present-day SLA literature concepts such as 'other-regulation' and 'self-regulation' appear to depict suitably the regulatory stages which occur during TREs.

(Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Vygotsky, 1978; Zimmerman, 2002) and ii) the social interactionist approaches which advocate the use of 'implicit forms of feedback' (Long, 1996; McDonough & Mackey, 2006).

Both these theoretical approaches take the view that didactic sequences providing 'implicit forms of feedback' might potentially facilitate learning through 'scaffolding' or assisted performance (De Pietro et al., 1989; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Regarding TREs, it is assumed that explicit and implicit teacher reactive forms might respectively i) involve only the teacher and ii) engage the students more actively in classroom activities (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998).

Given that there is as yet no valid instrument for providing evidence of actual language learning, we cannot validate 100% the correlation between the quantity of student-talk and language learning. Therefore, the results that we present should be taken as a tentative approach to describing the potential benefits of teachers' reactions in FL learner repairs. In an attempt to estimate the potential benefits of teachers' reactions, we adapt Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) Regulatory Scale based on the Sociocultural approach in order to examine this issue.

According to the Regulatory Scale, teachers' corrective reactions involving implicit forms of teachers' reactions might induce learners to 'self-regulate'. In contrast, teachers' reactions containing more explicit forms of feedback might weaken the possibility for 'learner self-repair'. Ideally, in sociocultural terms, teachers should adjust to the learner 'zone of proximal development' in order to provide the most effective feedback in consonance with the learner's interlanguage.

Instances of 'other-regulation' and 'self-regulation' were analysed in TREs in relation to provision of negative feedback from the study's corpus. Scores are found in the corpus transcriptions. We include the non-verbal components as potential mediators for 'regulation'.

TREs are viewed as learning activities shaped out of classroom interaction. We distinguished at least two agents of mediation in TREs from the sociocultural perspective: i) the human beings and ii) the tools participating in the learning processes (Kozulin, 2003).

In sociocultural terms, we find some possible instances of 'scaffolding' (Wertsch, 1985b). During these episodes some forms of teachers' reactions engage learners more actively in immediate self-repair or other forms of 'uptake'. Therefore, learners who 'scaffold' are challenged to produce coherent discourses beyond their level of grammatical accuracy and TREs can promote learners' involvement in repairs.

Below we present the main points of the Regulatory Scale (Table 6.24), illustrating it with TREs as explained above. The table contains the twelve graded levels of regulatory learning strategies from the most implicit to the most explicit:

Table 6.24 *The Regulatory Scale*

THE REGULATORY SCALE	
LEVELS	DESCRIPTIONS
0	Tutor asks the learner to reflect on their utterances, find the errors, and correct them independently.
1	Construction of a collaborative frame prompted by the presence of the tutor or a peer as a potential dialogic pattern.
2	Prompted or focused when the teacher asks the learner to repeat the sentence that contains the error.
3	The teacher indicates that something may be wrong in a segment.
4	The teacher rejects unsuccessful attempts at recognising the error.
5	The teacher narrows down the location of the error.
6	The nature of the error is indicated, but the teacher does not identify the error.
7	The teacher or a peer identifies the error.
8	The teacher rejects the learner's unsuccessful attempts at correcting the error.
9	The teacher provides clues to help the learner arrive at the correct form.
10	The teacher provides the correct form.
11	The teacher provides some explanation for using the correct form.
12	The teacher provides examples of the correct pattern when other forms of help fail to produce an appropriate responsive action.

If 'zone of proximal development episode' measures levels 1, 2 or 3, for example, it will be high in the 'zone of proximal development'. In such situations, the learner is close to independent self-repair regulated by the teacher. In contrast, the learner is further away from producing the correct form without help if the episode scores higher levels such as 10, 11 and 12.

We present a number of excerpts from the corpus to illustrate the levels of 'regulation':

Excerpt 6.1

S1: I go School *Bilingue* [Fr].

T1: I go↑ School **Bilingue** [Fr]. [the end point of the basic TRE]

0. Tutor asks the learner to reflect on their utterances, find the errors, and correct them independently.

T1: Then Chippenda said 'I go School *Bilingue*' [Fr], is it correct?
[transfer question to all the students in the classroom]

Chippenda, here is your answer. Shuuh. He said↑ [writing on the blackboard] I go School↑ School, what? *Bilingue* [Fr].

S1: *Bilingue* [Fr].

1. Construction of a collaborative frame prompted by the presence of the tutor or a peer as a potential dialogic pattern.

T1: *Bilingue* [Fr]. You see. Is it↑ I go School *Bilingue* [Fr]?

2. Prompted or focused when teacher asks for the repetition of a sentence that contains the error.

T1: Is it correct? Chippenda, could you try to correct the sentence?

Go↑ What (0.2) what's missing?

3. The teacher indicates that something may be wrong in a segment.

S1: *Je sais pas.*

T1: *Ta phrase n'est pas correcte.* [Fr]

4. The teacher rejects unsuccessful attempts at recognising the error.

T1: *Ta phrase c'est* [Fr] I go School **Bilingue** [Fr]. [stressing items with hand gestures] What's missing?

S1: I go to School.

T1: Mmm?

S1: *Bilingue* [Fr].

T1: Sorry?

S1: I go School *Bilingue* [Fr].

T1: I go↑ School **Bilingue** [Fr].

5. The teacher narrows down the location of the error (e.g., s/he repeats or points to the specific segment which contains the error)

T1: You said the same thing. Yes. [addressing to S2]

6. The nature of the error is indicated, but the teacher does not identify the error.

T1: Could you help him? [transfer to other student]

S2: I go to school. [low voice].

T1: Yes.

S1: *Bilingue* [Fr].

7. The teacher or a peer identifies the error

The above example presents a complete TRE that scores 7 according to this instrument for measuring the levels of regulation. The teacher uses the blackboard as a 'mediation tool'. Nevertheless, it is not clear in the video if the learner realised the error, since he actually only self-corrects the last segment of the utterance "*Bilingue*", which we reproduce in green. Probably the teacher did not notice the learner's self-repair and the student felt lost afterwards.

Excerpt 6.2

S4: Yesterday I look television.

T1: *Alors* [Fr], he said yesterday I look↑ television.

S1: *Moi* [Fr].

T1: Shuuh. **Look. *C'est vrai que look veut dire regarder je ne suis pas contre. Moi je suis d'accord. Mais on ne dit pas 'look television' en anglais. C'est une expression idiomatique aussi comme tout à l'heure, c'est comme en français. C'est quoi*** [Fr]? I↑

S4: Looks.

T1: *C'est quoi?* [Fr]

S4: I looks.

T1: **Ah. Karim. No. Karim said Looks. Looks** [gesture writing 'looks' in the air]. *Quand est-ce que qu'on met un s aux verbes en anglais? Quand est-ce?* [Fr]

S4: I looking.

T1: **No, you cannot say I looking.**

8. The teacher rejects the learner's unsuccessful attempts at correcting the error.

T1: *Quand on utilise la forme « ing » ? Non.*

S3: *Le participe présent.*

T1: *Le participe présent ?*

S2: *Qu'est-ce que le participe?* [Fr]

T1: **Mmm. I am not satisfied** [frowning face] **OK. No.**

On a y revenir, on va y revenir sur ces verbes. [Fr]

9. The teacher provides clues to help the learner arrive at the correct form (e.g., "*It is not really past but something that is still going on.*")

In this extract the teacher provides 'metalinguistic feedback' after rejecting the learner's inaccurate responses. Nevertheless, she uses specific grammar terminology that the teenager does not know. This episode scores 9.

Excerpt 6.3

S1: And he love candy.

T2: And he loves candies.

10. The teacher provides the correct form.

According to the measurement tool, the use of 'recasts' scores 10, which is low in the degree of learner 'self-regulation'. Thus, the learner is not encouraged to 'self-repair' - as indeed, the corpus proved - and the activity continues.

Excerpt 6.4

S3: I eating, I play football I watch TV.

T1: You cannot say I eating. No. 'I eat' conjugated in the present tense.

11. The teacher provides some explanation for using the correct form.

The teacher reacts to the learner's inaccurate utterance with an immediate explanation, scoring 11, and not allowing the learner to self-repair.

Excerpt 6.5

S1: Gloria está partido en inglés.

T3: No, no, no.

S2: Tiene que.

S3: Debe que o tiene que.

S1: Gloria está partida en Inglesia.

T3: Bien. ¿Quién me puede conjugar este verbo?

S2: Yo he partido tú has partido él has partido, nosotros hemos partido, vosotros habéis partido, ellos han partido.

T3: Hemos, habéis, han. ¿Cómo vamos a expresarlo?

S1: Gloria ha partido en Inglesia.

S2: Gloria ha ido a Inglaterra.

T3: Gloria ha ido a Inglaterra. Gloria ha partido de viaje a Inglaterra, a Europa.

12. Tutor provides examples of the correct pattern when other forms of help fail to produce an appropriate responsive action.

In this episode, which scores 12, the teacher provides the response, after transferring the error treatment to the class, as the student who produced the inaccurate TL form could not produce an accurate response.

According to the Regulatory Scale instrument, we assume that an episode containing the teacher's reaction 'provide + explanation' would be low (scoring 11) in the ZPD and therefore the learner is other-regulated. However, when the teacher reacts to foreign language learner output with one elicitation, this reaction would be high (scoring 3) in the ZPD and shows that the learner is 'self-regulated'.

It is quite possible that there are individual learner differences in the amount of the incorporations or non-incorporations of teachers' reactions which produce 'uptake'. Therefore, the results we present are of a qualitative nature.

6.7 MECHANICS OF CODING AND DATABASE

The initial step in the data analysis consisted in identifying and measuring TREs features in the data; in particular, the amount of teachers' reactions to learner output and the instances in which learners appeared to modify and repair their initial deviant L2 structure. Having identified patterns of TREs in the data, the following step in the analysis was data indexing.

Research Question 1 dealt with the various types of teachers' reactions to learner FL utterances in different kinds of FL classrooms. Data analysis was carried out with a view to analysing the handling of errors during different lessons and classrooms and with 3 different teachers. First, we attempted to classify the sequences in TREs. Second, we attempted to distinguish which teachers' reactions seemed to best resolve L2 learner deviant output in terms of SLA and sociocultural theories. As a complementary action, we sought evidence of other determining factors influencing the teachers' reactions connected with i) the learner age, ii) the features of the educational setting, or the iii) the number of students in the classroom.

Research Question 2 related to the types of learner responses which follow different types of feedback in the different FL classrooms. In this case, the TREs were submitted to Conversation Analysis. We assumed that there might be relationships between the

language use in interaction and language learner acquisition (Bygate, 1988). For instance, teachers' reactions such as recasts and elicitations are said to be facilitative for 'scaffolding'.

Research Question 3 was concerned with the teachers' reactions that appear to engage learners more actively in their FL learning. Here we used measurement systems adapted from Lantolf and Aljaafreh's ZPD levels of help.

6.7.1 Transcription of video data

For the purpose of analysis, a basic transcription was made of the videorecorded interaction. Examination of preliminary transcriptions helped to develop the coding categories that would be used for subsequent analyses. TREs were segmented from the video corpus and transcribed using CLAN software from the CHILDES project. Two volunteer language teachers helped to review transcriptions.

The act of transcribing videotaped data was selective, based on its relevance to:

- i. the sequences¹⁵⁶ involving teachers' face-to-face oral reactions to a foreign language learner FL oral deviant output
- ii. the ways in which teachers' interventions might have potential effects on the learner target language productions¹⁵⁷

In order to measure the incidence of the different types of teachers' reactions, we coded them in detail. The breakdown of the episodes across the three teaching settings included extra information such as: i) the dates of the observations, ii) the types of classrooms observed, and iii) the topic of the classroom activity (see Appendix G).

¹⁵⁶ 'Significant sequences' are those involving more than a simple 'no' or a 'yes' on the part of the teacher.

¹⁵⁷ Hymes says "*it is a general principle that all rules of speaking involve message form, if not by affecting its shape, then by governing its interpretation*" (1972: 35). In particular, it seems that teachers' reactions might be more or less noticed by the hearer. As we explained in Chapter 1, this degree of noticing might depend on the features of the teacher message and the learner's degree of attention.

Our primary research aim was to describe how teachers and students engage in error treatment during oral interaction and how negative feedback is used. For this reason, we do not take into account the totality of the videoed classroom corpus. Consequently, the portions of lessons involving teacher-fronted grammar explanations or activities not concerning the oral provision of feedback have been omitted.

Regarding the transcriptions, we only took into account the video recordings which included student-teacher interactions in TREs sequences. As a result, not all the videoed data have been transcribed in their entirety.

Due attention was paid to certain key features of the transcription process, identified by DuBois (1991:106) such as:

- 1) accurate category definitions
- 2) system accessibility
- 3) robust representations
- 4) economy
- 5) adaptability

As for data collected from observational sessions, we only segmented those oral transcriptions of sequences which included i) the student turn triggering the TRE ii) the adjacent teachers' reactions turn involving negative feedback and iii) possible learner uptake turn.

Working with a database extracted from a digital camcorder was a very time-consuming task. After editing data from DV cassettes on the computer, we converted them into MPEG format. This process was carried out in order to:

- i. more easily manipulate data on CDs
- ii. ensure optimum quality of sound and image
- iii. facilitate the segmentation of TREs

For this particular study, the sequences of TREs were numbered according to boundaries. During the video tape transcription, each paragraph was prefaced with coding characters to indicate its speaker: "T" for teacher and "S" for student. The

transcriptions primarily focused on the teacher reaction turn. This unit corresponds to the sequence following the FL student's utterance. In order to ensure the anonymity of the participants, we used pseudonyms in the transcripts.

Teachers' reactions sequences were identified in the transcripts and coded according to the categories described in Section 6.6.3 (see Appendix F). Moreover, we codified and quantified the different students' responses immediately following the teachers' interventions. In this way, we attempted to isolate the instances of 'student uptake' and/or 'repair'.

During the course of the research there was a steady evolution in the development of, on one hand, tools for video and audio recording and analysis and, on the other hand, PC applications. Initial transcriptions were made in Word format as the researchers viewed the video data.

Two tools were used to view clips in detail: the QuickTime player and, progressively, the ELAN tool for the creation of complex annotations on video and audio resources. This is a tool by the Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics. In particular, the latest version of ELAN helped to locate specific points in time in the recordings. Also, it proved to be very useful for transcribing rapid speech or audio which was difficult to hear. At different stages, the transcribed texts in Word documents were exported to the Windows CLAN Win analysis tool (Mac Whinney, 2000). As we can see, different software tools worked in a complementary fashion in the TRE transcription process.

Although the current version of CLAN Win includes a video player, this was not the case two years ago. The version employed only supported AVI files. Therefore, making video transcriptions with this tool became somewhat complicated. Also, there was a need to transform existing categories and to create new ones. We applied some of the categories from *Transcription Conventions for Classroom Discourse* by Allwright and Bailey (1991). In order to complement Allwright and Bailey's codes, we added a number of codes from Conversation Analysis to suit the needs of the present study.

The conventions used are presented in the following tables:

Table 6.25 *Transcription Conventions for Classroom Discourse by Allwright and Bailey (1991)*

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS FOR CLASSROOM DISCOURSE (Allwright & Bailey, 1991)		
TRANSCRIPTION SYMBOLS		MEANING
1. Dots	:	Pause
2. Double quotations	“ ”	Parts of a text read by the teacher
3. Upper case letter	X	Incomprehensible word
4. Square brackets	[]	Commentary
5. Upper-case letter	T	Teacher
6. Upper-case letter	S	Student
7. The asterisk	*	Ungrammatical forms

Table 6.26 *Additional transcription conventions*

ADDITIONAL TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS		
TRANSCRIPT SYMBOLS		MEANING
8. The upright arrow	↑	Rising intonation
9. The downward arrow	↓	Falling intonation
10. The horizontal arrow	→	Feature of special interest
11. Underline	_____	Some form of stress or emphasis, either by increased loudness or by higher pitch. The more underlining, the greater the emphasis
12. The tilde	~	Unintelligible speech
13. Separate left square brackets (One above the other on two successive lines)	[[Overlapping or simultaneous talk utterances by different speakers, indicates a point overlap onset, whether at the start of an utterance or later
14. Numbers in parentheses	(0.5)	Silence, represented in tenths of a second
15. Italics	/	Use of the L1

An advantage of videoed material over audio-recorded material is that it allows the transcription of additional data such as facial expressions, head movements, gaze directions and gestures (Auer, 1992). Therefore, matching the visual to the audio transcript produces a more comprehensive picture of TREs.

For the exchanges reproduced in this dissertation, we have indicated non-verbal elements between brackets and the use of the L1 in italics. In addition to words and the non-verbal elements, we included in transcriptions:

- i. semi-lexical utterances (e.g., “ah”)
- ii. paralinguistic features (pauses, rising intonation and falling intonation)
- iii. unclear portions of speech
- iv. non-lexical utterances such as laughs

- v. background sounds (e.g., ringing bell, chirping bird, etc.)

Due to the acoustic and lighting conditions of the classrooms, there were some problems with sound and video quality. As a result, a small amount of the speech was unclear in the recordings. These problems did not, however, affect the TREs.

In the process of transcription, we attempted to minimise interpretation but recognised that this is very difficult (Green & Dixon, 2002; Ochs, 1979). Having completed the transcription process, the identified sequences were entered into a statistical programme.

6.7.2 Illustrating the TREs features

A number of illustrative excerpts from the data are provided below. In each extract, the TRE is described in terms of the features presented in the previous sections.

The following excerpt shows learner's overall pattern of error correction and repair while engaged in classroom interaction.

Excerpt 6.6 Single TRE

Participants: T2 (Teacher 2), S1 (Student 1), Ss (Student Group)

S1: Oh, I have a nose ache.

T2: →No. No. [negation with head shaking] My nose hurts. [other noises and voices]
My nose hurts. [EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK: adjustment]

Ss: My nose hurts.

Table 6.27 Excerpt 6.6

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	DESCRIPTIONS
Type	Oral and non-verbal teachers reactions	It involves teacher explicit negative linguistic and non-verbal feedback with the nod.
Source	Meaning	Wrong choice of words.
Complexity	Simple	It takes place within a single TRE exchange.
Directness	Direct	The teacher provides explicit feedback
Linguistic focus	Form	"having a nose ache"
Uptake	Student group repair	It is not evident if the student producing the original deviant utterance might have grasped his/her mistake since only a chorus of students is heard.

Excerpt 6.7 Single TRE**Participants:** T3 (Teacher 3), S1 (Student 1)S1: Tiene *fotas*.T3: →No, no, tiene *fotas* (0.2) que es inventado. Sino *faltas* [EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK: explanation]S1: Tiene *faltas*↑ *faltas*.**Table 6.28** Excerpt 6.7

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	DESCRIPTIONS
Type	Verbal teacher reaction	It involves teacher explicit negative linguistic feedback.
Source	Form	Phonological transfer of the French word "faute" (English <i>mistake</i>).
Complexity	Simple	It takes place within a single exchange.
Directness	Direct	The teacher provides explicit feedback.
Linguistic focus	Lexical	" <i>fotas</i> " instead of " <i>faltas</i> "
Uptake	Repair	Apparent sign of repair since he repeats the accurate form and seems to have spotted the mistake.

Excerpt 6.8 Single TRE**Participants:** T1 (Teacher 1), S1 (Student 1)

S1: C/u/t, c/u/t. Open↑ the tomato.

T1: →You cut the tomato into slices. [recast] [writing on the blackboard]

Table 6.29 Excerpt 6.8

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	DESCRIPTIONS
Type	Verbal and Written Teacher Reactions	It involves teacher implicit negative linguistic feedback in the form of recast and material support.
Source	Form	Morphosyntactically, not one accurate clause.
Complexity	Simple	It takes place within a single exchange.
Directness	Indirect	The teacher provides implicit feedback.
Linguistic focus	Morphosyntax	The message transmitted does not seem accurate when the student was leading one cooking activity as a chef.
Uptake	Non evident	No evident learner repair as the learner does not repeat the version offered by the teacher.

Excerpt 6.9 Complex TRE**Participants:** T1 (Teacher 1), S1 (Student 1), S2 (Student 2)S1: I go School *Bilingue* [Fr].T1: →I go↑ School *Bilingue*. [repetition] Then Chippenda said I go School *Bilingue*, is it correct? [transferring clarification request to all students]. Chippenda, here is

- your answer. Shuuh. He said ↑ [writing on the blackboard] I go School ↑ [repetition] School, what? *Bilingue* [Fr]. [elicitation]
- S1:** *Bilingue* [Fr].
- T1:** →*Bilingue* [Fr]. You see. Is it I go School *Bilingue* [Fr]? Is it correct? [clarification requests] Chippenda, could you try to correct the sentence? Go↑ What↑ what's missing? [elicitations]
- S1:** *Je sais pas.* [Fr] [I don't know]
- T1:** →*Ta phrase n'est pas correcte* [Fr] [Your sentence is not correct] [EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK: provide] *Ta phrase c'est*↑ [Fr] [Your sentence is] 'I go School *Bilingue* [Fr]' [stressing items with hand gestures] [explanation] What's missing? [elicitation]
- S1:** I go to school↓
- T1:** Mmm? [clarification request]
- S1:** *Bilingue.* [Fr]
- T1:** Sorry? [clarification request]
- S1:** I go School *Bilingue* [Fr].
- T1:** I go School *Bilingue* [Fr]? [elicitation] You said the same thing. [metalinguistic feedback]. Yes [addressing to S2] Could you help him? [TRANSFER TO OTHER STUDENT]
- S2:** I go to school. [low voice]
- T1:** →Yes. [EXPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK]
- S2:** *Bilingue* [Fr]. [Low voice]
- T1:** →Good. [EXPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK] *L'expression c'est* [Fr] [The expression is] to go to school [EXPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK] OK, Chippenda? *L'expression c'est* [Fr] [The expression is] to go↑. *Aller à l'école* [Fr] [to go to school]. [EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK] OK. *To go*↑ *go to* [writing 'go to' on the blackboard] *to go to school.* OK. *Aller à l'école* [Fr] [to go to school] [EXPLICIT POSITIVE FEEDBACK]

Table 6.30 Excerpt 6.9

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	DESCRIPTIONS
Type	Verbal, non-verbal and written teacher reactions	It involves several implicit and explicit kinds of teacher feedback and a complementary material action with the writing on the blackboard and embodied action with hand gesture.
Source	Form	The preposition "to" is missing.
Complexity	Complex	It takes place within multi-episodic exchanges.
Directness	Indirect/direct	The teacher provides all types of feedback.
Linguistic focus	Content and Morphosyntax	The message transmitted does not seem accurate when the student was leading one cooking activity as chef.
Uptake	Sign of uptake	No evident learner repair since the learner does not repeat the version offered by the teacher.

The latter excerpt is significant, given that the episode contains numerous implicit reactions. Curiously, the learner produces a correct response in this episode. Nevertheless, the teacher does not listen to it. Likewise, the teacher, by means of two clarification requests (an "Mmm" and a "Sorry") confounds the learner, who thinks that his utterance is wrong and self-corrects. Subsequently, the learner repeats the original

incorrect utterance. As the student is unsuccessful, the teacher transfers correction to another student.

6.7.3 Operationalisation and statistical analysis of the videoed database

The operationalisation and computing of the utterances are detailed in this section. In general, separate analyses for coding the data were performed taking into account:

- i. the FL learner deviant structure
- ii. the teachers' reactions acting as feedback types
- iii. the learners' responses

The frequency and distribution of the different turns in TREs are analysed. Nevertheless, the basic unit of analysis is the teacher's reaction that corresponds to the teacher turn exchange within the TRE. That is, the sequence following the FL student's utterance - the teacher reaction to FL learner output.

The researcher mainly coded random samples of the data at different timed stages aided by one volunteer. Agreement on features of TREs ranged between 0.80 and 0.99. Following a detailed review of the operationalisation of terms and the combining of related categories that were difficult to distinguish operationally, agreement reached 99.9%. In particular, special attention was paid to the Teacher Reaction Episodes which included both implicit and explicit negative types of feedback.

Similarly, we contemplate non-verbal elements and types of feedback that have received little attention in the majority of SLA studies. The non-verbal elements reinforcing teachers' reactions - such as writing on the blackboard and certain recurrent gestures - are also viewed as mediators of teaching that, in most cases, enhance teachers' reactions.

We also examined TREs to determine:

- i. whether certain combinations of turns tended to occur more than others
- ii. whether one particular type of feedback was liable to take over others

Furthermore, one part of the analysis is largely devoted to analysing the instances of 'student uptake' triggered by these teacher's reactions strategies. Consequently, the feedback-uptake sequences were classified according to their mono-episodic or multi-episodic nature. That is, whether they consisted of single or complex moves.

Finally, data presented in discourse excerpts and tables were interpreted and explained in terms of the sociocultural theoretical framework, on which part of this study draws. The TREs were measured according to their potential learning benefits in the Neo-Vygotskian sense using an adaptation of Lantolf and Aljafreeh's (1996) List of Regulation (see Chapter 2).

In order to analyse and compare the characteristics of TREs occurring in the videoed lessons, raw frequencies as well as percentages were calculated. Only transcribed instances of teachers' reactions to FL learner deviant output and instances of 'learner uptake' were analysed statistically. For this purpose, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences 14.0 and Statgraphics Plus Version 5.1. was used. The frequencies of the different kinds of teacher reaction moves and successful or unsuccessful 'uptake' were tallied.

6.8 INTER-RATER RELIABILITY

As a measure of reliability in the identification, segmentation and transcription of TREs, a voluntary rater was incorporated into the process. Every five weeks, the researcher and one volunteer checked representative samples of the transcripts. Following the coding of each transcript, discrepancies between the two raters' decisions were discussed. After a training period, each rater coded and reviewed 50% of the interactions directly from the videos. Simple percent agreement between raters was found to be 98%, which was considered acceptable. Once all of the relevant recorded data was coded and the reliability of the coding had been repeatedly tested, the data was deemed ready to be analysed.

6.9 ANALYSES OF INTERVIEW AND QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

The opinions of participant teachers and a group of learners regarding teachers' reactions were obtained through questionnaires and interviews. The results were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively.

Gathering information on the teachers' beliefs¹⁵⁸ is influenced by the growing conception of teaching as a 'thinking activity' (Borg, 2003). In this approach, teachers are considered as people who construct their own personal and workable theories of teaching.

A series of studies taking into account teachers' views consider that their beliefs play an important role in relation to instructional practice (Burns, 1992; Kennedy, 1996b; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Nugrahenny, 2007; Phipps & Borg, 2007).

The discussion of the data includes the participating teachers' explanations of their own behaviours. The items from their questionnaire were factor-analysed along with ten items measuring beliefs toward teachers' reactions, their preferences and dislikes. These items were analysed in the same way as the Likert Scale items. That is, the numerical responses were entered into the spreadsheet and averages were calculated.

Regarding the learners' questionnaires (see Appendix D), the Likert items were also considered by entering the data into a spreadsheet and calculating averages for the learners who answered the questions in Parts B, C and D.

The responses in Part B were combined with those in Part C to generate the categories for data analysis. For example, the statement in Part B, "*Reduced amount of feedback from the instructor was a drawback*", was considered a disadvantage of communication, and was thus analysed together with Part C.

For example, Part E, Question 1, had its own table showing the responses of all learners to the question (some learners skipped some of the open-ended questions, in which cases the researcher attempted to get the information in follow-up interviews).

¹⁵⁸ 'Beliefs' are defined as statements teachers make about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge expressed as evaluations of what 'should be done', 'should be the case' and 'is preferable' (Borg, 2003: 244).

6.10 SUMMARY

The objective of this chapter is to justify the choice of methods employed in the course of the research into “Teachers’ Reactions to Foreign Language Learners’ Output”.

The study was conducted in 14 types of language classroom settings at two immersion schools in Dakar (Senegal).

We describe the general characteristics of the site, presenting macro- (the country Senegal) and micro- (the specific classrooms researched) sociological facts. We also presented the participants of the study: the teachers and the students.

We present in detail how data was collected, coded, analysed and triangulated using reformulated categories, which were extracted from studies on SLA classroom interaction and teacher feedback (Chaudron, 1988; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The study also draws on the Conversation Analysis approach and the sociocultural theory.

In addition, we have highlighted that non-verbal elements are visually observable thanks to the video recordings and we believe that the merits of this medium in providing a more comprehensive view of the phenomena occurring in TREs should be recognised.

Chapter 7

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the empirical study carried out to analyse videorecorded TREs (Teacher Reaction Episodes) extracted from 3 differentiated immersion settings at two Senegalese bilingual schools including:

- i. the relevant features of teacher reactions acting as negative feedback for learners
- ii. the 'uptake' of teacher reactions considering learner repair, other-repair and needs' repair
- iii. the learner potential learning opportunities in the TREs
- iv. the participants' views on teacher reactions to FL learner output collected through questionnaires and interviews, which are juxtaposed to the findings

In the light of theoretical perspectives and findings reported in the previous chapters, we try to establish correlations between:

- i. significant teacher reactions to foreign language learner output in FL classroom interaction
- ii. contextual factors surrounding the phenomenon of "Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output"

More specifically, we focus on:

- i. three distinct types of FL immersion classroom settings in which 3 teachers react to deviant FL learner productions
- ii. the potential effects of teacher reactions by examining instances of learner uptake and self-repair according to the SLA social interactionist view and the Neo-Vygotskian concept of 'self-regulation'

In view of data treatment, we endeavour:

- 1) to compare and contrast the TREs patterns across three different FL immersion classroom programmes and the 3 FL teachers involved in them
- 2) to examine whether TREs are shaped by the nature of immersion classroom contexts, deviant linguistic targets, learner FL competence and teachers' individual style preferences for certain types of reactions
- 3) to consider the potential factors influencing teacher reactions and learner uptake (Lyster, 1998a)

7.1 THE DATABASE RESULTS

The database of Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs) is composed of 1186 moves involving negative feedback extracted from 70 hours of videorecorded lessons in FL immersion classrooms at two Senegalese bilingual schools. As introduced in Chapter 6, the reported results are based on the transcriptions of TREs, which comprise speech and non-verbal components.

This section presents the study's results around the 3 FL immersion classroom settings and the analysis of collected data using Statgraphics ® Plus Version 5.1 and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences 14.0. The following table summarises, as a reminder, the three types of immersion settings and the teachers' participating.

Table 7.1 *FL immersion classroom settings*

FL IMMERSION CLASSROOM SETTINGS				
Teachers	Schools	Settings	Immersion language programmes	Classroom Group Years (UK levels' equivalents)
T1	A	1	Intermediate English	Years 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6
T2	A	2	Advanced English	Years 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6
T3	B	3	Spanish FL	Years 9 & 10

Abbreviations: T: Teacher FL: Foreign Language

Table 7.2 indicates the number of teacher reaction moves per episode, triggered by learner deviant structures in the different types of immersion settings. Data analysis reveals that the three teachers react to foreign language learner deviant structures with negative feedback by not delaying its provision in 95 percent of cases.

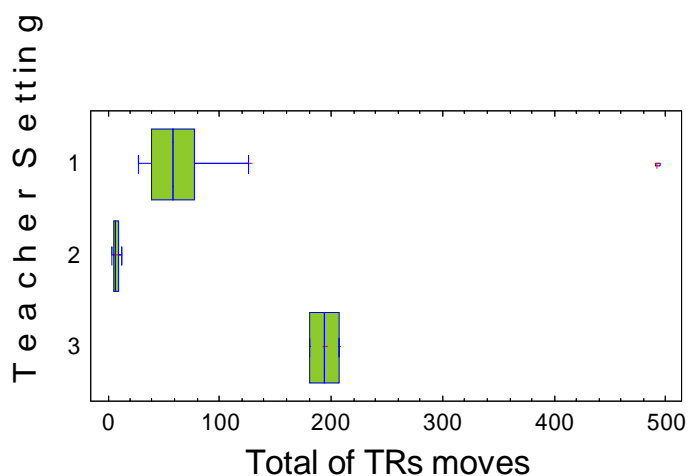
In particular, T2, who is the native English speaker, appears to react to her students on fewer occasions ($n= 43$) in contrast to T1 ($n= 754$) and T3 ($n= 389$). One possible reason for this could be that the T2 setting relates to the Advanced English programme that gathers together near-native and native English-speaking students. Therefore, in this setting students seem to generate fewer TL errors. In contrast, T1 and T3 provide negative feedback in higher amounts to FL deviant structures as they teach less proficient groups in the target languages (TLs) that are more prone to produce errors.

Table 7.2 *Teacher Reaction moves per classroom*

TEACHER REACTION MOVES			Total of TRs' MOVES	
Settings	Types of Immersion School classrooms (UK Grades)	n of Ss	n	%
T1	Year 1 Intermediate English	10	28	3.7
	Year 2 Intermediate English	16	39	5.2
	Year 3 Intermediate English	12	78	10.3
	Year 4 Intermediate English	11	51	6.8
	Year 5 Intermediate English	12	66	8.8
	Year 6 Intermediate English	4	492	65.3
Total			754	100.0
T2	Year 1 Advanced English	10	6	14.0
	Year 2 Advanced English	10	5	11.6
	Year 3 Advanced English	10	12	27.9
	Year 4 Advanced English	8	9	20.9
	Year 5 Advanced English	9	7	16.3
	Year 6 Advanced English	4	4	9.3
Total			43	100.0
T3	Year 9 Spanish FL	18	208	53.5
	Year 10 Spanish FL	20	181	46.5
Total			389	100.0
OVERALL TOTAL			1186	100.0

Abbreviations: T: Teacher FL: Foreign Language Ss: Students n: Number
TRs: Teacher Reactions

The following Box and Whisker Plot (Figure 7.1) shows that results are not normally distributed regarding teacher reactions. We spot differences in the visual distribution of T1's reactions in the outlier around the 500 score which falls outside the range of the other values in the data set.

Fig. 7.1 Box and whisker plot of Teacher Reaction moves by FL immersion settings

Abbreviation: TRs: Teacher Reactions

A Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 7.3) also showed statistically significant differences in the medians of teacher reactions in the three teaching immersion settings ($t = 10.2$, P-value $0.00606778 < 0.05$) at a 95% confidence level.

Table 7.3 Kruskal-Wallis test for Teacher Reactions by immersion settings

Settings	Sample Size	Average Rank
T1	6	9.83333
T2	6	3.5
T3	2	12.5

Test statistic = 10.2095 **P-value** = 0.00606778

Abbreviation: T: Teacher

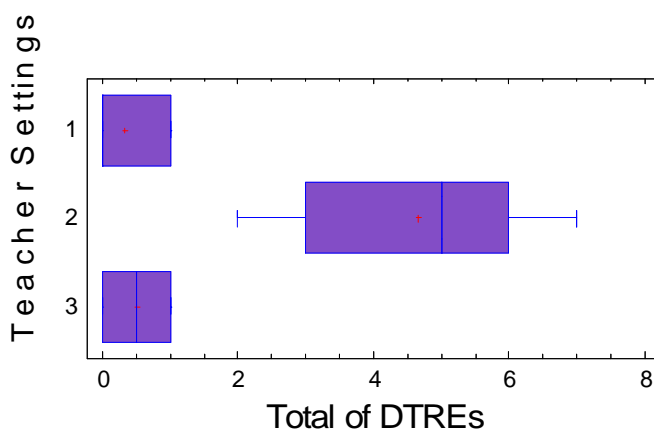
Data analysis of the corpus presents that there are minimal Disregard Teacher Reactive Episodes (DTREs) ($n = 31$; 5%) where the three teachers do not incorporate students' TL deviant utterances in their reactions (See Table 4 and Figure 7.2). T2 disregards more FL learner inaccurate productions (90.3%) than T1 (6.5%) and T3 (3.2%).

Table 7.4 Disregard Teacher Reactive Episodes

DISREGARD TEACHER REACTIVE EPISODES		TOTAL OF DTREs	
Settings	Types of Immersion School classrooms (UK Grades)	n	%
T1	Year 1 Intermediate English	1	50.0
	Year 2 Intermediate English	0	.0
	Year 3 Intermediate English	0	.0
	Year 4 Intermediate English	0	.0
	Year 5 Intermediate English	1	50.0
	Year 6 Intermediate English	0	.0
Total		2	100.0
T2	Year 1 Advanced English	7	25.0
	Year 2 Advanced English	6	21.4
	Year 3 Advanced English	5	17.9
	Year 4 Advanced English	3	10.7
	Year 5 Advanced English	5	17.9
	Year 6 Advanced English	2	7.1
Total		28	100.0
T3	Year 9 Spanish FL	1	100.0
	Year 10 Spanish FL	0	.0
Total		1	100.0
OVERALL TOTAL		31	100.0

Abbreviations: T: Teacher Ss: Students n: Number
 DTREs: Disregard Teacher Reactive Episodes FL: Foreign Language

Fig. 7.2 Box and whisker plot of Disregard Teacher Reactive Episodes by FL immersion settings



Abbreviation: DTRE: Disregard Teacher Reactive Episode

In the majority of those disregarding situations, the teachers continue the development of classroom activities such as the following example illustrates:

Example 7.1**S1:** I have to food the cat.**T2:** (0.5) Yes. But you have to do your homework.

Nevertheless, it cannot be determined whether such teaching moves were:

- i. deliberately taking into account the TL proficiency levels of the learners
- ii. just instructor slips

A Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 7.5) that checks the overall results of DTREs reveals that the P-value is less than 0.05. Therefore, outcomes are statistically significant ($t=10.1984$; $P\text{-value}=0.00610147$).

Table 7.5 *Kruskal-Wallis test for DTREs by Teacher settings*

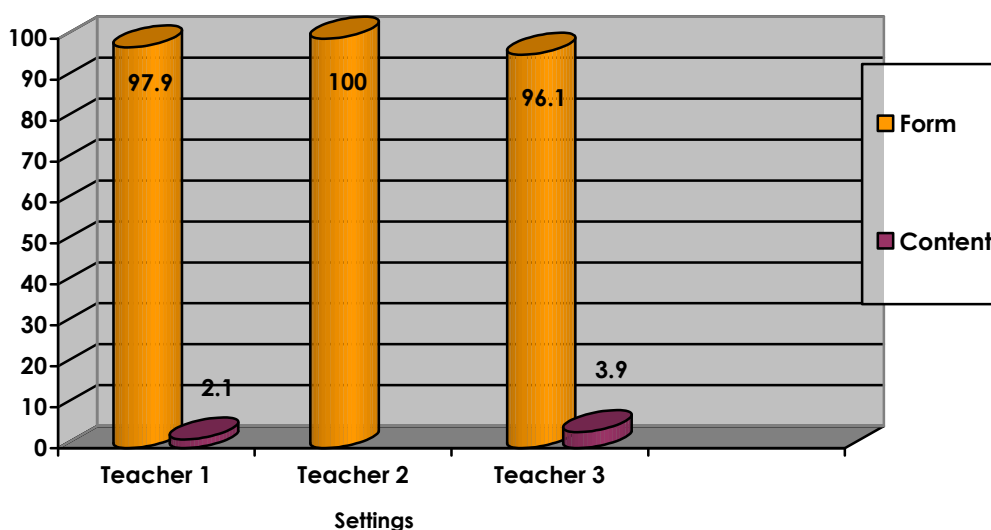
Settings	Sample Size	Average Rank
T1	6	4.33333
T2	6	11.5
T3	2	5.0

Test statistic = 10.1984 **P-value** = 0.00610147

Abbreviation: T: Teacher

In general, teacher reactions to FL learner productions might involve inaccurate learner target language forms or defective content.

Figure 7.3 displays the total distribution and the nature of the TRE triggers. We notice that ‘focus on form’ (Doughty, 1998) involves the largest target source of teacher reactions among the three teachers giving each one 5 lessons per classroom (T1= 97.9%, T2= 100% and T3= 96.4%). On the contrary, TREs focusing on meaning are inexistent for the T2 setting and small for the T1 (2.1%) and T3 (3.9%) settings.

Fig. 7.3 Distribution of teacher reactions to form and content in TREs per immersion setting

The following sections consider separately the data extracted from the three immersion school settings focusing on:

- i. the trigger sources of Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs)
- ii. the implicit and explicit teacher reactive moves
- iii. the teacher reactions and learner deviant linguistic forms
- iv. the distribution of 'uptake' following teacher reactions covering 'self-repair' and 'needs-repair'
- v. the learner self-repair following immediate teacher reactions
- vi. the uptake and target language error repair potential relationships
- vii. the teachers' views on the phenomena in TREs

7.1.1 Teacher 1 setting: Intermediate English Immersion

7.1.1.1 Trigger sources of TREs

Table 7.6 compiles the distribution of T1 reaction triggers in the database of Intermediate English level immersion. It also includes ill-constructed learner target language forms or problems in communication. T1 reacts 754 times to learner deviant utterances: 45.2% (n= 341) are of morphosyntactic nature 36.5% (n= 275) of T1's reactions are directed at lexical errors, 7.7% (n= 58) at phonology, 4.9% (n= 37) at student use of the L1, 3.6% (n= 27) at learner silent responses and 2.1% (n= 16) at deviant content.

Regarding students' classroom levels of proficiency in the TL and their ages, we find differences concerning the nature of trigger sources of T1's reactive episodes. Lexical triggers originate more teacher reactions in Year 1 (64.3%; n= 18) and Year 2 (43.6%; n= 17). In contrast, learner morphosyntactical errors generate the highest number of T1's interventions in Year 3 (56.4%; n= 44), Year 5 (74.2%; n= 49) and Year 6 (42.5%; n= 209).

With reference to the amount of triggers, Year 6 students produce more deviant structures (65.3%; n= 492) since this classroom group gathers the less EFL proficient students. In most cases, learner uses of the L1 (6.5%; n= 32) and silent responses (4.9%; n= 24) at this level are produced by a sole complete beginner student (labelled in the corpus of T1- Year 6 as S3). She was a new pupil at the primary school and had never studied English before the academic year. In addition, she was also shy than her peers and was very reticent to use the target language at initial stages of the year as video recordings show.

Table 7.6 *Distribution of Learner Output Reacted to by T1 and her classrooms*

DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNER OUTPUT REACTED BY T1														
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonology		Morpho -syntax		L1		Silent response		Total	
Year	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	
1	18	64.3	0	.0	6	21.4	3	10.7	1	3.6	0	.0	28	
2	17	43.6	0	.0	5	12.8	15	38.5	1	2.6	1	2.6	39	
3	25	32.1	0	.0	6	7.7	44	56.4	2	2.6	1	1.3	78	
4	21	41.2	1	2.0	7	13.7	21	41.2	1	2.0	0	.0	51	
5	7	10.6	0	.0	9	13.6	49	74.2	0	.0	1	1.5	66	
6	187	38.0	15	3.0	25	5.1	209	42.5	32	6.5	24	4.9	492	
Total	275	36.5	16	2.1	58	7.7	341	45.2	37	4.9	27	3.6	754	100.0

Abbreviations: T: Teacher n: Number

7.1.1.2 The Implicit and Explicit Teacher 1 Reactive Moves

Table 7.7 displays the distributions of immediate T1's reactions after learner output. Elicitation (37.7%) is the most frequent teacher reaction that encourages students to self-correct. It is followed by metalinguistic feedback (19.2%), clarification requests (13.4%) and recasts (12.5%). The three aforementioned types of teacher reactions are said to promote negotiation of form in the classroom (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). T1 also adopts explicit forms of reactions such as explanations (12.5%), repetitions (1.9%), provide reactions (1.7%) and adjustments (1.2%).

We observe some differences in the teacher provision of reactive moves in relation to the classroom years. It appears that teacher recasts are most frequent (82.1%) for Year 1, which gathers younger kindergarten learners. Interestingly enough, as we mentioned in Chapter 4, parents conversing with children in L1 and L2 natural acquisition contexts (Oliver, 1995) also use this instructional strategy. T1 extensively provides elicitations in Year 3 (38.7%), Year 4 (43.1%), Year 5 (37.9%) and Year 6 (39.6%) in contrast to the other classroom levels.

Table 7.7 *Distribution of T1's reactions*

T1's REACTIONS	YEAR GRADE												Total	
	1		2		3		4		5		6			
EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Provide	1	3.6	2	5.1	0	.0	1	2.0	0	.0	9	1.8	13	1.7
Adjustment	0	.0	0	0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	9	1.8	9	1.2
Explanation	0	.0	1	2.6	10	12.8	2	3.9	1	1.5	80	16.3	94	12.5
IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recast	23	82.1	9	23.1	15	19.2	5	9.8	14	21.2	28	5.7	94	12.5
Clarification Request	0	.0	12	30.8	2	2.6	11	21.6	17	25.8	59	12.0	101	13.4
Repetition	0	.0	2	5.1	3	3.8	2	3.9	0	.0	7	1.4	14	1.9
Metalinguistic F.	0	.0	6	15.4	17	21.8	8	15.7	9	13.6	105	21.3	145	19.2
Elicitation	4	14.3	7	17.9	31	39.7	22	43.1	25	37.9	195	39.6	284	37.7
Total	28		39		78		51		66		492		754	100.0

Abbreviations: T: Teacher n: Number F.: feedback

Significantly, T1 supplies information about the correct foreign language forms more explicitly in the less proficient EFL groups. It seems the case with Year 6 lessons where the teacher assists learners with explicit reactions in the form of explanations with 16.3% of occurrences. Moreover, we find that 'recasts' are not 'isolated declarative' (Nabei & Swain, 2002). They are mostly combined with clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and repetitions in subsequent moves (see Section 6.18 and Appendix G):

Example 7.2

S1: The knights was brave.

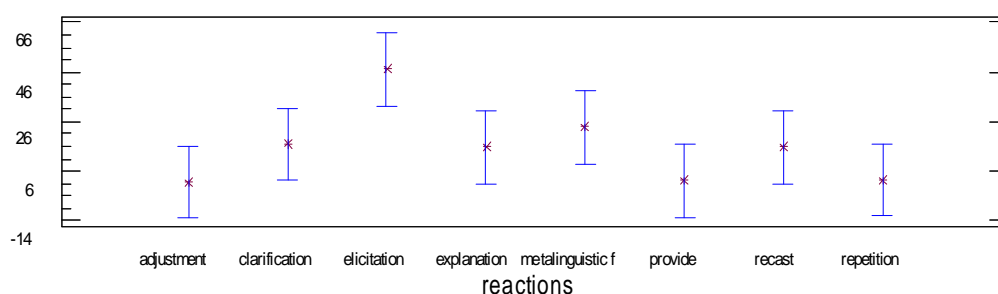
T1: The knights were brave.

S1: [silent response] (3.0)

T1: Was or were brave? Chantal.

The following figure represents means and 95% LSD intervals of teacher reactions in the T1 setting:

Fig. 7.4 Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of T1's Reactions



A two-way ANOVA was run in order to find out if the year level has any impact on the provision of teacher reactions in the T1 setting. The descriptive statistics in Table 7.8 decompose the variability of T1's reactions into contributions due to various factors, choosing one Type III sums of squares. The results show that the classroom year level factor is statistically significant at the 95.0% confidence level since the p-value is less than 0.05 (F-ratio= 6.39, P-value 0.0003 < 0.05).

Table 7.8 Analysis of variance for T1's Reactions - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: years	20332.2	5	4066.43	6.39	0.0003
B: reactions	9822.5	7	1403.23	2.20	0.0577
RESIDUAL	22275.2	35	636.43		
Total (Corrected)	52429.9	47			

All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

A Fisher LSD (Least Significant Difference) multiple range test compared T1's reactions and determined which means are significantly different from others in Table 7.9. At the top, 2 homogenous groups are identified using columns of Xs. Within each column, the levels containing Xs form a group of means within which there are no statistically significant differences among teacher reactions in the T1 setting. The bottom half

displays five matched pairs that showed prominent contrast at a level of confidence at 95% vis-à-vis Year 6.

Table 7.9 *Multiple Range Tests for T1's Reactions by Classroom Year Levels*

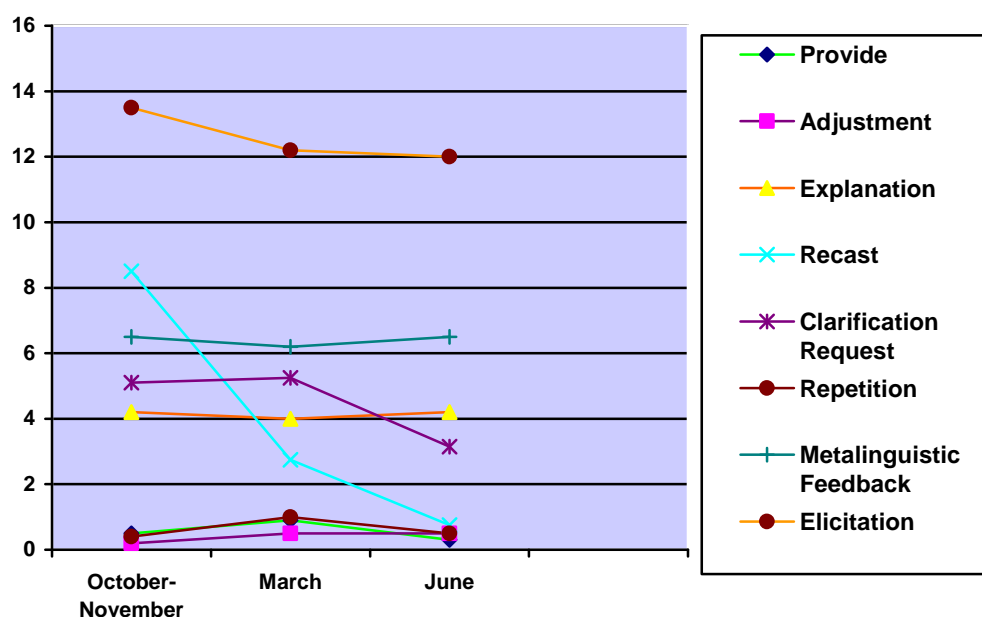
Method: 95.0 percent				
Years	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups
1	8	3.5	8.91931	X
2	8	4.875	8.91931	X
4	8	6.375	8.91931	X
5	8	8.25	8.91931	X
3	8	9.75	8.91931	X
6	8	61.5	8.91931	X

Contrast	Difference	+/- Limits
Years 1-2	-1.375	25.6075
Years 1-3	6.25	25.6075
Years 1-4	-2.875	25.6075
Years 1-5	-4.75	25.6075
Years 1-6	*-58.0	25.6075
Years 2-3	-4.875	25.6075
Years 2-4	-1.5	25.6075
Years 2-5	-3.375	25.6075
Years 2-6	*-56.625	25.6075
Years 3-4	3.375	25.6075
Years 3-5	1.5	25.6075
Years 3-6	*-51.75	25.6075
Years 4-5	-1.875	25.6075
Years 4-6	*-55.125	25.6075
Years 5-6	*-53.25	25.6075

* denotes a statistically significant difference.

Figure 7.5 presents the T1's percentages regarding the provision of teacher reactions to foreign language learner output throughout the three periods of data collection during one academic year. According to the data, T1 seems steady in providing elicitations and metalinguistic feedback. Nevertheless, in June the use of recasts gradually diminishes from 8.5% to 0.75%.

Fig. 7.5 Frequency of T1's reactions throughout the data collection period



7.1.1.3 Teacher 1's reactions and learner deviant linguistic forms

Table 7.10 represents the frequency distribution of immediate T1's reactions according to the nature of errors. Elicitation and metalinguistic feedback are delivered as corrective feedback for 70% of lexical errors. In contrast, adjustment is never used for lexical errors.

Table 7.10 Distribution of learner deviant forms and T1's reactions

DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNER DEVIANT FORMS AND T1's REACTIONS														
Trigger	Lexical		Content		Phonology		Morpho-syntax		L1		Silent Response		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
TEACHER REACTIONS														
Provide	2	0.7	0	.0	4	6.9	2	6	3	8.1	2	7.4	13	1.7
Adjustment	0	.0	0	.0	3	5.2	0	.0	6	16.2	0	.0	9	1.2
Explanation	10	3.6	3	18.8	5	8.6	68	19.9	5	13.5	3	11.1	94	12.5
Recast	29	10.5	0	.0	25	43.1	40	11.7	0	.0	0	.0	94	12.5
Clarification Request	39	14.2	8	50.0	7	12.1	40	11.7	7	18.9	0	.0	101	13.4
Repetition	2	0.7	0	.0	4	6.9	5	1.5	3	8.1	0	.0	14	1.9
Metalinguistic Feedback	63	22.9	2	12.5	2	3.4	72	21.1	3	8.1	3	11.1	145	19.2
Elicitation	130	47.3	3	18.8	8	13.8	114	33.4	10	27.0	19	70.4	284	37.7
Total	275	36.5	16	2.1	58	7.7	341	45.2	37	4.9	27	3.6	754	100.0

Abbreviations: n: Number L1: Mother tongue

In particular, elicitation is the recurrent reaction for morphosyntactical errors (33.4%). In addition, T1 uses elicitation for prompting target language student productions when learner silent responses occur (70.4%). Recasts are mostly adopted for addressing phonological errors (43.1%) but the teacher does not persistently apply it for the other types of FL learner inaccurate productions.

7.1.1.4 The distribution of uptake in T1's classrooms

Table 7.11 shows the frequency distribution of different types of learner uptake following each T1 reaction. In the T1 setting, students appear to generate uptake after the teacher reactions (83.2%). Nevertheless, there seems to be some differences in learner uptake regarding their ages and classroom levels.

Table 7.11 *Distribution of uptake in T1's classrooms*

LEARNER UPTAKE TYPES	T1's Classrooms													
	YEAR 1		YEAR 2		YEAR 3		YEAR 4		YEAR 5		YEAR 6		Total	
REPAIR	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Repetition	4	23.5	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	4	.6
Incorporation	2	11.8	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	2	.3
Self-repair	5	29.4	26	89.7	5	91.1	39	97.5	53	91.4	410	95.8	584	93.0
Peer-repair	5	29.4	3	10.3	4	7.1	0	.0	5	8.6	15	3.5	32	5.1
NEEDS-REPAIR	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recognition	1	5.9	0	.0	0	.0	1	2.5	0	.0	0	.0	2	.3
Same error	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Different error	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Off- target	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Hesitation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Partial repair	0	.0	0	.0	1	1.8	0	.0	0	.0	3	0.7	4	.6
Total	17		29		56		40		58		428		628	100.
	(28)		(39)		(78)		(51)		(66)		(492)		(754)	

Abbreviations: n: Number T: Teacher

Younger Year 1 students (29.4%) did not self-repair as the elder students (Years 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) who did so around 90%. Peer-repairs follow (5.1%). In Year 1, peer-repair is more frequent (4/5 ratio) in younger students who spontaneously responded to teacher reactions triggered by deviant forms which were initially generated by their schoolmates. Those learners were probably unaware of the canonical implicit rules of the classroom as the following example illustrates:

Example 7.3**S1:** The banana is *jaune* [Fr].**T1:** *Jaune?* [Fr]**S2:** Yellow.

It is also interesting to note that Year 1 students solely use repetitions (23.5%) and incorporations (11.8%). On the other hand, the distribution of needs-repair is minimal (recognition 0.3%; partial repair 0.6%) after examining all levels. Notwithstanding, we ran a two-way ANOVA and found no statistical impact on learner uptake after teacher reactions.

Table 7.12 shows that neither the classroom level nor year interact with the learner uptake at the 95.0% confidence level since the p-value is higher than 0.05 (F-ratio= 1.07, P-value= 0.3887). However, the effect of uptake alone is statistically significant since the p-value is less than 0.05 (F-ratio= 2.37, P-value= 0.0274).

Table 7.12 Analysis of Variance for Learner Uptake in T1 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Uptake	50446.9	9	5605.21	2.37	0.0274
B: Year	12668.3	5	2533.67	1.07	0.3887
RESIDUAL	106376.0	45	2363.9		
Total (Corrected)	52429.9	47			

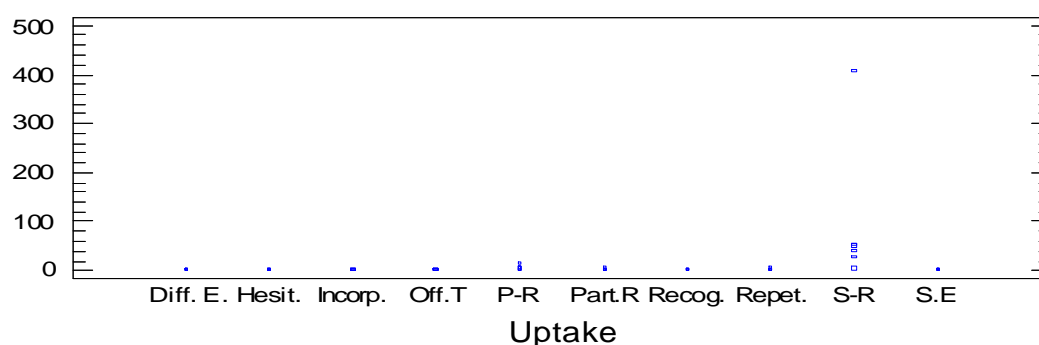
All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

In particular, self-repair largely stands out according to the data displayed in Tables 7.12, 7.13 and Figure 7.6.

Table 7.13 Multiple Range Tests for Learner Uptake in T1 setting

Method: 95.0 percent				
Uptake	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups
Different error	6	0.0	19.849	X
Same error	6	0.0	19.849	X
Hesitation	6	0.0	19.849	X
Off-target	6	0.0	19.849	X
Incorporation	6	0.3	19.849	X
Recognition	6	0.3	19.849	X
Repetition	6	0.6	19.849	X
Partial-repetition	6	0.6	19.849	X
Peer-repair	6	5.3	19.849	X
Self-repair	6	97.33	19.849	X

One scatter plot by level code displays self-repair as the most significant type of uptake. The more the points tend to cluster around a straight line, the more relevant is the value of the category variable.

Fig. 7.6 Scatter plot by Level Code for uptake in T1 setting

Abbreviations: **Diff. E.:** Different error **Hesit.:** Hesitation **Incorp.:** Incorporation
Off. T.: Off-target **P-R:** Peer-repair **Part. R.:** Partial-repetition
Recog.: Recognition **Repet.:** Repetition **S-R:** Self-repetition
S.E: Same error

7.1.1.5 Learner self-repairs following Teacher 1's reactions

T1's students self-repaired after 77.4% of immediate teacher reactions. Specifically, recasts did not result in high numbers of student-generated repair (38.2%). The students that present learner uptake after this type of teacher reaction seem to repeat the correct form supplied by T1. Globally, the corrective feedback type that leads to higher opportunities of learner self-repair is clarification request (94%). 'Metalinguistic

feedback' (93.7%) and 'elicitation' (91%) follow in ranking. Nevertheless, 'metalinguistic feedback' appears more successful at eliciting 'learner self-repair' with reference to ratios.

According to classroom years, it seems that younger learners in Years 1 (4.3%), Year 2 (0%) and Year 3 (13.3%) do not appear to respond explicitly that they noticed recasts as in Lyster's (1998a, 1998b) study and several other L1 studies (Marcus, 1993; Morgan et al., 1995). In contrast, elder students in Year 4 (100%) and Year 6 (75%) appear to attend more to the recasts and self-repaired deviant forms. The exception is in Year 5 where learners appear to notice recasts minimally (0.5%). However, when recasts are combined with other forms such as metalinguistic feedback, elicitations and clarification requests, they appear to be noticed more by learners, as can be observed in the transcriptions of Appendix G.

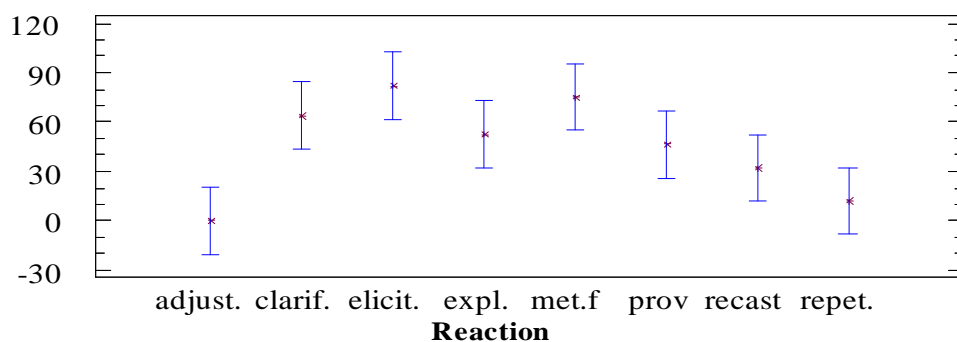
Table 7.14 Rate of Learner's self-repair following T1's reactions

SELF-REPAIR FOLLOWING T1's REACTIONS	YEAR GRADE												Total	
	1		2		3		4		5		6			
	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r
EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK														
Provide	1 (1)	100.	0 (2)	.0	0 (0)	.0	1 (1)	100.	0	.0	7 (9)	77.7	9 (13)	69.2
Adjustment	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	0	0	.0	0 (9)	.0	0 (9)	.0
Explanation	0	.0	1 (1)	100.	2 (10)	20.	1 (2)	50.	1 (1)	100.	37 (80)	46.2	42 (94)	44.6
IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK														
Recast	1 (23)	4.3	0 (9)	0.	2 (15)	13.3	5 (5)	100.	7 (14)	0.5	21 (28)	75.	36 (94)	38.2
Clarification Request	0	.0	11 (12)	91.6	0 (2)	.0	11 (11)	100.	16 (17)	94.1	57 (59)	96.6	95 (101)	94.
Repetition	0	.0	2 (2)	100.	0 (3)	.0	0 (2)	.0	0	.0	4 (7)	57.	6 (14)	42.
Metalinguistic Feedback	0	.0	6 (6)	100	17 (17)	100.	8 (8)	100.	5 (9)	55.5	100 (105)	95.2	136 (145)	93.7
Elicitation	3 (4)	75.	5 (7)	71.4	30 (31)	96.7	13 (22)	59.	24 (25)	96.	184 (195)	94.3	259 (284)	91.1
Total	5 (28)	17.8	25 (39)	64.	51 (78)	65.3	39 (51)	76.4	53 (66)	80.3	410 (492)	83.3	584 (754)	77.4

Abbreviations: n: Number r: Rate

The following figure represents the means and 95% LSD intervals of learner self-repair after different types of T1 reactions:

Fig. 7.7 Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of learner self-repair after teachers' reactions in T1 setting



Abbreviations: **adjust.:** Adjustment **clarif.:** Clarification **elicit.:** Elicitation
expl.: Explanation **met. f.:** Metalinguistic feedback **prov.:** Provide
repet.: Repetition

The factorial ANOVA table examines if differences in the types of learner self-repair and the year levels are relevant in the T1 setting (see also Fig.7.8). The statistical test shows that self-repair might have significant values given that the p-value is less than 0.05 (F-Ratio= 4.23, P-value= 0.0018) at a 95% confidence level. In contrast, the classroom year levels do not seem to interact statistically with the results.

Table 7.15 Analysis of Variance for Learner Self-repair in T1 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Years	13161.9	5	2632.39	2.17	0.0793
B: Self-repair	35810.4	7	5115.77	4.23	0.0018
RESIDUAL	42369.2	35	1210.55		
Total (Corrected)	91341.5	47			

All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

A Fisher's LSD (Least Significant Difference) multiple range test compared the types of self-repair whose means are appreciably different from others (Table 7.16). In the top of the table, 4 homogenous groups are identified using columns of Xs which have no relevant statistical features among them. An asterisk has been placed next to 10 pairs, indicating that they show statistically significant differences at the 95.0% confidence level.

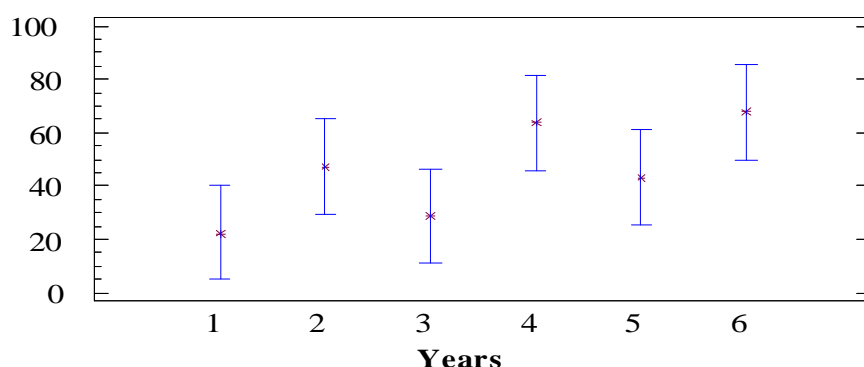
Table 7.16 Multiple Range Tests for Self-repair after T1s' reactions

Method: 95.0 percent				
Self-repair trigger	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups
adjustment	6	0.0	14.2042	X
repetition	6	12.0	14.2042	XX
recast	6	32.183	14.2042	XXX
provision	6	46.283	14.2042	XXX
explanation	6	52.7	14.2042	XXX
clarification	6	63.7167	14.2042	XX
metalinguistic feed.	6	75.1167	14.2042	X
elicitation	6	82.0667	14.2042	X

Contrast	Difference	+/- Limits
adjustment - clarification	*-63.7167	40.7803
adjustment - elicitation	*-82.0667	40.7803
adjustment - explanation	*-52.7	40.7803
adjustment - metalinguistic f	*-75.1167	40.7803
adjustment - provide	*-46.2833	40.7803
adjustment - recast	-32.1833	40.7803
adjustment - repetition	-12.0	40.7803
clarification - elicitation	-18.35	40.7803
clarification - explanation	11.0167	40.7803
clarification - metalinguistic.f	-11.4	40.7803
clarification - provision	17.4333	40.7803
clarification - recast	31.5333	40.7803
clarification - repetition	*51.7167	40.7803
elicitation - explanation	29.3667	40.7803
elicitation - metalinguistic.f	6.95	40.7803
elicitation - provide	35.7833	40.7803
elicitation - recast	*49.8833	40.7803
elicitation - repetition	*70.0667	40.7803
explanation - metalinguistic.f	-22.4167	40.7803
explanation - provide	6.41667	40.7803
explanation - recast	20.5167	40.7803
explanation - repetition	40.7	40.7803
metalinguistic f. - provide	28.8333	40.7803
metalinguistic f. - recast	*42.9333	40.7803
metalinguistic.f - repetition	*63.1167	40.7803
provide - recast	14.1	40.7803
provide - repetition	34.2833	40.7803
recast - repetition	20.1833	40.7803

* denotes a statistically significant difference.

Fig. 7.8 Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of self-repair per classroom level year in T1 setting



7.1.1.6 Uptake and target language error repair

Table 7.17 and Figure 7.9 illustrate the linguistic targets of T1's reactions and the rate of learner repairs. In general, 77.4% of reacted learner products is repaired by learners. The highest rate of repair corresponds to lexical errors (91.2%), followed by morphosyntax (79.1%), and phonology (68.9%). T1's reactions to learner content errors generate the lowest numbers of learner repairs (0%), followed by learner L1 uses (27%) and learner silent responses (48.1%). Regarding classroom level years, it appears that elder students self-repaired more (Year 6: 83.3%; Year 5: 80.3% and Year 4: 76.4%) in contrast to the youngest students (Year 1: 17.8%).

Table 7.17 Distribution of target language repair of T1's students

RATE OF TARGET LANGUAGE REPAIRS OF T1'S STUDENTS														
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonology		Morphosyntax		L1		Silent response		Total	
Year	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r
1	4 (18)	22.2	0	.0	0 (6)	.0	0 (3)	.0	1 (1)	100	0	.0	5 (28)	17.8
2	16 (17)	94.1	0	.0	4 (5)	80.	5 (15)	33.3	1 (1)	100.	0 (1)	.0	26 (39)	66.6
3	23 (25)	85.7	0	.0	2 (6)	33.3	26 (44)	59.	0 (2)	.0	0 (1)	.0	51 (78)	65.3
4	18 (21)	85.7	0 (1)	.0	6 (7)	85.7	15 (21)	71.4	0 (1)	.0	0	.0	39 (51)	76.4
5	5 (7)	71.4	0	.0	9 (9)	100.	38 (49)	77.5	0	.0	1 (1)	100.	53 (66)	80.3
6	185 (187)	98.9	0 (15)	.0	19 (25)	36.	186 (209)	88.9	8 (32)	25.	12 (24)	50.	410 (492)	83.3
Total	251 (275)	91.2	0 (16)	.0	40 (58)	68.9	270 (341)	79.1	10 (37)	27.	13 (27)	48.1	584 (754)	77.4

Abbreviations: n: Number r: Rate

Fig. 7.9 Scatter plot for Self-repaired target language errors in T1 setting

Abbreviations: **Lex.:** Lexical **Morph.:** Morphosyntax **Phon.:** Phonology
Silent R.: Silent response

One factorial ANOVA was applied in order to determine if there is one interrelationship between the target language errors repaired and the classroom year levels. The following table depicts that only the effect of self-repaired TL errors is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.0170 < 0.05$).

Table 7.18 Analysis of Variance for Self-repair FL target and classroom level in T1 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Self-repaired TL errors	21671.6	5	4334.31	3.43	0.017
B: Year	6170.91	5	1234.18	0.98	0.4514
RESIDUAL	31603.2	25	1264.13		
Total (Corrected)	59445.7	35			

All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

7.1.1.7 Teacher 1's view on the phenomenon

Teacher 1 presented her views about TREs by means of questionnaires and informal interviews, which were held after the lessons and after viewing recordings with the researcher and which tackled about general teaching practices. The most relevant ones are:

- T1 agreed that communicating in a foreign language is more important than mastering its grammar. She highly believed that encouraging students' fluency in the TL was foremost but studying grammar is also a key to learning languages.
- She disagreed that communication breakdowns for explanations and corrections about the TL are annoying. Nevertheless, she claimed that it is not beneficial to pick up on every single mistake.
- She claimed that she corrected and interrupted discourse depending on the age and TL proficiency level of the learner. For her, younger students are less attentive to corrections.
- This instructor acknowledged that it is challenging for students when the teacher does not deliver correction and asks for another student or the class to fix the errors. She claimed that it is a principle of cooperation in classroom learning.
- She pointed out that she only corrected aspects that are crucially important for learner knowledge in relation to their interlanguage.
- She felt that she gave students more opportunities and time to self-correct themselves so learners might learn more and get more involved in learning activities when realising their mistakes. In addition, she believed that this practice might potentially help learners memorise TL points better.
- She perceived that she could allow more error self-correction in the small group classrooms and that elder students are more aware of grammar.
- She considered that Year 1 students and the less proficient ones had less capacity to understand self-correction.
- T1 agreed to codeswitch to make explanations comprehensible for learners when necessary. She justified that the L1 was a necessary tool for facilitating learner comprehension of grammar or tasks especially for less proficient students.
- She agreed that positive feedback is necessary for motivating students to learn.
- She felt that students in an immersion school have a stronger urge to communicate using the target language. For this special school, the international environment and activities encourages them to do so.

7.1.2 Teacher 2 setting: Advanced English Immersion

7.1.2.1 Trigger sources of TREs

T2 instructs the near-native English speakers' classrooms. This fact seems to account for the minimal learner deviant forms displays in the target language (n= 43) as shown in Table 7.19. Morphosyntactical learner structures (n= 21; 48.8%) are more recurrent triggers than lexical (n= 15; 34.9%) and phonological (n= 7; 16.3%) ones. However, there are differences regarding students' proficiency levels and their ages. Lexical errors are more usual in Year 1 (83.3%) and Year 2 (60%). Notwithstanding, morphosyntactical deviant structures are more common for Year 3 (66.7%), Year 4 (55.6%), Year 5 (71.4%) and Year 6 (50%).

Table 7.19 *Distribution of Learner Output Reacted by T2 and her classrooms*

DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNER OUTPUT REACTED BY T2														
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonology		Morpho-syntax		L1		Silent response		Total	
Year	n	%	n	%	N	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	
1	5	83.3	0	.0	1	16.7	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	6	
2	3	60.0	0	.0	1	20.0	1	20.0	0	.0	0	.0	5	
3	1	8.3	0	.0	3	25.0	8	66.7	0	.0	0	.0	12	
4	3	33.3	0	.0	1	11.1	5	55.6	0	.0	0	.0	9	
5	2	28.6	0	.0	0	.0	5	71.4	0	.0	0	.0	7	
6	1	25.0	0	.0	1	25.0	2	50.0	0	.0	0	.0	4	
Total	15	34.9	0	.0	7	16.3	21	48.8	0	.0	0	.0	43	100.0

Abbreviations: T: Teacher n: Number

7.1.2.2 The Implicit and Explicit Teacher 2 Reactive Moves

In general, T2 appears to react to learner deviant structures evenly at all levels using more immediate implicit teacher reactive forms than explicit ones in the form of recasts (81.4%). Recasting is mostly frequent for Year 1 and Year 2 accounting for more than 90% of the cases as Table 7.20 illustrates. The use of clarification requests follows with 2 cases in Years 5 and 6 and only 2 elicitations take place in Year 2. Only one case of explicit negative feedback in the form of one 'provide reaction' is found in Year 3.

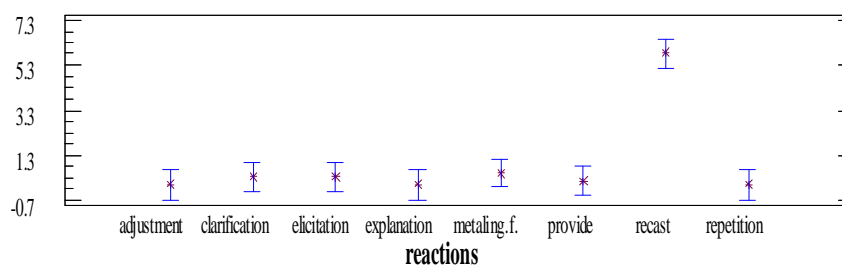
Table 7.20 Distribution of T2's reactions

T2's REACTIONS	YEAR GRADE												Total	
	1		2		3		4		5		6			
EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Provide	0	.0	0	.0	1	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1	2.3
Adjustment	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Explanation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recast	6	100	5	100	11	91.7	6	66.7	4	57.1	3	75.0	35	81.4
Clarification Request	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1	14.3	1	25.0	2	4.7
Repetition	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Metalinguistic Feedback	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1	11.1	2	28.6	0	.0	3	7.0
Elicitation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	2	22.2	0	.0	0	.0	2	4.7
Total	6		5		12		9		7		4		43	100.0

Abbreviations: T: Teacher n: Number

The following figure represents the means and 95% LSD intervals of teacher reactions in the T2 setting.

Fig. 7.10 Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of T2s' Reactions



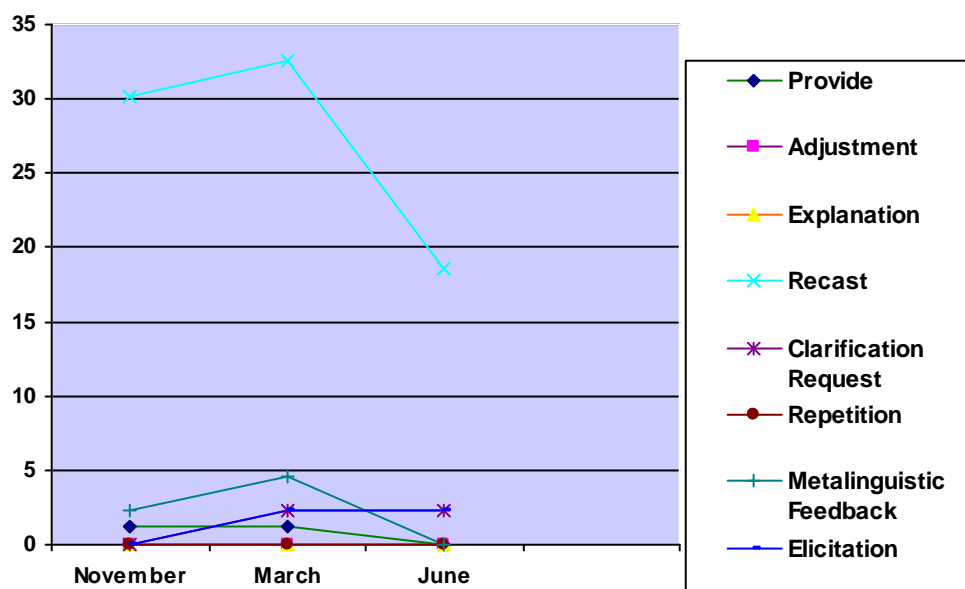
A factorial ANOVA (Table 7.21) examined the effects of the variables of classroom levels and types of reactions in the T2 setting. The results show that the classroom year level factor is not statistically significant at the 95.0% confidence level (F -ratio= 0.88, P -value 0.5032 > 0.05). In contrast, the effect of reactions is relevant (F -ratio= 19.85, P -Value= 0.0000 < 0.05) in which the use of recasts (81.4%) stands out.

Table 7.21 Analysis of Variance for T2's Reactions - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Years	5.35417	5	1.07083	0.88	0.5032
B: Reactions	168.646	7	24.0923	19.85	0.0000
RESIDUAL	42.4792	35	1.21369		
Total (Corrected)	216.479	47			

All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error

Concerning the provision of TRs throughout different periods of the year, T2 seems to react in even ways with “provides” (2.35% of use). However, in June those teacher reactive forms are not used any longer, as Figure 7.11 shows. Elicitations are adopted evenly by the T2 (2.3%) from March to June.

Fig. 7.11 Frequency of T2's reactions throughout the data collection period

Regarding the use of recasts, they occur throughout the different times of data collection. Nevertheless, their proportions drop considerably by 14 points from a 32% average range use in June. On the contrary, metalinguistic feedback moves are unequally adopted by T2 throughout the year since progression goes from 2.3% of use in November, rising to 4.6% in March and fall in disuse from June.

7.1.2.3 Teacher 2's reactions and learner deviant linguistic forms

Table 7.22 shows that T2 uses recasts more recurrently (81.4%) to react to learner deviant forms involving, originally, lexically (80%) and morphosyntactically (81%) inaccurate FL structures. This result is similar to Mackey, Perdue, Gass and McDonough's study (2000). The usage of metalinguistic feedback exclusively deals with morphosyntactical errors (14.3%). Clarification requests (4.7%) are often triggered by lexical (6.7%) and morphosyntactic learner deviant forms (4.8%). Finally, elicitations are induced by deviant lexical structures (13.3%).

Table 7.22 *Distribution of learner deviant forms and T2's Reactions*

DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNER DEVIANT FORMS AND T2's REACTIONS														
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonological		Morpho-syntax		L1		Silent Response		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Provide	0	.0	0	.0	1	14.3	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1	2.3
Adjustment	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Explanation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Recast	12	80.0	0	.0	6	85.7	17	81.0	0	.0	0	.0	35	81.4
Clarification Request	1	6.7	0	.0	0	.0	1	4.8	0	.0	0	.0	2	4.7
Repetition	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Metalinguistic Feedback	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	3	14.3	0	.0	0	.0	3	7.0
Elicitation	2	13.3	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	2	4.7
Total	15	34.9	0	.0	7	16.3	21	48.8	0	.0	0	.0	43	100.0

Abbreviation: n: Number

7.1.2.4 The distribution of uptake in T2's classrooms

The following table and the scatter plot (Fig. 7.12) show how T2 reacts less to learner output. Therefore, her students generated fewer uptakes (1.4%) in the forms of self-repair and other repair. Nevertheless, repetitions (Year 4, n=2) cannot be considered as successful uptake since they consist of mere parroting of corrected utterances provided by the T2. There is one case where one student in Year 1 produced the same error.

Table 7.23 Distribution of Uptake in T2's classrooms

LEARNER UPTAKE TYPES	T2's Classrooms												Total	
	YEAR 1		YEAR 2		YEAR 3		YEAR 4		YEAR 5		YEAR 6		n	%
REPAIR	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Repetition	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	2	66.7	0	.0	0	.0	2	33.3
Incorporation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Self-repair	1	50.	1	100	0	.0	1	33.3	0	.0	0	.0	3	50.0
Peer-repair	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
NEEDS-REPAIR	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recognition	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Same error	1	50.	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1	16.7
Different error	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Off-target	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Hesitation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Partial repair	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Total	2 (6)		1 (5)		0 (12)		3 (9)		0 (4)		0 (4)		6 (43)	100.

Abbreviation: n: Number

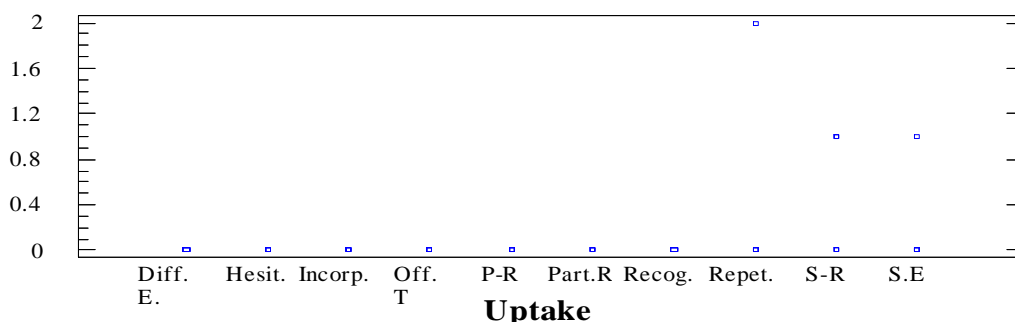
In order to find out if the year level has any impact on learner uptake after teacher reactions a two-way ANOVA was carried out in the T2 setting (Table 7.24). Neither main effects, that is, the uptake ($p\text{-value} = 0.0987 > 0.05$) and the years ($p\text{-value} = 0.2154 > 0.05$) are statistically significant.

Table 7.24 Analysis of Variance for Learner Uptake in T2 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Uptake	1.73333	9	0.192593	1.78	0.0987
B: Year	0.8	5	0.16	1.48	0.2154
RESIDUAL	4.86667	45	0.108148		
Total (Corrected)	7.4	59			

All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

Fig. 7.12 Scatter plot by Level Code for uptake in T2 setting



Abbreviations: Diff. E: Different error Hesit.: Hesitation Incorp.: Incorporation
 Off. T.: Off-target P-R: Peer-repair Part. R.: Partial-repetition
 Recog.: Recognition Repet.: Repetition S-R: Self-repetition
 S.E: Same error

7.1.2.5 Learner self-repairs following Teacher 2’s reactions

T2 reacts to foreign language learner output less as we have previously mentioned. Table 7.25 displays the rate of learner self-repairs. T2’s students generate minimal repair in this Advanced English immersion setting (6.9%).

Table 7.25 Rate of learner self-repair following T2’s reactions

SELF-REPAIR FOLLOWING T2’s REACTIONS	YEAR GRADE												Total	
	1		2		3		4		5		6		n	r
EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r
Provide	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Adjustment	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Explanation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r
Recast	1	16.6	1	20.	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	2	5.7
Clarification Request	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Repetition	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Metalinguistic Feedback	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Elicitation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1	50.	0	.0	0	.0	1	50.
Total	1	16.6	1	20.	0	.0	1	11.1	0	0.	0	0.	3	6.9

Abbreviations: n: Number r: Rate

It appears that recasts do not lead to student-generated repair to a higher extent (5.7%). Possibly students were not aware that the teacher was providing feedback aimed at learner self-repairing. Nor did the teacher want to force them to do it according to her teaching and SLA beliefs. 'Provide' and 'metalinguistic feedback' did not produce learner self-repairs. Out of 2 elicitations only 1 triggered a learner self-repair.

A Fisher LSD (Least Significant Difference) multiple range test (below) per year and types of uptake after teacher reactions (Tables 7.26 and 7.27) shows no significant contrasts between pairs.

Fig. 7.13 Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of Uptake per classroom level year in T2 setting

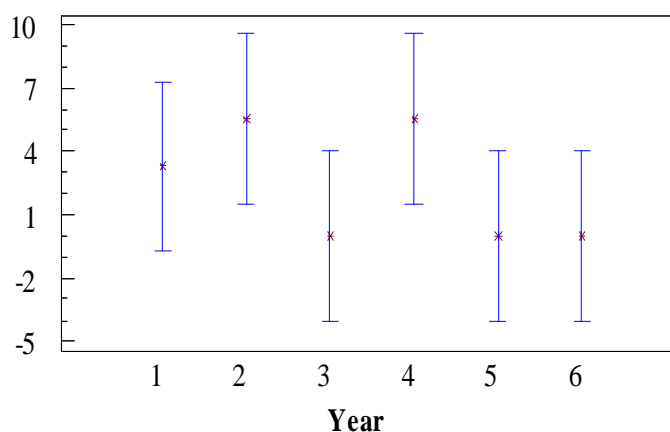


Table 7.26 Multiple Range Tests for Self-repair after T2's reactions per year

Method: 95.0 percent				
Years	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups
5	8	0.0	2.8629	X
6	8	0.0	2.8629	X
3	8	0.0	2.8629	X
1	8	2.075	2.8629	X
2	8	2.5	2.8629	X
4	8	6.25	2.8629	X

Table 7.27 Multiple Range Tests for Self-repair after T2's reactions per type

Method: 95.0 percent				
Self-repair trigger	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups
adjustment	6	0.0	3.30579	X
explanation	6	0.0	3.30579	X
metalinguistic.f	6	0.0	3.30579	X
clarification	6	0.0	3.30579	X
provision	6	0.0	3.30579	X
repetition	6	0.0	3.30579	X
recast	6	6.1	3.30579	X
elicitation	6	8.33333	3.30579	X

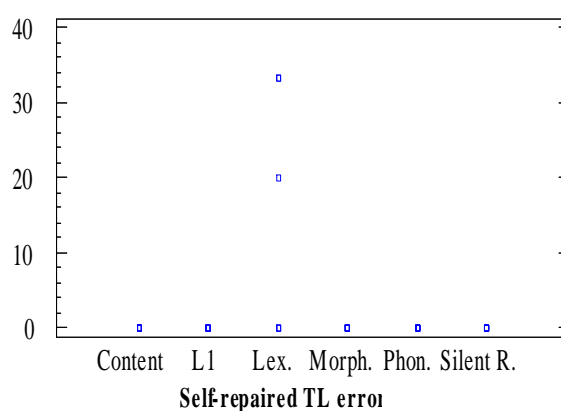
7.1.2.6 Uptake and target language error repair

We observe in Table 7.28 that T2 reacts more to learner deviant structures regarding morphosyntax but her students do not significantly self-correct (6.9%). In contrast, students self-repair at the highest levels to lexical targets (20%). However, the learner repair rate fixing 3 deviant productions is out of 15. In general, deviant forms involving phonology and morphosyntax were not self-repaired.

Table 7.28 Distribution of target language repair of T2's students

RATE OF TARGET LANGUAGE REPAIRS OF T2'S STUDENTS														
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonology		Morpho-syntax		L1		Silent response		Total	
Year	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r
1	1 (5)	20.	0	.0	0 (1)	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1 (6)	16.6
2	1 (3)	33.3	0	.0	0 (1)	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1 (5)	20.
3	0 (1)	0.	0	.0	0 (3)	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0 (12)	0.
4	1 (3)	33.3	0	.0	0 (1)	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	1 (9)	11.1
5	0 (2)	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0 (7)	0.
6	0 (1)	.0	0	.0	0 (1)	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0 (5)	0.
Total	3 (15)	20.	0	.0	0 (7)	.0	0	0.	0	0.	0	0.	3 (43)	6.9

Abbreviations: n: Number r: Rate

Fig. 7.14 Scatter plot for Self-repaired target language errors in T2 setting

Abbreviations: **Lex.:** Lexical **Morph.:** Morphosyntax **Phon.:** Phonology
Silent R.: Silent response

One possible explanation for the low rate of rigorous learner perception for morphosyntax could be that this feature does not seem to be crucial for understanding (e.g., agreement, plural formation). This fact differs with accurate lexical usages that T2's students perceived better and might interfere with message comprehension. Nevertheless, we cannot give one explanation about the fact that students totally ignored teacher reactions that originally addressed FL phonological problems.

Learner self-repair cases after teacher reactions were analysed applying one factorial ANOVA. This test determined whether there is one interrelationship between the target language errors repaired and the classroom year levels. The following table depicts that only the effect of self-repaired TL errors is statistically relevant ($p\text{-value} = 0.0170 < 0.05$).

Table 7.29 Analysis of Variance for Self-repair FL target and classroom level in T2 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Self-repaired TL errors	1041.61	5	208.321	4.57	0.0043
B: Year	227.976	5	45.5951	1.00	0.4381
RESIDUAL	1139.88	25	45.5951		
Total (Corrected)	2409.46	35			

All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

7.1.2.7 Teacher 2's view on the phenomenon

Teacher 2 expressed her views about TREs in questionnaires, informal interviews and after watching video recordings from her classrooms with the researcher:

- T2 agreed that communication breakdowns for explanations and corrections are annoying. She expressed that she did not want to destroy the flow of the task by butting in with error correction.
- She was against error correction since it disheartens students. She preferred to correct students when necessary using less intrusively teacher reactions such as “reformulating” (that is, recasting). She explained that when she taught in a bilingual school in California, teachers were forbidden to correct students very explicitly and on the spot for not producing anxiety. This view was encouraged by Krashen (see Chapter 1, Sections 1.1 and 1.4) and implemented in bilingual programmes in the USA. This attitude was possibly reflected in her teacher's reaction styles captured in video recordings. This teacher did not intervene very much providing feedback to learners.
- She believed that it is challenging for students when the teacher does not correct deviant structures and asks another student or the class to fix the errors.
- She claimed that positive feedback is necessary for motivating students to learn.
- T2 felt that the student's use of the mother tongue is not beneficial in her classrooms and strongly disagreed in code-switching since students would be less forced to attend the lesson. Additionally, she could not use French in her classrooms because she did not master that language. She considered that her students are near-native and highly proficient that she did not feel that they needed correction as acquisition occurs naturally. Furthermore, she claimed that children's ears become easily tuned to native accents, speech patterns and expressions.
- She supposed that providing learners with correct linguistic models facilitates acquisition.

7.1.3 Teacher 3 setting: Spanish as a FL Immersion

7.1.3.1 Trigger sources of TREs

Table 7.30 reports that T3's reactions mostly covered morphosyntactical learner triggers with 51.4% (n= 200) out of 389 occurrences, followed by lexical errors with 35.5% (n=138), content errors with 3.9% (n= 15) and learner uses of the L1 with 3.1% (n=12). A general feature of the Spanish immersion is that the students' mother tongues are forbidden to be spoken in classrooms. Nevertheless, T3's students inevitably used them.

As we can observe, there are no significant differences in the types of learner deviant productions between Years 9 and 10. The exceptions are the learner phonological deviant structures in which the teacher seems to intervene more (Year 9: 3.4%; Year 10: 9.6%). Likewise, there are differences in inaccurate contents (Year 9: 1%; Year 10: 7.2%).

Table 7.30 *Distribution of Learner Output Reacted by T3 and his classrooms*

DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNER OUTPUT REACTED BY T3													
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonology		Morphosyntax		L1		Silent response		Total
Year	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
9	68	32.7	2	1.0	7	3.4	124	59.6	7	3.4	0	.0	208
10	70	38.7	13	7.2	17	9.4	76	42.0	5	2.8	0	.0	181
Total	138	35.5	15	3.9	24	6.2	200	51.4	12	3.1	0	.0	389

Abbreviations: T: Teacher n: Number

7.1.3.2 The Implicit and Explicit Teacher 3 Reactive Moves

Table 7.31 represents the teacher reactions to L3 Spanish Foreign Language Learner Output at the secondary school. Out of 389 T3 reactions, elicitation (n= 123) is the largest immediate teacher reaction accounting for 31.6% of the occurrences. The second recurrent one is repetition (24.7%). However, we find differences in provision between Year 9 (18.8%) and Year 10 (31.5%).

We find that clarification request follows with 17.2 percent totality of T3's reactions. In contrast to the other teachers, T3 does not use recasts extensively with FL deviant productions (2.8%).

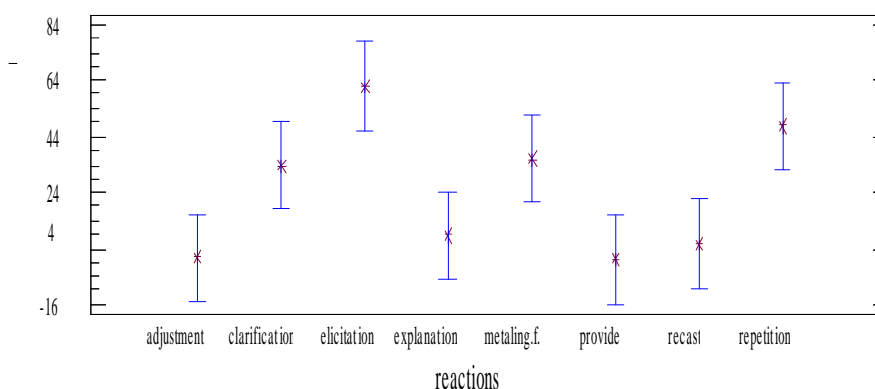
Table 7.31 *Distribution of T3's reactions*

T3's REACTIONS	YEAR GRADE				Total	
	9		10			
EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	%	n	%	n	%
Provide	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Adjustment	0	.0	2	1.1	2	0.5
Explanation	4	1.9	14	7.7	18	4.6
IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recast or Reformulation	4	1.9	7	3.9	11	2.8
Clarification Request	31	14.9	36	19.9	67	17.2
Repetition	39	18.8	57	31.5	96	24.7
Metalinguistic Feedback	54	26.0	18	9.9	72	18.5
Elicitation	76	36.5	47	26.0	123	31.6
Total	208		181		389	100.0

Abbreviation: T: Teacher n: Number

Regarding the classroom years, T3 supplies more teacher reactions involving explanations in Year 10 (7.7%) than in Year 9 (1.9%). The reason for this could be that in lower levels students might not understand the teacher giving such details in the TL since learners are complete beginners in Spanish.

The following figure represents the means and 95% LSD intervals of teacher reactions in the T3 setting:

Fig. 7.15 *Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of T3's Reactions*

A two-way ANOVA was also conducted in order to determine if the classroom level and the reactions are significant (Table 7.32). The statistical test shows that only the effect of reactions might have significant values given that the p-value is less than 0.05 (F-Ratio= 6.20, P-value= 0.0140) at a 95% confidence level.

Table 7.32 Analysis of Variance for T3's Reactions - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Year	45.5625	1	45.5625	0.25	0.6295
B: Reactions	7775.94	7	1110.85	6.20	0.0140
RESIDUAL	1253.94	7	179.134		
Total (Corrected)	9075.44	15			

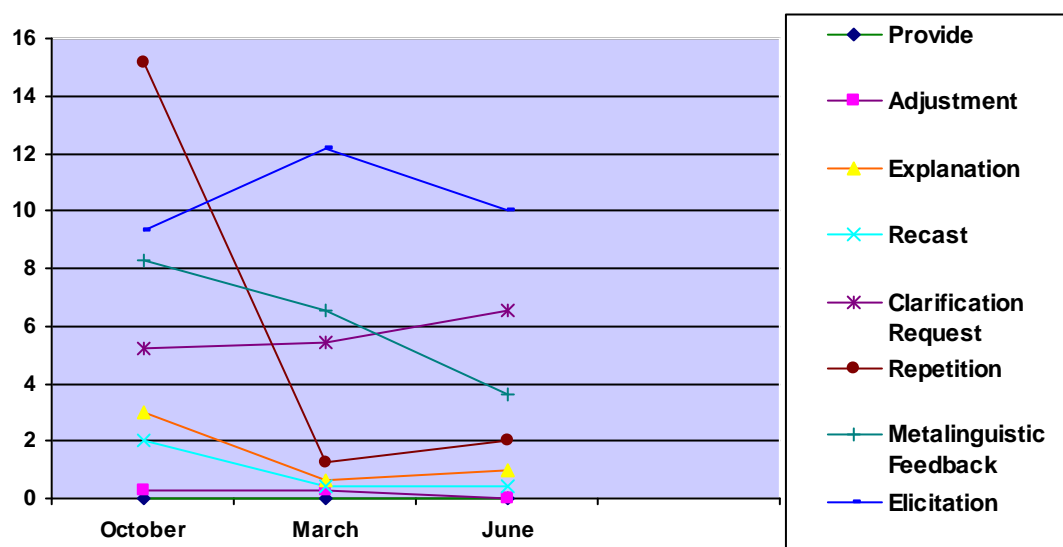
A Fisher's LSD (Least Significant Difference) multiple range test (Table 7.33) compared T3's reactions and determined which means are significantly different from which others. At the top, 1 homogenous group is identified using columns of Xs. Within each column, the levels containing Xs form a group of means within which there are no statistically significant differences among teacher reactions in the T3 setting contrasting the Year 9 and Year 10 variety of reactions.

Table 7.33 Multiple Range Tests for Classroom Year Levels in T3 settings

Method: 95.0 percent				
Years	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups
10	8	22.625	4.73199	X
9	8	26.0	4.73199	X
Contrast	Difference		+/- Limits	
Years 9 - 10	3.375		15.8242	

Figure 7.16 displays the frequency of the T3 reactions throughout the academic year at three periods. It seems that he reacts evenly to learner output, except repetitions and explicit providing, that are used progressively less, favouring clarification requests from March to June.

Fig. 7.16 Frequency of T3's reactions throughout the data collection period



7.1.3.3 Teacher 3's reactions and learner deviant linguistic forms

T3 uses more elicitions (31.6%) for most errors excepting learner silent responses as Table 7.34 shows. Distinctively, learner phonological errors induce metalinguistic feedback (20.8%) and elicitation (25.0%). Elicitations in most cases were addressed for students' L1 uses. Repetitions targeted morphosyntactic problems (31.16%). Interestingly enough, T3 uses metalinguistic feedback for content errors to a higher extent (46.7%).

Table 7.34 Distribution of learner deviant forms and T3's Reactions

DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNER DEVIANT FORMS AND T3's REACTIONS														
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonological		Morpho-Syntax		L1		Silent Response		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
TEACHER REACTIONS														
Provide	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Adjustment	0	.0	0	.0	2	8.3	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0	2	0.5
Explanation	7	5.1	7	46.7	0	.0	4	2.0	0	.0	0	.0	18	4.6
Recast	2	1.4	0	.0	4	16.7	5	2.5	0	.0	0	.0	11	2.8
Clarification Request	25	18.1	3	20.0	0	.0	39	19.5	0	.0	0	.0	67	17.2
Repetition	27	19.6	0	.0	7	29.2	62	31.0	0	.0	0	.0	96	24.7
Metalinguistic Feedback	29	21.0	5	33.3	5	20.8	33	16.5	0	.0	0	.0	72	18.5
Elicitation	48	34.8	0	.0	6	25.0	57	28.5	12	100.0	0	.0	123	31.6
Total	138	35.5	15	3.9	24	6.2	200	51.4	12	3.1	0	.0	389	100.0

Abbreviation: n: Number

7.1.3.4 The distribution of uptake in T3's classrooms

T3 forced his students to produce 100% uptake in Years 9 and 10. Transcripts and Table 7.35 show that students who originally generated a deviant structure were obliged to repeat the whole corrected form. It was even the case when correction was transferred to a peer (Year 1: 1.9%; Year 2: 3.3 %). In this way, the teacher ensures that learners who were unable to self-correct could highly attend to their mistakes in the target language.

Possibly, cases of self-repair outnumbered 95% and could be influenced by T3's specific practice. In contrast to the T1 and T2 settings, learner self-repairs are generated in higher proportions.

Peer-repair is lower (2.6%) on average. Nevertheless, it is slightly higher in Year 10 (3.3%) as some students seemed to have mastered Spanish better and appeared to be more eager to participate as some transcripts show. Interestingly enough, mere repetition is lower (1.8%). There is only one case of learner recognition but the teacher did not react to it. However, it cannot be determined if the teacher was lenient in treating that deviant form or simply disregarded it due to lack of attention.

Table 7.35 *Distribution of Learner Uptake in T3's classrooms*

LEARNER UPTAKE TYPES	T3's Classrooms					
	YEAR 9		YEAR 10		Total	
REPAIR	n	%	n	%	n	%
Repetition	5	2.4	2	1.1	7	1.8
Incorporation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Self-repair	198	95.2	173	95.6	371	95.4
Peer-repair	4	1.9	6	3.3	10	2.6
NEEDS-REPAIR	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recognition	1	0.5	0	.0	1	0.3
Same error	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Different error	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Off-target	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Hesitation	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Partial repair	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Total	208 (208)	100.	181 (181)	100.	389 (389)	100.

Abbreviation: n: Number

A two-way ANOVA examined statistically the relevance of the year level on learner uptake. Table 7.36 shows that the classroom year does not interact with the learner

uptake at the 95.0% confidence level since the p-value is less than 0.05 (F-ratio= 216.67, P-value= 0.0000).

Table 7.36 Analysis of Variance for Learner Uptake in T3 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Uptake	61329.4	9	6814.38	216.67	0.0000
B: Year	36.45	1	36.45	1.16	0.3097
RESIDUAL	283.05	9	31.45		
Total (Corrected)	61648.9	19			

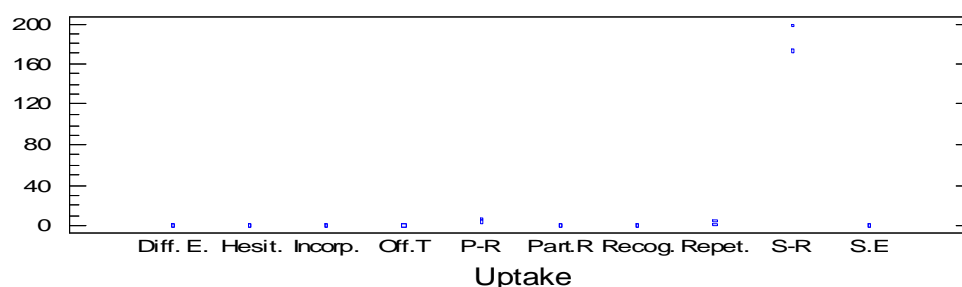
All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

In contrast, self-repair types stand out more statistically, according to the data displayed in Tables 7.37 and Figure 7.17.

Table 7.37 Multiple Range Tests for Uptake in T3 setting

Method: 95.0 percent					
Uptake	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups	
Different error	2	0.0	3.96548	X	
Off-target	2	0.0	3.96548	X	
Partial repair	2	0.0	3.96548	X	
Incorporation	2	0.0	3.96548	X	
Hesitation	2	0.0	3.96548	X	
Same error	2	0.0	3.96548	X	
Recognition	2	0.5	3.96548	X	
Repetition	2	3.5	3.96548	X	
Peer-repair	2	5.0	3.96548	X	
Self-repair	2	185.5	3.96548	X	

Fig. 7.17 Scatter plot by Level Code for uptake in T3 setting



Abbreviations: **Diff. E.:** Different error **Hesit.:** Hesitation **Incorp.:** Incorporation
Off. T.: Off-target **P-R:** Peer-repair **Part. R.:** Partial-repetition
Recog.: Recognition **Repet.:** Repetition **S-R:** Self-repetition
S.E: Same error

7.1.3.5 Learner self-repairs following Teacher 3's reactions

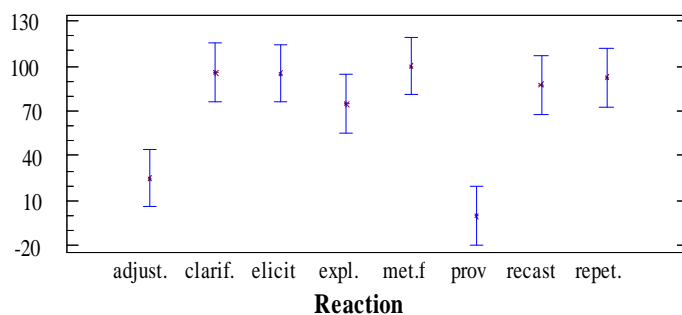
As shown in Table 7.38 and Figure 7.18, T3's students produce the highest levels of self-repair (95.4%) probably because their teacher compelled them to reproduce the correct versions by uptaking under the forms of repetition or self-repair. It appears that immediate metalinguistic feedback (100%), repetitions (93.7%), recasts (90.9%) and explanations (88.8%) were more efficient (more than 85%) as we can find in the Appendix G.

Table 7.38 Rates of Self-repair following T3's reactions

SELF-REPAIR FOLLOWING T3's REACTIONS	YEAR GRADE				Total	
	9		10		n	r
EXPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	r	n	r	n	r
Provide	0	.0	0	.0	0	.0
Adjustment	0	.0	1	50	1	50.
			(2)		(2)	
Explanation	2	50.	14	100.	16	88.8
	(4)		(14)		(18)	
IMPLICIT NEGATIVE FEEDBACK	n	r	n	r	n	r
Recast	3	75.	7	100.	10	90.9
	(4)		(7)		(11)	
Clarification Request	30	96.7	34	94.4	64	82.2
	(31)		(36)		(67)	
Repetition	34	87.1	56	98.2	90	93.7
	(39)		(57)		(96)	
Metalinguistic Feedback	54	100.	18	100.	72	100.
	(54)		(18)		(72)	
Elicitation	75	98.6	43	91.4	118	95.9
	(76)		(47)		(123)	
Total	198	95.1	173	95.5	371	95.4
	(208)		(181)		(389)	

Abbreviations: n: Number r: Rate

Fig. 7.18 Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of learner self-repair in T3 setting



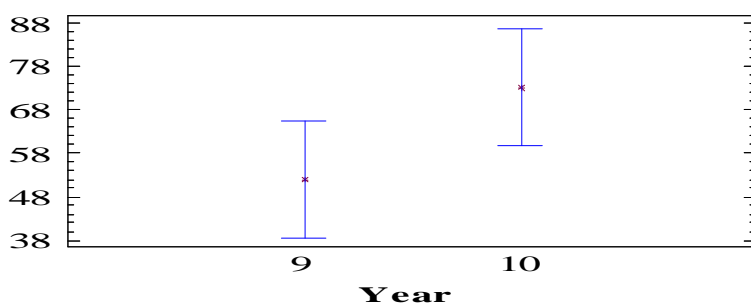
The ANOVA Table 7.39 represents the variability in ‘teacher self-repair’ affected by a variety of teacher reactions triggers and classroom level years. Since the p-value of the self-repair triggers effect is less than 0.05 (p-value= 0.0031), the differences are statistically significant at a 95.0% confidence. In contrast, the classroom year level factor does not appear to be pertinent in self-repair outcomes.

Table 7.39 Analysis of Variance for Learner Self-repair in T3 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Self-repair triggers	19865.5	7	2837.93	10.45	0.0031
B: Year	1001.72	1	1001.72	3.69	0.0962
RESIDUAL	1900.95	7	271.564		
Total (Corrected)	22768.2	15			

All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

Fig. 7.19 Means and 95.0 Percent LSD Intervals of self-repair per classroom year in T3 setting



A Fisher's LSD (Least Significant Difference) multiple range test (Table 7.40) compared the means of self-repair occurrences that are also appreciably different from others. In the top of the table, 2 homogenous groups are identified using columns of Xs which have no relevant statistical features among them. An asterisk has been placed next to 12 pairs, indicating that these pairs show statistically significant differences at the 95.0% confidence level.

Table 7.40 Multiple Range Tests for Self-repairs after T3's reactions

Method: 95.0 percent				
Self-repair Trigger	Count	LS	Mean	Homogenous groups
provide	2	0.0	11.6526	X
adjustment	2	25.0	11.6526	X
explanation	2	75.0	11.6526	X
recast	2	87.5	11.6526	X
repetition	2	92.65	11.6526	X
elicitation	2	95.0	11.6526	X
clarification	2	95.55	11.6526	X
metalinguistic.f	2	100.0	11.6526	X
Contrast	Difference	+/-	Limits	
adjustment - clarification	*-70.55	38.9672		
adjustment - elicitation	*-70.0	38.9672		
adjustment - explanation	*-50.0	38.9672		
adjustment - metalinguistic.f	*-75.0	38.9672		
adjustment-provide	25.0	38.9672		
adjustment- recast	*-62.5	38.9672		
adjustment- repetition	*-67.65	38.9672		
clarification - elicitation	0.55	38.9672		
clarification - explanation	20.55	38.9672		
clarification - metalinguistic.f	-4.45	38.9672		
clarification - provide	*95.55	38.9672		
clarification - recast	8.05	38.9672		
clarification - repetition	2.9	38.9672		
elicitation - explanation	20.0	38.9672		
elicitation - metalinguistic.f	-5.0	38.9672		
elicitation - provide	*95.0	38.9672		
elicitation - recast	7.5	38.9672		
elicitation - repetition	2.35	38.9672		
explanation - metalinguistic.f	-25.0	38.9672		
explanation- provide	*75.0	38.9672		
explanation- recast	-12.5	38.9672		
explanation- repetition	-17.65	38.9672		
metalinguistic.f - provide	*100.0	38.9672		
metalinguistic.f - recast	12.5	38.9672		
metalinguistic.f - repetition	7.35	38.9672		
provide - recast	*-87.5	38.9672		
provide - repetition	*-92.65	38.9672		
recast - repetition	-5.15	38.9672		

* denotes a statistically significant difference.

7.1.3.6 Uptake and target language error repair

It appears that learners incorporated better self-repairing when T3 reacted to their inaccurate morphosyntactic forms (99.9%). Similar to other T1 and T2 classroom groups, lexical self-repair is high (98.5%). In addition, L1 learner uses (58.3%) and content errors (53.3%) are satisfactorily responded to with self-corrections, as Table 7.41 and Figure 7.20 display.

Table 7.41 *Distribution of target language repair of T3's students*

RATE OF TARGET LANGUAGE REPAIRS OF T3'S STUDENTS														
TRIGGER	Lexical		Content		Phonology		Morpho-syntax		L1		Silent response		Total	
Year	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r	n	r
9	67 (68)	98.5	0 (2)	.0	5 (7)	71.4	123 (124)	99.2	3 (7)	42.8	0	.0	198 (208)	95.1
10	69 (70)	98.5	8 (13)	61.5	17 (17)	100.	75 (76)	98.6	4 (5)	80.	0	.0	173 (181)	96.6
Total	136 (138)	98.5	8 (15)	53.3	22 (24)	55.5	198 (200)	99.9	7 (12)	58.3	0	.0	371 (389)	95.3

Abbreviations: n: Number r: Rate

Fig. 7.20 *Scatter plot for Self-repaired target language errors in T3 setting*



Abbreviations: **Lex.:** Lexical **Morph.:** Morphosyntax **Phon.:** Phonology
Silent R.: Silent response

The cases of learner self-repair after teacher reactions were analysed by applying one factorial ANOVA in order to determine whether there is one interrelationship between the target language errors repaired and the classroom year levels. Table 7.42 displays that, uniquely, the effect of self-repaired TL errors is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.0129 < 0.05$).

Table 7.42 Analysis of Variance for Self-repair FL target and classroom level in T3 setting - Type III Sums of Squares

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value
MAIN EFFECTS					
A: Self-repaired TL errors	16149.4	5	3229.88	9.76	0.0129
B: Year	1337.74	1	1337.74	4.04	0.1006
RESIDUAL	1654.46	5	330.893		
Total (Corrected)	19141.6	11			

*All F-ratios are based on the residual mean square error.

7.1.3.7 Teacher 3's view on the phenomenon

T3 also expressed his views about TREs by means of questionnaires and informal interviews regarding general teaching practices after classes and viewing recordings with the researcher. We present the most relevant ones:

- T3 disagreed that communication breakdowns for explanations and corrections are annoying and defended the position that corrections (i.e., negative feedback) were necessary. This teacher strongly believed that learner errors should be addressed on the spot explicitly. T3's video recordings on teacher reactions depicted his practices seeming to match to his ideas on this issue.
- He believes that it is challenging for students when the teacher does not provide correction and asks for another student or the entire classroom group to fix the errors.
- He agreed that positive feedback is necessary for motivating students to learn.
- T3 considered that accurate corrections are necessary for making learner progress in the FL and push the students to precise, coherent and appropriate TL forms.
- He perceived that the majority of his students wanted to have their mistakes corrected as a step for improvement. In addition, he said that his teaching colleagues did the same in the content and language subjects.
- He thought that making students notice their own mistakes might help them to attract more attention to complex grammatical points.
- He claims that peer correction often helps to create a positive class atmosphere as students realise that they can learn a lot from their peers.

- T3 punished students who used the two vehicular languages of the school (that is, English and French) in the L3 subject since it was the B School rule and he backed it. He penalised students that used the L1 during his lessons by subtracting points in their global marks. Only Spanish was allowed.
- He felt that the best way of acquiring languages was having plenty of opportunities to experiment with them.

7.2 TEACHER REACTION STYLES AND THEIR OUTCOMES CONTRASTED

Statistical analyses have been performed on the teacher reaction frequencies across the three immersion settings in order to ascertain differences in TREs observed features. The episodes have been discussed with respect to the linguistic targets, their features and their potential effects on learner uptake.

In general, we observe variability in the individual data analysis of the teacher reactions to foreign language learner deviant structures and their students' responses to them in different immersion settings as Section 7.1 depicted. Taking into account those particular outcomes in the three educational settings, we make a preliminary assumption that the teacher reactions and learner responses could be influenced by further variables such as:

- 1) complexity
- 2) salientness

7.2.1 Complexity

The data analysis revealed a series of complex characteristics in TREs that have been marginally dealt in previous studies regarding:

- i. TREs' formal structural moves
- ii. the teachers' extra comments following instructional reactions
- iii. the teacher use of the L1
- iv. the unexpected interruptions in TREs
- v. the presence of non-verbal components in TREs

7.2.1.1 Mono-episodic and multi-episodic teacher reactions

Most studies on teacher feedback have conceived and analysed FL learner error treatment in FL classrooms as ‘mono-episodic’ instances of single teacher moves. Probably, researchers had in mind the conception of the IRF/IRE classroom discourse pattern (Cullen, 2002; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wells, 1993). In the present study, we find that a significant number of teacher reaction episodes (almost 9%) involve multiple feedback as Table 7.43 displays.

Table 7.43 *Frequencies of Participant Moves in TREs*

FREQUENCIES OF TR LINGUISTIC MOVES in TREs			RANGE			
Teachers	Types of Immersion School classrooms (UK Grades)	MONO-EPISODIC		MULTI-EPISODIC		
		n	%	n	%	
T1	Year 1 English Intermediate	25	4.1	1	1.9	
	Year 2 English Intermediate	36	6.0	1	1.9	
	Year 3 English Intermediate	67	11.1	5	9.4	
	Year 4 English Intermediate	38	6.3	6	11.3	
	Year 5 English Intermediate	52	8.6	8	15.1	
	Year 6 English Intermediate	381	63.2	32	60.4	
TOTAL		603	100.0	57	100.0	
T2	Year 1 Advanced English	6	14.3	0	.0	
	Year 2 Advanced English	5	11.9	0	.0	
	Year 3 Advanced English	11	26.2	0	.0	
	Year 4 Advanced English	9	21.4	0	.0	
	Year 5 Advanced English	7	16.7	0	.0	
	Year 6 Advanced English	4	9.5	0	.0	
TOTAL		42	100.0	0	100.0	
T3	Year 9 Spanish FL	189	55.3	16	39.0	
	Year 10 Spanish FL	153	44.7	25	61.0	
TOTAL		342	100.0	41	100.0	
Total		987	100.0	98	100.0	

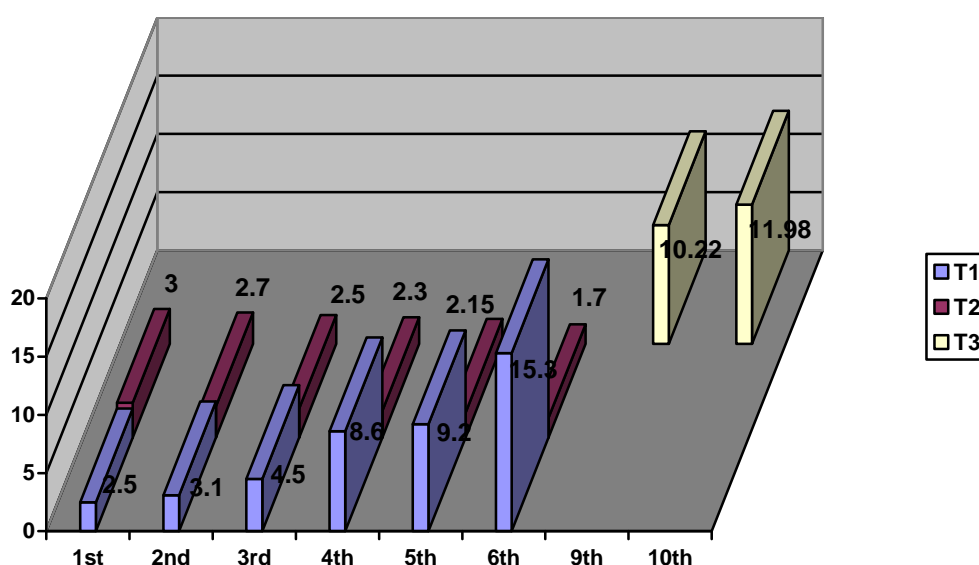
Abbreviations: n: Number T: Teacher

For instance, T1 (8.6%) and T3 (10.7%) produce more ‘multi-episodic teacher reactions’ characterised by containing more than one type of linguistic reactions in concatenation than T2 after the basic TRE. The most typical one has been ‘elicitation + clarification requests + metalinguistic feedback’ (particularly, in Year 6 English Intermediate and Year 10 Spanish FL classrooms). We find in the Appendix G and in Chapter 6 instances of those TREs. In contrast, T2’s Reaction Episodes are uniquely mono-episodic (100%).

The multi-step sequences in TREs are interactionally achieved in a series of teacher and learner moves that constitute scaffolding episodes. For this reason, teacher reactions episodes should be studied as one accumulation of teacher and learner sequences that in combination might draw, explicitly or implicitly, learner attention by potentially leading them to 'self-repair'. This feature will be analysed with Aljaafreh and Lantolf's Levels of Regulatory Scale (1994) in Section 7.4.

The figure below displays the average number of moves per exchange among teachers and their classrooms are displayed.

Fig. 7.21 Means of Teachers' Reaction moves among the three immersion settings



It appears that the number of moves can also illustrate to some extent teacher involvement in repairing learner deviant forms. T1 and T3 initiated roughly the same average number being 7.2 and 11.1, respectively. It also indicates how students may engage in TRE conversations with instructors and peers to repair deviant structures. However, it is significant that T1 reacted the least with recasts to Year 1 classrooms, which are mono-episodic possibly adjusting to the learner age capacities according to her beliefs on corrective feedback. In contrast, we find that T2 reacted minimally, generating only one move in recasts to learner incorrect utterances at all levels.

Distinctively, students participating in this empirical study were not in passive states as other studies dealing with TREs have reflected by portraying exclusively the minimal

triadic IRF classroom sequence (Breen, 2001; Jia, 2005; Mercer, 1995; Van Lier, 2001). That is, students were not, most of the time, only listening to the teacher passively and responding only when asked.

A number of learners initiated required and non-required peer correction when one student previously produced inaccurate TL productions. In particular, the participative students seemed to interpret attentively the teacher non-verbal signals of negative feedback when encouraged to take part in TREs, as we can see in the transcripts. Specifically, in the T3 setting we find that TREs engaged in longer instructional conversations geared to repair incorrect linguistic learner productions involving other students in the classroom.

In summary, Figure 7.21 depicts the amount of moves with the participants' degrees of involvement in TREs that might potentially aid learners to repair the TL deviant forms. The database shows instances of collaborative activities of teachers and learner peers aimed at learner self-repairing TL deviant structures. Some episodes seem to give opportunities for the learners to participate actively in them. Furthermore, those episodes could make incorrect TL forms salient for learners.

7.2.1.2 Teachers' extra comments following instructional reactions

Significantly, we found instances where teachers after the prototypical TREs structure often make comments of a positive or negative nature to the students that originally generated the deviant forms in follow-up moves.

Table 7.44 displays that 'teacher positive reinforcement' often happens next to learner uptake in prototypical TREs (T1: n= 560; T2: n= 3; T3: n= 377).

Those teacher moves consist of repeating the correct form and demonstrating its accuracy before continuing the classroom task. Specifically, those forms include expressions such as "Yes", "*that's it*", "*bien*", "*very good*" or the hand clapping involving all people present in T1's Year 1 classroom.

Table 7.44 Teachers' comments following learner interventions in TREs

TEACHERS' COMMENTS FOLLOWING LEARNER INTERVENTIONS IN TRES		TOTAL OF MOVES					
Teachers	Types of immersion school classrooms (UK Grades)	Positive reinforcement		Nagging comments		TOTAL	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
T1	Year 1 English Intermediate	3	.5	1	6.3	4	.7
	Year 2 English Intermediate	21	3.8	2	12.5	23	4.0
	Year 3 English Intermediate	49	8.8	3	18.8	52	9.0
	Year 4 English Intermediate	37	6.6	4	25.0	41	7.1
	Year 5 English Intermediate	52	9.3	0	0.0	52	9.0
	Year 6 English Intermediate	398	71.1	6	37.5	404	70.1
TOTAL		560	100.0	16	100.0	576	100.0
T2	Year 1 Advanced English	1	33.3	0	0.0	1	12.5
	Year 2 Advanced English	1	33.3	0	0.0	1	12.5
	Year 3 Advanced English	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Year 4 Advanced English	1	33.3	3	60.0	4	50.0
	Year 5 Advanced English	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Year 6 Advanced English	0	0.0	2	40.0	2	25.0
TOTAL		3	100.0	5	100.0	8	100.0
T3	Year 9 Spanish FL	206	54.6	32	69.6	238	56.3
	Year 10 Spanish FL	171	45.4	14	30.4	185	43.7
TOTAL		377	100.0	46	100.0	423	100.0
Total		940	100.0	67	100.0	1007	100.0

Abbreviations: n: Number T: Teacher

The corpus contains several instances where T1 code switches with the L1 of the majority of her students (that is, French) while uttering a positive comment after a TRE.

Example 7.4

T1: Very good. *Alors, c'est*↑ Well done. The English for télévision is↑ TV. (0.2) Good. *C'est très bien* [Fr] [positive reinforcement]. *Vous avez-vous vu? C'est pas difficile* [Fr]. OK. So how do you form a sentence? *Comment on fait une phrase* [Fr]? So↑ (0.3) I like↑.

'Teacher nagging comments' occur when one student has not been able to self-correct and the teacher wants to make him/her realise that s/he is not doing it well with the ongoing classroom activity such as in:

Example 7.5

T3: Tú no estudias.

Example 7.6

T3: Tienes que reflexionar un poco para aprender.

Example 7.7

T1: Attention aux fautes d'orthographe [Fr].

The three teachers nagged students in certain situations (T1: n=16; T2: n=5; T3: n= 46) as Table 7.44 illustrates. Teachers frequently include metalinguistic information for reinforcing the previous teacher reaction. This type of move was usual for T1 and T3 but absent in T2, except in reactions involving motivating forms of positive feedback.

We reproduce one episode where T2 provides plentiful positive feedback after a non-native learner delivered a speech in English. Nevertheless, she often ignored learner mistakes.

Example 7.8

T2: Let's give her some star, honey. She is a star [clapping]. [boos of some students] We always go up; we never go down, honey. Let's give her some star.

7.2.1.3 Code-switching or Alternation

Code-switching, or alternation, acting as a teacher reaction was used by T1 as a facilitation tool for learners in TREs. Uniquely, T1 occasionally codeswitched into the L1 of the majority of her students (i.e., French) in combination with 25% of metalinguistic feedback and 61% of explanations addressed to less TL proficient learners. She often did this in order to illustrate English grammar points better:

Example 7.9

S2: I did (0.3) I did work.

T1: You did[↑] work, Chippenda? If you say I did work, *tu sais qu'est-ce que ça veut dire en français* [Fr] I did work? *Tu as fait, tu insistes, tu démontres à parler. Tu insistes, tu es en train de faire une insistance. Alors je vous ai dit, tout à l'heure.* [Fr]

On the contrary, T2 never does it since she is the native speaker of English and has not mastered French. Likewise, T3 had never adopted the vehicular languages of the B School (that is, French nor English) because it was forbidden in his classrooms. Nevertheless, sometimes some students spoke in French or English during Spanish lessons. In those situations, T3 very often penalised students by subtracting points in their marks as we have mentioned.

7.2.1.4 Unexpected interruptions in TREs

Another natural move found in our corpus regarding TREs have been student interruptions that did not trigger teacher reactions and broke the flow of the prototypical structure:

1. *FL Student Initial Turn* → 2. *FL Teacher Reaction* → 3. *FL Student Response*.

Table 7.45 reports the types of interruptions in TREs found in the videorecorded corpus.

Table 7.45 *Interruptions in TREs*

INTERRUPTIONS IN TREs		TOTAL OF MOVES					
Teachers	Types of immersion school classrooms (UK Grades)	Disruptions by undisciplined Ss		Other Ss' interventions		n	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
T1	Year 1 English Intermediate	5	27.8	7	33.3	12	27.3
	Year 2 English Intermediate	8	44.4	5	23.8	13	29.5
	Year 3 English Intermediate	2	11.1	3	14.3	5	11.4
	Year 4 English Intermediate	1	5.6	0	0.0	1	2.3
	Year 5 English Intermediate	2	11.1	4	19.0	6	13.6
	Year 6 English Intermediate	5	27.8	2	9.5	7	15.9
TOTAL		23	100.0	21	100.0	44	100.0
T2	Year 1 Advanced English	6	26.1	7	46.7	13	34.2
	Year 2 Advanced English	3	13.0	1	6.7	4	10.5
	Year 3 Advanced English	7	30.4	3	20.0	10	26.3
	Year 4 Advanced English	4	17.4	1	6.7	5	13.2
	Year 5 Advanced English	2	8.7	0	0.0	2	5.3
	Year 6 Advanced English	1	4.3	3	20.0	4	10.5
TOTAL		23	100.0	15	100.0	38	100.0
T3	Year 9 Spanish FL	3	37.5	7	63.6	10	52.6
	Year 10 Spanish FL	5	62.5	4	36.4	9	47.4
TOTAL		8	100.0	11	100.0	19	100.0
Total		54	100.0	47	100.0	101	100.0

Abbreviations: T: Teacher Ss: Students n: Number TREs: Teacher Reaction Episodes
EFL: English as a Foreign Language FL: Foreign Language

The common interruptions were instances of:

- i. Undisciplined students disrupting classroom interaction in TREs.

Example 7.10

S1: Son iglesias gotícas.

S2/S3: [chattering and laughs]

T3: Shuh. Gólicas del siglo XII.

- ii. Students willing to repair deviant structures, anticipating corrections or willing to participate but not required to do so by the teacher.

Example 7.11

S1: Gloria ha partido en Inglesia.

S2: Gloria ha ido a Inglaterra.

Overall, TREs do not always follow the prototypical IRF classroom pattern presented in adjacent sequences. As we have previously noted, some turns appear spontaneously and in unpredictable ways. Those disruptions could be considered as products of the present times where students are active and do not follow the canonical patterns of the conversational classroom - in contrast to past traditional classroom contexts in most Western countries.

7.2.1.5 The non-verbal components

In face-to-face interaction, interlocutors employ non-verbal elements such as intonation, gestures, body posture, and eye contact as communicative strategies. In the present study, the videorecorded data gives evidence that non-verbal components (n= 991) are significantly present.

In TREs those non-verbal forms mainly consist of i) salient embodied actions and ii) material actions. Nevertheless, we will refer to those components developing more qualitative, tentative interpretations:

- i. First, the study of verbal behaviour is still exploratory and emergent in the present day.
- ii. Second, non-verbal phenomena are very complex and the researcher is not specialist in non-verbal communication. Therefore, she cannot deal with their micro genetic analysis since the issue is still in an embryonic stage in SLA (Gullberg & McCafferty, 2008) and in learning sciences in general (Goldman et al., 2007).

The study would have needed better technical materials for videorecording and analysing this aspect in depth. From observations and transcriptions, it seems that

several instances of embodied cues shape turn-taking in TREs, accompanying verbalised actions or functioning independently. Furthermore, closely linked to teacher reactions are the non-verbal forms of feedback. We refer to three distinctive actions in teacher reactions moves:

- i. embodied actions
- ii. paralinguistic actions
- iii. material actions

7.2.1.5.1 Embodied actions

Embodied actions present in Teacher Reaction Episodes are the following:

- i. gaze
- ii. facial expressions
- iii. hand movements
- iv. head movements

In the videoed database, hands and arms intensify teacher reactions although facial gestures involving the eyes and face can act as, i) non-verbal reactions or ii) intensify reactions.

We examined the salient embodied reactions manifested in TREs that are displayed in Table 7.46.

It appears that teachers use them in a generally higher number of gazes (T1= 80; T2= 14; T3= 129) than other non-verbal reactions such as facial expressions, hand and head movements. Nevertheless, we do not give one accurate statistical account of facial expression and gaze since it is one extensive issue that requires:

- i. a detailed study in kinetics, which has not been comprehensively investigated (see Chapter 4)
- ii. highly technical equipment that may capture and isolate them in detail

Table 7.46 Salient embodied teacher reactions in TREs

TEACHER SALIENT EMBODIED REACTIONS IN TREs		Gaze		Facial expression		Hand movements		Head	
Teacher s	Types of immersion school classrooms (UK Grades)	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
		T1	Year 1 English Intermediate	13	16.3	19	40.4	3	20.0
Year 2 English Intermediate	6		7.5	3	6.4	2	13.3	10	13.9
Year 3 English Intermediate	47		58.8	2	4.3	1	6.7	2	2.8
Year 4 English Intermediate	5		6.3	10	21.3	6	40.0	21	29.2
Year 5 English Intermediate	2		2.5	6	12.8	1	6.7	29	40.3
Year 6 English Intermediate	7		8.8	7	14.9	2	13.3	7	9.7
TOTAL		80	100.0	47	100.0	15	100.0	72	100.0
T2	Year 1 Advanced English	1	7.1	3	25.0	4	50.0	2	28.6
	Year 2 Advanced English	1	7.1	2	16.7	0	0.0	1	14.3
	Year 3 Advanced English	6	42.9	1	8.3	1	12.5	0	0.0
	Year 4 Advanced English	2	14.3	5	41.7	2	25.0	1	14.3
	Year 5 Advanced English	1	7.1	1	8.3	0	0.0	1	14.3
	Year 6 Advanced English	3	21.4	0	0.0	1	12.5	2	28.6
TOTAL		14	100.0	12	100.0	8	100.0	7	100.0
T3	Year 9 Spanish FL	42	32.6	28	65.1	7	41.2	9	20.9
	Year 10 Spanish FL	87	67.4	15	34.9	10	58.8	34	79.1
TOTAL		129	100.0	43	100.0	17	100.0	43	100.0
Total		223		102		40		122	

Abbreviations: T: Teacher n: Number TREs: Teacher Reaction Episodes FL: Foreign Language

Research on gesture is still one emerging field that is in progress but growing quickly lately thanks to the development of new technologies.

We find 32 clear cases in the videorecorded data in which teachers transfer error repair to other classroom learners in cases where the student who initially produced one inaccurate form is not able to self-repair (see Figure 7.22).

Fig. 7.22. Embodied transfer of learner repair



In those situations, the teacher often verbalises the transfer, directing his/her eyes to other students for the repair of deviant structures and makes a short pause as we can observe in the transcripts found in Appendix G.

In the following example, T3 transfers repair to the class but is not verbalising it. If this move had only been captured in audio, the action demanding repair transfer to another student might not have been noticed in transcriptions and posterior analysis.

Example 7.12

T3: No, no, no. [moving head from side to side][moving one finger] Ha dicho↑ (0.8) [gaze to the rest of the class] Gloria está partido. [gesture of moving hand transferring repair to the class]

A second example depicts a typical gestural behaviour in TREs.

Example 7.13

T1: So what did you do after school yesterday?

S3: [silent response]

SS: [noises and voices]

T1: Shuh. (0.3) *Alors, regarde* [Fr], *Claire*. Yesterday *c'est*↑ [Fr] [gesturing with two arms backwards and directing eyes to the student]

S2: *Moi* [Fr].

T1: Today is Monday. (0.3) Today↑ is Monday. *Aujourd'hui, c'est lundi* [Fr] (0.5). Yesterday (0.2) *c'est*↑ What is yesterday in French? [hands again towards the back] *Quand je dis*↑ yesterday. (0.3) You, *Claire*. (0.2) What is yesterday?

The previous excerpt shows the deictic gestures made by T1 consisting of moving the arms and fingers 'pointing behind the back' (see Figure 7.23).

Fig. 7.23 *Deictic gestures*



This use of body language frequently indicates that students should use a past tense. In the video recordings, this deictic gesture representing the past is found thrice. In addition, the videoed database had instances of the teacher's gaze and gestures inviting the student to listen to the explanation and elicit learner self-correction.

7.2.1.5.2 Paralinguistic actions

The transcriptions found in Appendix G show that intonation and pauses complement teacher reactions. We will not enter into details about paralinguistics but will refer to the ones that are relevant to TREs.

We find that pauses might act as implicit repetitions as we illustrated with a picture in page 255 in Chapter 6.

Example 7.14

T1: Not I ↑(0.8) not have. (0.5) I (0.5) I.

S2: [silence] (0.5) I doesn't have. Don't have.

Nevertheless, the problem with intonation arises when teachers prompt with recasts uttered in neutral tones not indicating to the learner that there is some mistake in his/her TL productions. In the following example, the learner does not repair with the teacher's declarative recast that Lyster (1998a) presented as 'ambiguous' for learners.

Example 7.15

S1: I did not copied.

T2: I did not copy.

[continuation of the lesson and no learner uptake]

In contrast, it seems that learners had better perceived incorporated interrogative recasts and generated uptake.

7.2.1.5.3 Material actions

To a certain extent, objects or materials can be used as 'mediators' of teaching that act as physical tools (Vygotsky, 1978; see Chapter 2). In the present study, those actions often reinforce and support teacher reactions to foreign language learner output. Character writing and picture drawing assist to focus on form (Doughty, 1998). The

blackboard is the commonest non-verbal tool that enhances 717 teacher reaction moves (60.5%). Teachers use it to, i) illustrate points and ii) support for spontaneous explanations of linguistic codes.

Fig. 7.24 *Blackboard as mediator*



The following example illustrates this situation:

Example 7.16

S1: El piloto es apl/o/dido.

T3: ¿Quién es apl/o/dido?

S1: Es aplaudido.

T3: Bien. El piloto es aplaudido. [writing 'aplaudido' on the blackboard]

Specifically, videoed data and transcripts give evidence that teachers recurrently use writing on the blackboard as a mediator of learning to reinforce the input accompanying reactions such as 'positive reinforcement' forms (91.1%), 'explanations' (3.1%), recasts (2.3%), 'metalinguistic feedback' forms (1%), 'elicitations' (0.7%), 'adjustments' (0.6%), 'provide' forms (0.5%), 'repetitions' (0.4%) and 'clarification requests' (0.3%).

Table 7.47 presents the distribution of the blackboard uses in TREs per teachers and classrooms. T1 in Year 6 English Intermediate level employed the blackboard more in TREs (43%) in contrast to T2, who did it for a lesser amount (less than 3%).

Table 7.47 *Teacher Reactions supported by the blackboard*

TEACHER REACTIONS SUPPORTED BY THE BLACKBOARD		TOTAL OF TRs MOVES	
Teachers	Types of immersion school classrooms (UK Grades)	n	%
T1	Year 1 English Intermediate	6	.8
	Year 2 English Intermediate	23	3.2
	Year 3 English Intermediate	67	9.3
	Year 4 English Intermediate	43	6.0
	Year 5 English Intermediate	48	6.7
	Year 6 English Intermediate	311	43.4
T2	Year 1 Advanced English	0	.3
	Year 2 Advanced English	2	.1
	Year 3 Advanced English	1	.4
	Year 4 Advanced English	3	.3
	Year 5 Advanced English	2	.1
	Year 6 Advanced English	1	.4
T3	Year 9 Spanish FL	172	24.0
	Year 10 Spanish FL	38	5.3
Total		717	100%

Abbreviations: T: Teacher n: Number FL: Foreign Language

In the Years 1 and 2 where younger students congregate at A School, TREs are often complemented with visual aids such as flashcards and drawings. In one session of Year 1, T1 uses a marionette to make a young student repeat as if the object was conversing with the teacher and she acted as a ventriloquist. We present part of this episode in the following example:

Example 7.17

T1: Teacher, teacher, he is not repeating. [teacher talking in a creaky voice as a ventriloquist to a marionette]

In summary, it appears that material actions should be considered for studying classroom phenomena related to SLA research. Nevertheless, the present study has not been examining them microgenetically.

7.2.2 Salientness

Learners participating in the present study seem to respond to teacher reactions differently after having received negative feedback. It could be the case that some distinctive features in TREs make some deviant target language structures more salient during classroom conversations. This trait can be hinted at in learner uptake moves manifested in the study database. However, the corpus sample of the present study

does not allow us to make strong empirical statements about such phenomena despite present-day research theories about this issue.

For instance, clarification requests (93.7%) and elicitations (91.1%) seemed to be more salient for T1's students as their self-repairs appeared to hint. Nevertheless, the extensive use of recasts by T2 did not appear to provoke explicit responses on the part of her students (5.7%). In contrast, T3's recasts were more effective in triggering his learner self-repairs (90.9%). However, T3's clarification requests produced lower repairs than T1 (82.2%) but were higher in elicitations (95.9%).

Those differing results in TREs regarding different settings lead us to hypothesise that some features of instructional conversations may work as 'priming devices' (Gass, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000) for learners. The teacher aim is at pointing out learner inaccurate productions and in the best situations to encourage them to self-correct.

Taking into account such findings regarding TREs phenomena we assume that:

- i. some teacher reactions implemented with verbal and non-verbal actions might intrinsically make some TL deviant forms more salient than others for learners
- ii. some teacher reactions could make deviant target language forms stand out better as a problematic issue for learners and might potentially push apprentices strongly to repair them
- iii. students may have different degrees of individual abilities to cater to the target of teacher reactions in TREs

Furthermore, a number of features in TREs might make them more salient such as:

- i. the composition of moves
- ii. the degrees of implicitness and explicitness that feedback could convey
- iii. the sustainability of the teacher reaction episode towards learner uptake

In general, the way teachers respond to students' answers may influence classroom interaction and the turn length in TREs. There are cases in which the teacher explicitly

tries to show that his/her intervention providing feedback is overtly relevant for students by encouraging them to repair their incorrect forms.

From the SLA social interactionist theoretical point of view, if learners are conscious of the deviant linguistic forms occurring in the classroom, they could have higher possibilities to generate uptake or, in the best case, self-repair. Nevertheless, research up to the present day has not been able to assess the learner subconscious acquisitional processes (Hall, 2007). Related to this issue, we hypothesise that learner uptake might potentially be considered as an indicator of the effects of some types of teacher reactions to learner products in the target language.

In the felicitous cases, learner attention appears to be drawn by more salient teacher reactions that make students realise about their incorrect utterances in TRES - as it happens in the T1 and T3 immersion settings. In contrast, learners may not recognise the corrective force of teachers' reactions as we find in the T2 setting, similar to the outcomes of several studies examining recasts (Ellis & Sheen, 2006).

In summary, the study results suggest that in the cases where teachers reacted to learner inaccurate productions by using implicit forms of negative feedback (such as elicitations, clarification requests or metalinguistic feedback), the students tended to be more responsive to those instructional strategies (more than 14%).

7.3 POSSIBLE FACTORS INFLUENCING TRES: SCHOOL FEATURES, TEACHER AND LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS, CLASSROOM GROUP SIZE AND THE DEGREE OF FUTURE USE OF THE FL

FL classroom interaction appears to be contextually shaped under variables such as the features of the interlocutors, the topic and the setting (Kramsch, 1987; Tannen, 1990). By the same token, some classroom setting characteristics might affect the extent to which students would engage in interaction with the teacher. In Chapter 5, Section 5.3, we hypothesised that several environment variables might boost classroom negotiation under the forms of teacher reactions as negative feedback such as:

- i. teachers' competence in the TL and the years of teaching experience

- ii. small classroom groups
- iii. learner competence in the TL

Notwithstanding, in the present study teachers' competence in the TL and years of teaching experience did seem to be a prime factor in promoting 'negotiation of form' (Doughty, 1998) in the T2 setting - whose teacher is a native speaker of the TL and the most experienced teacher.

Neither of the most FL advanced students in the T2 setting generated more proportions of uptake nor self-repaired. In particular, it appeared that that these proficient learners attended less to deviant forms when given implicit negative feedback under the form of recasts by T2. In addition, they seemed to be less participative in the classroom compared to students in other settings in the video recordings.

Taking into account some study outcomes, we decided to suggest a number of factors that might influence the patterns of TREs in the three immersion settings such as:

- 1) the bilingual school context
- 2) the students' ages and immersion settings
- 3) the classroom group sizes
- 4) the degree of future instrumental use of the target languages

7.3.1 The bilingual school context in Senegal

The study takes place in Foreign Language classrooms at two international bilingual Senegalese schools. In those types of institutions, the sense of teaching and learner experiences with FLs might differ slightly from average mainstream schools.

Specifically, learners acquire both languages naturally through the curricular content taught in two languages and by communicating with their foreign peers and their teachers within the schools' multicultural environments. At the same time, students might enjoy learning foreign languages and cultures more vividly (Suzuki, 2007). Hence, students could be more motivated to participate and learn languages in such a bilingual two-way immersion, French-English academic and social environments with the

progressive immersion of an L3. In contrast to Canadian immersion school studies such as Lyster and Ranta (1997), we find that implicit forms of reactions are more used in the three immersion settings of the current study. Furthermore, these educational contexts yielded different outcomes.

In particular, the main use of 'declarative recasts' by T2 did not seem to encourage learner uptake and experimentation with the TL. Possibly, learners in this setting did not notice the negative feedback or disregarded T2's reactions as they had a strong feeling of being near-native students. In contrast, T1 and T3 reacted to FL learner deviant productions providing varied forms of implicit feedback and analyses showed that students seemed to engage in more negotiation of form and uptake.

7.3.2 Differences according to students' ages and language levels

In this section, we discuss the possible effects of teacher reactions in accordance with learner uptake on reactions vis-à-vis classroom settings and their ages. Furthermore, we consider how teachers engage learners to be active in TREs.

Results suggest that learners participating in TREs involving negotiation of form need to have attained a minimum of competence in the target language. Potentially, the effectiveness of teacher reactions might fall on the learner's individual ability to notice their TL inaccurate forms. Maybe younger students are less conscious when reactions do not provide explicit information as to the low rate of repairs occurring in the T1 and T3 settings. Therefore, we assume that teachers cannot make learners self-correct if they do not possess the capacity to do it, as T1 also expressed in one interview. This learner factor possibly influenced younger learners not to notice it as such and produced uptake rarely. In contrast, deviant TL productions generated by upper grade students were reacted to by teachers in more diverse ways than the lower grade student errors. The exception is the T3 setting where the teacher used almost solely recasts.

We also found that teachers offer limited opportunities for teenagers to modify their own utterances by transferring correction to other students (38%) as other studies reported (Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). It could also be the case that learners intervened without being asked to do so, such as in the following example:

Example 7.18

S1: Eso fue un viaje un voyage [Fr] muy difícil.

T3: Voyage [Fr] es francés.

S2: Eso fue un viaje muy difícil.

Significantly, T3's students seemed to be more risk-takers in using the target language. They were possibly encouraged to repair their deviant TL productions by the teacher. T3 compulsorily wanted his students to prove they were aware of their inaccuracies by repeating the entire corrected structures.

In general, teachers seem to adjust their reactions naturally to the levels and the needs of their students according to their beliefs about feedback provision.

7.3.3 Classroom group size

Despite Kumar (1992) in his study not finding any differences in interaction according to class size, in the present study some learners appear to benefit from interacting in small group works. T1's Year 6 classroom generated more teacher reactions as well as longer and complex episodes. Learners seemed to have more opportunities to repair and negotiate linguistic form that could also be triggered by higher numbers of teacher reactions. Nevertheless, statistically the results were not very significant although they were graphically conspicuous. Furthermore, classroom sizes appeared not to have an effect except in T2's Year 6. In this year, students produced 4 inaccurate FL forms but did not generate any uptake.

7.3.4 The degree of future instrumental use of the language

In the schools taking part in the study, the accuracy and instrumental use of FLs was a high priority. At the A School, English subjects were primordial for learners whose mother tongue is not English and those who would continue their studies in another bilingual school or pursue their studies in another country following their parents' posts. This situation could be highly motivating for those students.

In the case of Spanish at the B School, it seemed that learners also corroborated this aspect in questionnaires. We should bear in mind that the learners attending both immersion schools were children of Embassy and international organisation workers

and the Senegalese elite. Thus, we assume that those learners might have more intrinsic motivation to use foreign languages and this factor might possibly affect TREs.

7.4 DATA COLLIDED FOR TRE PHENOMENA

7.4.1 Distribution of the reacted learner output

The three teachers react to learner morphosyntactical errors (n= 562; 50%) for the most part, followed by lexical errors (n= 428; 33%), phonological errors (n= 89; 8%), L1 productions (n= 49; 4%), inaccurate content (n= 31; 3%) and student silences (n= 27; 2%).

Figure 7.25 reveals the overall breakdown of the learner output reacted to by the three teachers, extracted from the videorecorded corpus. Nevertheless, these global results diverge, taking separately into account each teacher's immersion settings, the classroom year levels and frequency and distribution of reactions.

Fig. 7.25 Overall distribution of the reacted learner output

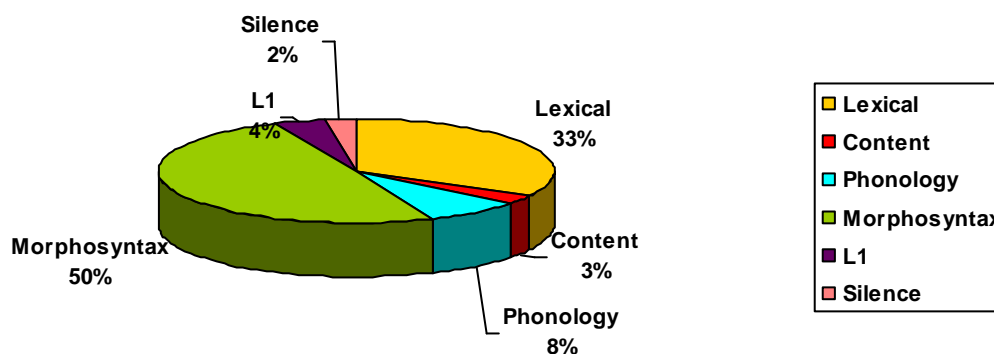
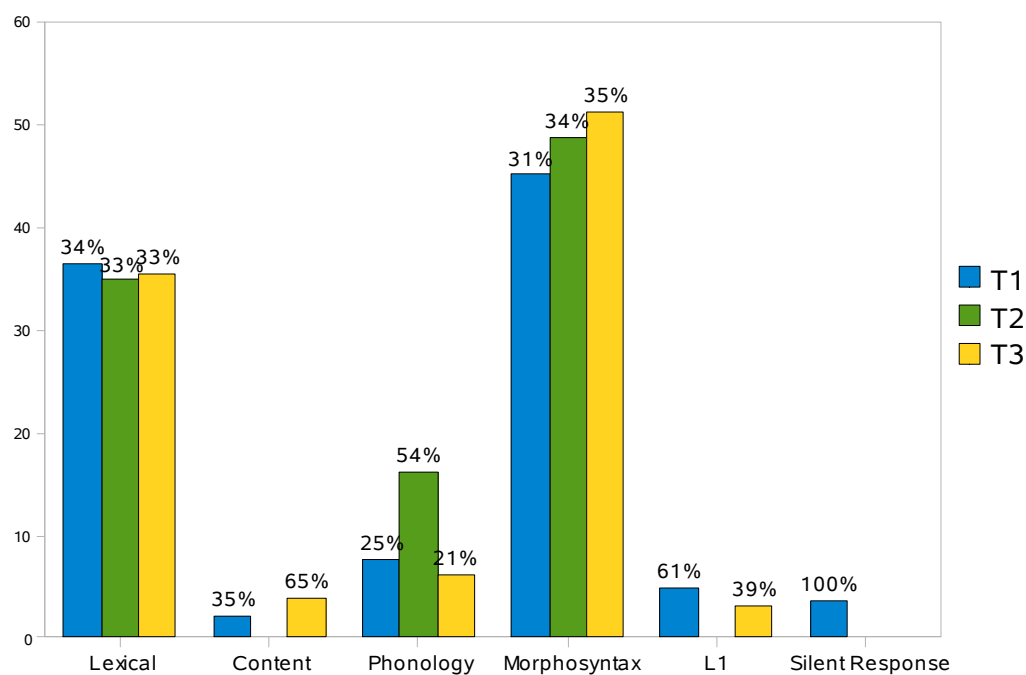


Figure 7.26 shows a breakdown of the percentages of learner output reacted to by each teacher. We observe that T2 is more concerned with deviant learner morphosyntax (51.4%) and vocabulary use (34.9%) but never reacts using the L1. In contrast, T3 reacts more to phonology 16.3% than the overall mean. It could be the case that there are differences in the nature of the TL taught. Spanish has more morphological variation and irregularity than English. Furthermore, we found many cases of French transfer in

L3 Spanish classrooms. It is possible that the characteristics of languages could also affect the provision of teacher reactions, apart from individual interlanguage learner stages that we could not measure.

Fig. 7.26 Global frequency and distribution of learner output reacted per teacher

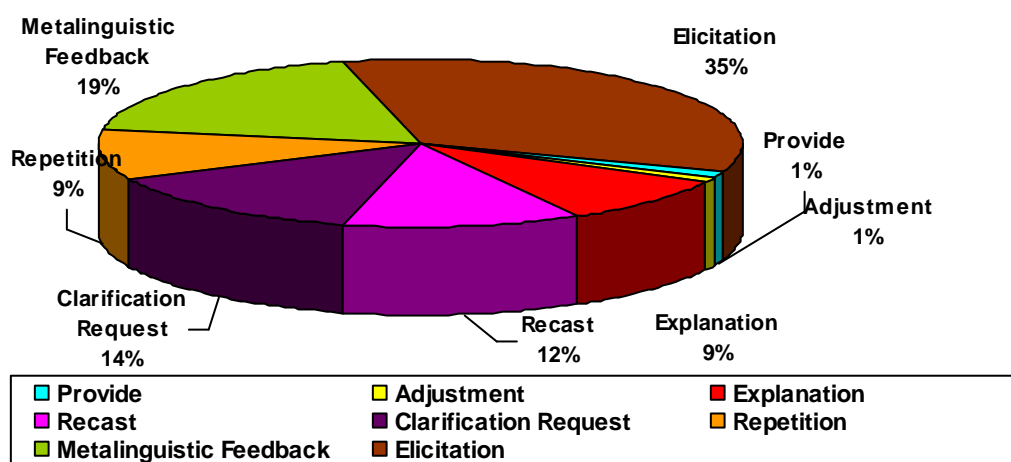


7.4.2 Distribution of Teacher Reaction moves

Figure 7.27 displays the overall percentages of the episodes of the teacher reactions to foreign language learner output among the three teachers. In descending order of frequency, the most usual type of teacher reaction is elicitation ($n = 409$; 34.5%) followed by metalinguistic feedback ($n = 220$; 18.5%), clarification request ($n = 170$; 14.3%), recast ($n = 140$; 11.8%), explanation ($n = 112$; 9.4%) repetition ($n = 110$; 9.3%), provide reactions ($n = 14$; 1.2%) and adjustment ($n = 11$; 0.9%).

The findings suggest learner deviant linguistic forms invited negotiation of forms triggered by more implicit types of reactions (such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback or clarification requests) than explicit forms of feedback (like provide or adjustment).

Fig. 7.27 Overall distributions of Teacher Reaction moves

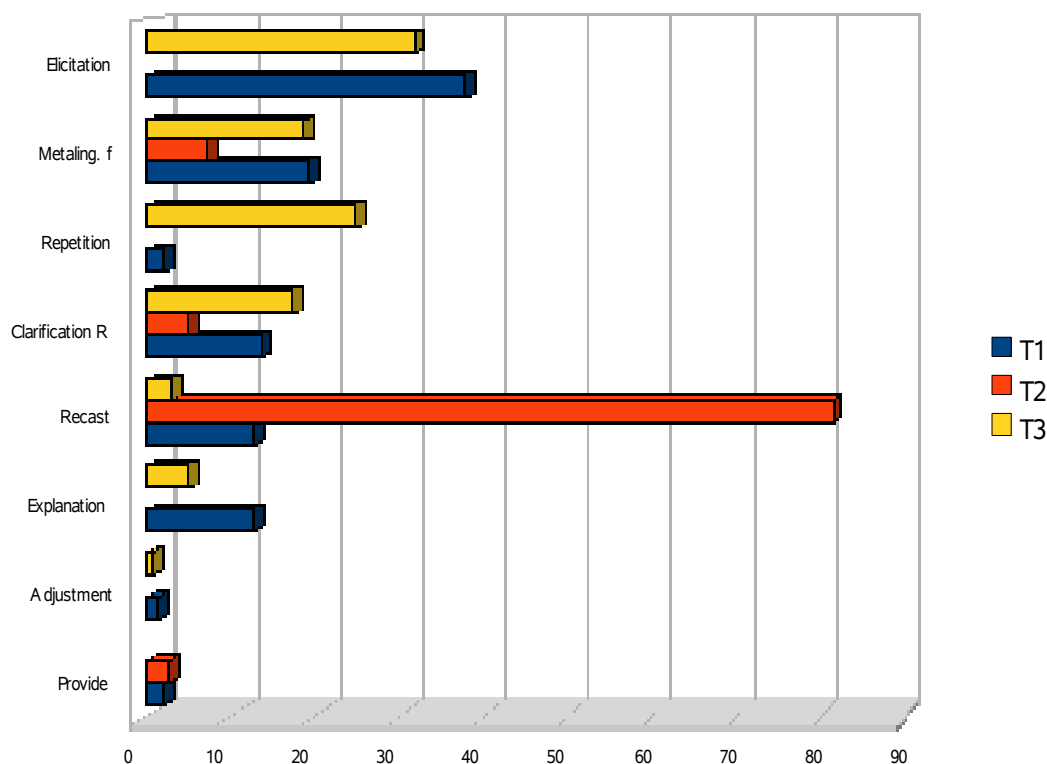


Nevertheless, analysing the results of the reactions in settings (Figure 7.28), it appears that elicitation was more recurrent, despite the fact that it is not used by T2, who privileged recasts. Therefore, we cannot validate this teacher's reaction by a mean average. It seems that teachers exhibit peculiar teacher reaction performances to learner output.

T1 and T3 implement a variety of teacher reactions with their students' TL deviant structures. In particular, T1 uses more recasts with younger students in the same way as T2 but in higher levels adopts more elicitation (37.7%). For T3, recasts were minimal (2.8%) and he reacted more with repetitions (24.7%) and elicitation (31.6%).

There are also conflicts in results, if we contrast the global totals of reactions with individual ones in lower classroom years (Fig. 7.28). For instance, the numbers of recasts (81.4%) and provide reactions (2.3%) were higher by T2. In contrast, other results are lower in elicitation (4.7%), metalinguistic feedback (7%) and clarification requests (4.7%).

Regarding the T1 setting, the higher use of elicitation (37.7%) and the lower usage of recasts (2.8%) contrast with general results. With reference to T3, repetitions (24.7%) and clarification requests (17.2%) are more recurrent than average.

Fig. 7.28 Percentages of reactions per immersion settings

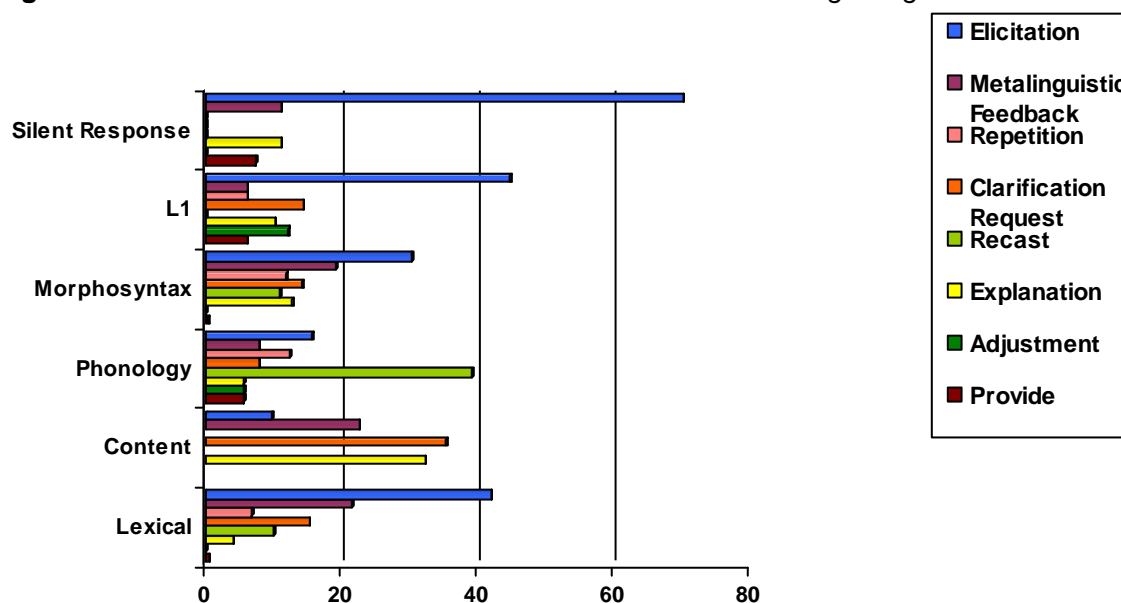
7.4.3 Learner deviant linguistic forms and teacher reactions

Teachers tended to choose (consciously or unconsciously) a type of reaction according to the nature of the error. For instance, recasts are used for grammatical and phonological errors, as can be observed in Figure 7.29.

Lexical deviant structures are more frequently reacted to by teachers under the forms of elicitation ($n= 180$; 42.1%), metalinguistic feedback ($n= 92$; 21.5%), clarification requests ($n= 65$; 15.2%), recasts ($n= 43$; 10%), repetitions ($n= 29$; 6.8%), explanations ($n= 17$; 4.0%) and provide reactions ($n= 2$; 0.5%).

Concerning learner inaccuracies in TL content, teachers adopted more clarification requests ($n= 11$; 35.5%), explanations ($n= 10$; 32.5%), metalinguistic feedback ($n= 7$; 22.6%) and elicitation ($n= 3$; 9.7%) geared to fix them.

Fig. 7.29 Distribution of Teacher Reactions and Learner deviant target linguistic forms



With reference to learner phonological errors, teachers reacted by using recasts (39.3%), followed by elicitations (15.7%), repetitions (12.4%), metalinguistic feedback (7.9%), clarification requests (7.9%), explanations (5.6%), adjustments (5.6%) and provide reactions (5.6%).

In order to fix learner morphosyntactic errors, teachers globally used more elicitations (30.4%) followed by metalinguistic feedback (19.2%), explanations (12.8%), clarification requests (14.2%), repetitions (11.9%), recasts (11.0%) and provide reactions (0.4%).

Distinctively, elicitations appeared to encourage learners to use the FL (44.9%) when they responded with L1 items followed by clarification requests (14.3%), adjustments (12.2%), explanations (10.2%), metalinguistic feedback (6.1%), repetitions (6.1%) and provide reactions (6.1%). Curiously enough, recasts are not significantly used for this purpose.

In case of learner silent responses, the teachers use only 4 types of reactions: elicitations (70.4%), explanations (11.1%), metalinguistic feedback (11.1%) and provide reactions (2%).

In general, taking into account the results mentioned above there seem to be correlations between the types of reactions and the learner errors.

7.4.4 Distribution of uptake in the immersion settings

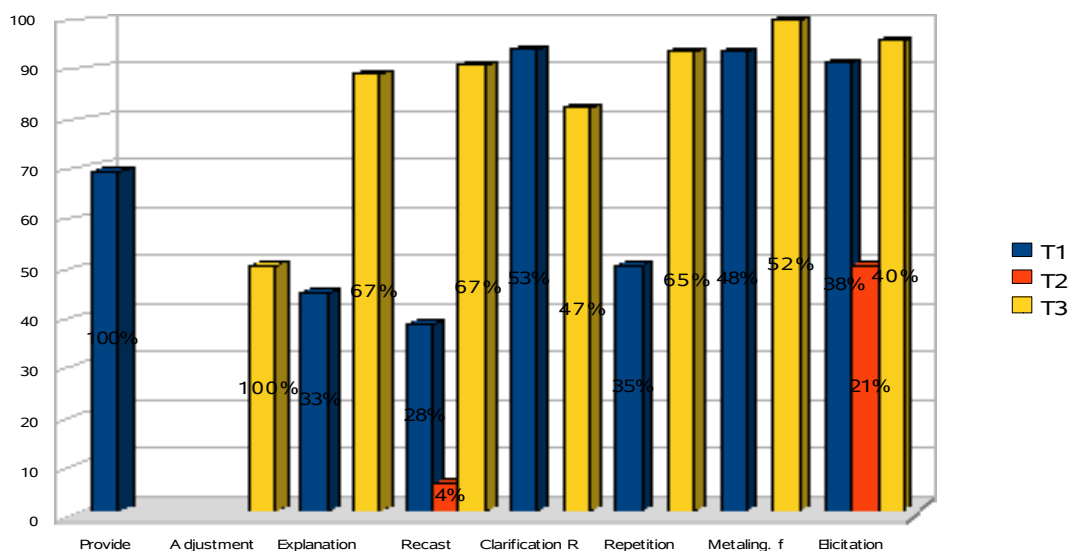
Students did not commonly ignore the teacher reactions and generated uptake (86.25%) in the three immersion settings. Nevertheless, it is difficult to know whether they use it for acquisition.

The codification of ‘uptake’ created by Lyster and Ranta (1997) only represents the situations where students or peers respond to reactions. Some cases of recasts and explicit forms of feedback generated learner repetitions. However, repetitions do not signal that learners actually self-repaired. Therefore, it is difficult to gauge whether teacher reactions actually involved repair or would last in long-term memory. Likewise, it is intricate to rate teacher reactions as indeed successful or unsuccessful feedback for learner.

7.4.5 Learner self-repair following Teacher Reactions

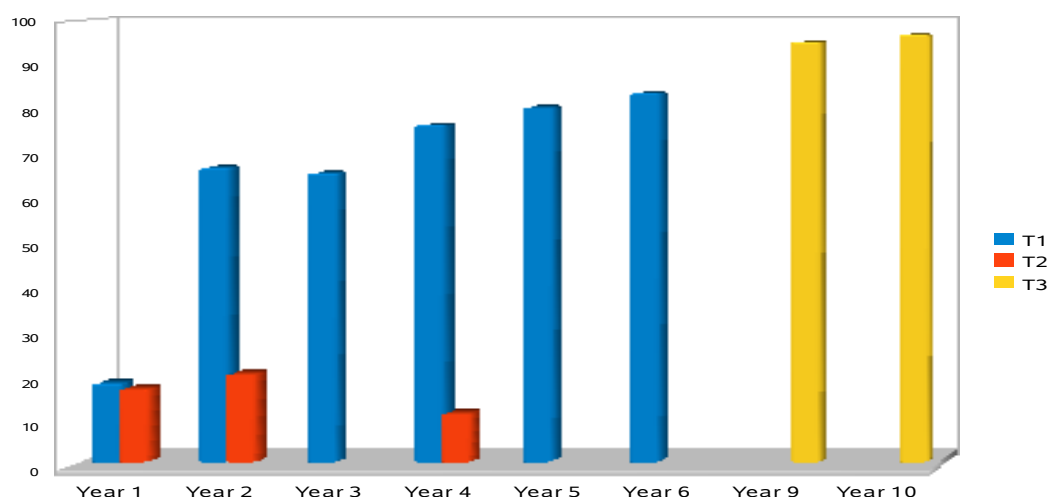
Learners seemed to self-repair to 84.1% after teacher reaction moves. Elicitations, clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback appeared to lead to more learner-generated repair (over 85%), except in the T3 setting where learners self-repaired minimally (6.9%). The following figure represents the distribution of repair after teacher reactions.

Fig. 7.30 Distribution of the teacher reactions and learner self-repairs



In Figure 7.31 we illustrate the distribution of self-repair per years. A significant number of TREs did not result in learner uptake (16% of the total of teacher reactions). In particular, recasts did not generate considerable self-repair in the youngest primary schoolers (especially in Years 1 and 2) producing less than 20% of self-repairs as in Lyster's study (1998a, 1998b). It could be the case that learners did not perceive the teacher reactions to their inaccurate TL productions as negative feedback, as some studies hypothesised (Doughty 2000; Long 1996; Lyster 1998a, 1998b). In addition, we find differing results with elder primary schoolers. T1's students at Year 1 that correspond to the less advanced levels of English performed 75% of self-repairs versus T2's learners that did not self-repair considerably (16.6%).

Fig. 7.31 *Distribution of learner self-repair per year*



This situation is similar to Year 9 and Year 10 learners of Spanish of the T3 setting who appear to perceive recasts better (90.9%). These differential learner abilities have also been reported in some studies where older students perceived recasts better (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Oliver, 1995).

As we mentioned in previous sections, some students did not appear to realise that the teacher was modelling a correct form by means of declarative recasts in the T2 setting (6.9%). In addition, the researcher noticed that T2's students who possibly considered themselves more proficient in the FL disregarded teachers' corrections more.

Distinctively, T2 profusely commented about their proficient skills in the TL and learners were probably influenced by this teacher's remarks. This fact led us to hypothesise that learners possibly did not seem to attend to their inaccuracies in the FL. In contrast, recasts combined with other types of teacher reactions such as elicitations or metalinguistic feedback in TREs appear to draw learner attention to their inaccurate FL productions in the T1 and T3 settings. However, older students self-corrected more than younger students. On the other hand, it was also significant that elder learners appeared to self-correct more than younger ones as the previous figure depicted

Overall, these differing results on recasts suggest that there could also be learner acquisition phases that make them perceive differently, regarding learner age and their capacity to understand the value of teacher reactions aimed at correction.

7.4.6 Uptake and target language repair

Students that seem to notice teacher reactions to their FL deviant productions are more prone to generate uptake than those who do not. This condition is hypothesised theoretically as a necessary step in developing longer-term linguistic competence (Schmidt, 1995).

In the present empirical study, learners appeared to respond differentially to distinct types of teacher reactions according to the nature of errors. Specifically, it looks like T1's and T3's students perceived lexical and morphosyntactical errors more saliently. However, it was not the case of T3's students that only self-repaired minimally (20%) and those who did not self-repair after teacher reactions. Hence, there could be individual learner differences regarding developmental readiness to notice the TL deviant forms targeted in teacher reactions. Nevertheless, the present findings cannot give us accurate evidence.

7.4.7 Learner Potential Learning Opportunities in TREs

Teacher Reaction Episodes are gauged in relation to the amount of the teacher's potential aid for learners. We analyse this aspect basing on 1) the sociocultural theory's (SCT) 'self-regulation' notion (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Vygotsky, 1978) and 2) the

social interactionist approaches defending the benefits of implicit forms of feedback in language acquisition (Long, 1996; McDonough & Mackey, 2006).

Both theoretical views imply that didactic sequences providing implicit forms of feedback might potentially facilitate learning through scaffolding or assisted performance in educational environments (De Pietro et al., 1989; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Explicit and implicit teacher reactive forms in TREs might respectively i) involve only the teacher and ii) engage the students more (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998). We assume learner engagement in solving tasks as potential microgenetic activity opportunities to attain learner self-regulation.

In an attempt to estimate the potential benefits of teacher reactions, we adapt Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) Regulatory Scale tool based on the sociocultural theory to examine TREs. According to this, teacher corrective reactions involving implicit forms of teacher reactions might make learners 'self-regulated'. In contrast, teacher reactions containing more explicit forms of feedback might confront learners less in the challenge of self-repairing their deviant structures.

Ideally, in sociocultural terms teachers should adjust to the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) in order to provide the most effective feedback regarding the learner's interlanguage. In addition, we take into account in analysis the participants: the utterances and the salient, non-verbal components in TREs, which are not considered in the original tool.

In particular, instances of 'other-regulation' and 'self-regulation' have been measured in TREs in relation to provision of negative feedback. Scores are found in the corpus transcriptions including the non-verbal components as potential mediators for 'regulation'.

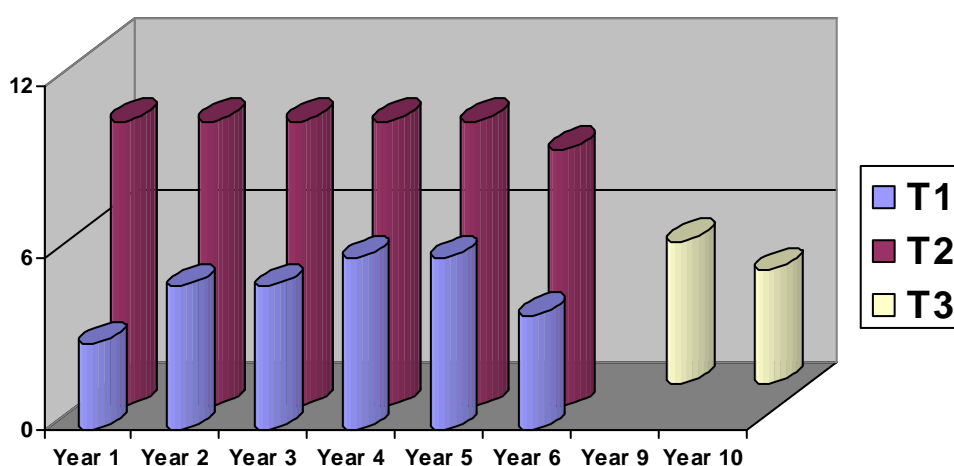
Furthermore, we distinguished at least two agents of 'mediation' in TREs according to the sociocultural perspective: i) the human beings and ii) the tools participating in the learning processes (Kozulin, 2003).

Theoretically, teacher reactions might lead to learner modified output and self-repair. Furthermore, it might improve learner ability to monitor their output and lead to IL development according to different SLA views. We may surmise to a certain extent how learning opportunities can be created, by observing how TREs are produced during classroom interaction from the SLA social interaction perspective.

Specifically, we found possible instances of 'scaffolding' (Wertsch, 1985b). These episodes relate to some forms of teacher reactions which engage more learners in immediate self-repair or different forms of uptake. The sociocultural theory suggests that learners are challenged to produce coherent discourses beyond their level of grammatical accuracy through scaffolding. In this sense, TREs can promote learner's involvement in repairs. These actions should be considered as unique instances of collaborative learning (Gánem Gutiérrez, 2008).

In Figure 7.32, we represent the mean levels of the Regulatory Scale found in the transcripts per classroom and teacher setting. The scale represents the learner capability to be autonomous in a given ongoing activity and what they can do without the assistance of other people.

Fig. 7.32 Mean levels of the Regulatory Scale in the classrooms (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994)



As we observe, learners appear to have more opportunities for 'self-regulating' in the T1's (average= 5 scale) and T3's settings (average= 4 scale) than in the T2's (average= 10 scale) one. In contrast, in the T2 setting score was probably influenced by the implicit nature of recasts. Likewise, her non-salient, corrective reactions, signalling errors appeared to produce minimal learner self-repairs and hence 'self-regulation'. In general, fluency seemed to be prioritised instead of reacting to linguistic forms in this immersion setting.

We should bear in mind that the T2 setting gathers the most advanced English learners. Therefore, this circumstance possibly moulds T2's reactions and favours recasting. Nevertheless, taking into account the levels of 'regulation' we find that, in general, learners do not take steps to self-correct in this setting. As we mentioned, they possibly did not perceive that the teacher was providing implicit negative feedback forms, or the teacher often continues speaking without forcing learners in scaffolding episodes.

In addition, the classroom year level factor may possibly be crucial in the occurrences of teacher reactions to foreign language learner output. Nevertheless, we have no data available on T2's reaction practices, which could have been different in lower level classrooms, because T2 does not teach non-proficient students to compare such a possibility.

In the T1 and T3 settings, both teachers deal with FL learners who are struggling in their ZPD while learning the target language. There are instances where learners need teacher support in order to aid them to produce correct structures. These teachers often seek to engage their students in leading instructional conversations. In particular, they do it by eliciting from them TL forms, modelling learner productions or providing information connected with the deviant form in order to draw learner attention to their deviated forms in TREs in order, ideally, to self-repair.

Specifically, some types of teacher interventions seemed to push their students to notice particular language features and encouraged them to participate actively in the learning activity focused on deviant forms. In such situations, the teachers play the role of facilitators by guiding the learner towards self-correcting in TREs and potentially construct TL knowledge. Overall, those teaching practices might potentially bridge a gap

for students to become more 'self-regulated' by self-repairing as transcripts appear to illustrate.

On the other hand, the Regulatory Scale instrument seems to match with the postulates of the social interactionist approach (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994b) which claims that some classroom interaction activities may focus learner attention on their inaccurate productions, which can lead to revisions of their hypotheses about target language accuracy.

One didactic function of TREs involves the 'negotiation of form' that refers to the provision of corrective feedback aimed at 'self-repair', involving accuracy and not merely comprehensibility. Particularly, the TREs focusing on form seem to help FL learners to 'notice the gap' between their erroneous utterances and the target language actual forms. Han (2001: 584) defined it as "*fine-tuning corrective feedback*", a process whereby the provider of corrective feedback successfully focuses the learner's attention on the problematic TL structure. Nevertheless, the question of whether implicit negative feedback is useful to FL students still remains a mystery and merits further investigation.

In summary, some types of teacher interventions can be interpreted as potential and beneficial windows of opportunity for FL learners to acquire and develop their interlanguage following a SCT analysis approach. However, one inherent present-day limitation of this psychological perspective is gauging the relationship of the ZPD with the real current state of the learner's interlanguage. Hence, this issue should be examined in more longitudinal studies.

7.4.8 Participants' views on the phenomenon

We took into account the participants' views on teacher reactions to foreign language learner output. We summarise the students' and teachers' perspectives collided with outcomes of the study and their interpretations regarding critical FL classroom issues connected with TREs.

7.4.8.1 Learners' views

Only the two groups of high school students from the B School (n= 38) were distributed questionnaires.

- Most of them agreed that they felt cheated if a teacher did not correct their work and wanted their teacher to correct their speech, if they made a mistake. Only a very small percentage (4%) of students from both groups questioned said they disliked being corrected in class similarly to the students' of Shulz's (2001) study.
- 87% of them desired their errors addressed on the spot by the teacher. Nevertheless, some students reported that they were disturbed when the teacher would correct the error before they could self-correct.
- A high percentage of learners answered in the questionnaires that grammar was their main concern in learning foreign languages (91%).
- A considerable number (73%) responded that excessive error correction was frustrating but necessary. In contrast, a very small percentage of students found communication breakdowns for correction annoying (2%).
- They reported that they feel that they learn more when the teacher encourages them to self-correct their errors (98%). They found it challenging when the teacher does not correct and asks another student or the class to mend errors (97%).
- They considered that teacher's appraisals encourage them to learn (100%).
- 35% regretted that the teacher did not use their mother tongues when they do not understand things in the target language.

7.4.8.2 Teachers' views

In general, we have not found mismatches between the three teachers' views on TREs and reported practices in oral teacher reactions to FL learner output by means of questionnaires and informal interviews taking into account the video recordings of classroom interaction.

- The three teachers agreed that communicating in a foreign language is more important than mastering its grammar. Nevertheless, they felt that studying grammar was also a key to learning languages.

- T2 agreed that communication breakdowns for explanations and corrections are annoying, reflecting probably her teacher reaction style by not intervening very much in providing feedback to learners. In contrast, T1 and T3 strongly defended that classroom discourse breakdowns were necessary to make corrections for learners. Therefore, T1 and T3's practices seem to match their ideas on this issue.
- T3 strongly believed that learner errors should be addressed on the spot explicitly. T1 claimed that she did it depending on the learner's age and level of proficiency in the target language.
- T2 expressed that she was against error correction since it demotivated students. In contrast, she preferred to correct students, if necessary, less intrusively with 'reformulations' (that is, recasting).
- The three teachers strongly agreed (100%) that it is challenging for students when the teacher does not provide corrections and asks another student or the class to fix the errors.
- The three teachers agreed that positive feedback is necessary for motivating students to learn.
- Teachers had differing views on using the students' mother tongues in their classrooms. T1 agreed to do it to make explanations comprehensible for learners when necessary. In contrast, T2 strongly disagreed since her students would be less forced to attend the class. T3 was also against it since students learn more when they face the TL. This is the way he learnt Spanish at university and wants it to be taught to his students.

In summary, the three teachers' answers mirrored the videoed data. It appeared that there was not a broad overlap between the philosophies and classroom practices of each teacher. Hence, teachers seemed to proceed according to their experiences and their beliefs on the educational context they teach.

7.5 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS: THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The findings allow us to answer the three questions posed in the current study and to address the hypotheses, that is, to either confirm or disconfirm them.

RQ1. What are the types of teacher reactions to learner FL faulty utterances in the three different kinds of classroom immersion situations identified in Senegalese international bilingual schools?

- Global analysis of data taking into account the three immersion settings indicated that teachers 'incorporate' in most cases student's deviant utterances (95%) by providing reactions under negative feedback forms for learners.
- Disregarding Teacher Reactive Episodes (DTREs) were minimal (5%) in the database.
- The majority of TRs (more than 95%) were focused on FL deviant forms in the three immersion settings.
- Teacher reactions are more complex than the traditional IRF classroom pattern (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Hence, outcomes of this study reflect that some teacher reactions might be mono-episodic or multi-episodic (i.e., a string of different reactions). Teacher reactions to foreign language learner output is a complex phenomenon that does not fit in ritualised classroom discourse patterns as some authors have traditionally postulated in some SLA theories related to TREs (Bellack et al., 1966). A significant number of teacher reaction episodes (almost 9%) involves multiple feedback. Furthermore, we find that the prototypical patterns might be broken by transferred repairs directed by the teachers and unexpected learner interruptions.
- The collection of videoed data proved that non-verbal components should be considered in TREs (n= 991 non-verbal components). Oral teacher reactions are not devoid of paralinguistic elements, tools or kinetic elements as any spoken discourse act. Among them, we find a) different types of non-verbal cues (such as the 'nod', 'implicit negation', 'implicit repeat' and 'implicit transfer'). Teachers reactions can be performed as embodied actions (e.g., gestures, gaze, facial expressions, hand movements and head movements) or material actions (e.g., writings or drawings) enhancing teacher reactions or acting independently as teacher reactions and b) non-verbal elements (such as gestures and writing on the blackboard). In this study, writing on the blackboard (60.5%) seems to reinforce some TRE reactions of the types 'positive reinforcement', 'explanation', 'metalinguistic feedback', 'elicitation', 'adjustment', 'provide', 'repetition' or 'clarification request' and becomes a significant mediator of learning. Therefore, TREs might have a manifold nature in which verbal

and non-verbal components intervene. Overall, teacher reactions are manifested multidimensionally in face-to-face classroom interaction.

- Students' deviant structures were treated with a variety of negative feedback forms. Distinctively, T1 and T3 use more teacher reactions that generate more negotiation of form in the classroom such as elicitations, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests. Curiously enough, recasts were not widely used. The exception is Year 1 for T1 when she addressed her younger students, similarly to what parents do with children in L1 acquisition. In contrast, T2 provided more recasts to learners at all levels. In one interview she highly believed that in bilingual schools learner errors should not be corrected so as not to make learners' frustrated by their own errors as it was the case of her experiences in Californian Bilingual Programmes where she formerly taught.
- There were few cases of recasts (33.6%) in these Senegalese EFL and ELE international school classrooms compared to previous studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Curiously enough the T2, the native teacher of English who was non-African, in contrast to the other teachers, used them more extensively.
- We often find teachers' extra comments following core prototypical teacher reactions episodes. For instance, teacher positive reinforcement after learner uptake or nagging comments.
- Teachers' styles were manifested in TRs and corresponded to their surveyed expressed views.
- The use of the L1 is uniquely usual in Teacher 1 reactions such as metalinguistic comments and teaching directions such as 'repeat' or 'recast'.
- Taking into account the formulated hypotheses regarding RQ1, we can respond that:
 - 1) The three teachers display different patterns of reactions. In particular, T1 and T3 generate more 'negotiation of form' than T2, who mostly disregarded learner's errors and predominantly used recasts. As well, their practices in the videorecorded data matched their beliefs about TREs expressed in interviews and questionnaires.
 - 2) We have not found statistically significant results vis-à-vis the years and the classroom size except in Year 1 in the T1 setting where the number of reactions was higher than the other classrooms. Nevertheless, learner and teacher target language competence did not result in more reactions in the T2 setting. There

were more TREs displaying negotiation and a variety of reactions and generated levels of learner self-repairs in the T1 and T3 settings.

- 3) In T1 and T3 settings, students did not seem discouraged to participate in TREs when errors arose and appeared to negotiate forms actively. T1 and T3 possibly reacted in a way to strengthen learner's motivation to learn from errors and communicate in the FL according to the ideals of the two bilingual schools so learners might improve and they commented about it after TREs as side comments.

RQ2. What types of teacher reactions may generate learner responses in the forms of repair or uptake according to the typology and the FL immersion contexts?

- The most salient finding is that the majority of learners participating in the study immediately respond to the teacher reactions modifying their deviant structures or producing another error.
- TREs could offer a golden opportunity for learners to increase their attention to their TL deviant structures. Hence, they may encourage learners to 'notice' better interlanguage gaps between their erroneous utterances and the target language as we presented in Chapter 1 (Day, 1986; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1998; Gass, 1997; Lightbown, 1998; Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, 2006; McDonough, 2005; Schmidt, 1990; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Robinson, 1996; Rutherford & Sharwood-Smith, 1985; Tomasello & Herron, 1989).
- There is evidence that some types of teacher reactions' produce more learner uptake than others. In general, metalinguistic corrective feedback appears to be the most effective in promoting uptake and self-correction than recasts. Learners repaired over 94% errors that received feedback. Negotiations through implicit teacher reactions as elicitations, metalinguistic feedback and repetitions seemed to promote more repairs in contrast to recasts producing over 6.25% of uptake. Lexical repairs took place more frequently after forms such as elicitation and metalinguistic feedback than recasts. Phonological repairs occurred in higher numbers after recasts and explicit correction.
- In this study, recasts do not seem to produce efficient awareness of a linguistic need or input-output mismatch in participating learners as some authors have stressed

(Long, 1996; Long et al., 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998). However, significant results coincide with learners possibly interpreting some types of teacher reactions to inaccurate TL forms such as “red herrings” (Lyster, 1998a; Mackey & Philp, 1998), that is, not negative feedback.

- In contrast to previous studies (Long & Sato, 1983), it appears that students in those schools were not discouraged to participate when the teacher reacted with complex and longer TREs to their inaccurate productions. Furthermore, some learners were more prone to be risk takers in negotiating forms. Possibly, being highly participative in the T1 and T3 settings could be a Senegalese cultural factor. This finding was similar to what the researcher experienced as a teacher in university level classrooms. In addition, teacher reactions acting as negative feedback seemed to be natural to them and were considered as part of the FL instructional discourse.
- In the T1 setting, elder learners (Year 6; 10 yrs.) produced more uptake, suggesting that they might be more aware of the potential usability of teacher reactions in self-repairing their own productions than younger learners (Year 1; 5 yrs.).
- The analysis of the database reflects that recasts might be ineffective in producing immediate self-repair (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Long, 1977). Students in T1 and T3 classrooms seemed to receive more salient reactions that made them realise that they generated incorrect FL products. Recast and explicit correction were the least effective teacher reaction moves in eliciting students self-repair. This finding might be related to Mackey and Philp’s (1998) and Oliver’s (1995) studies that reported that adults respond better to recasts than young people. Hence, there could be a psycho-developmental reason that might explain this situation.
- To a certain extent, teachers participating in this study have confirmed their beliefs on their own corrective practices in FL classrooms. For instance, both teachers stated that negative and implicit feedback are necessary for learners. They assign a specific role to negative feedback as the teacher reaction that negotiates accurate forms for learners.
- Overall the results allow us to answer the hypotheses of RQ2:
 - 1) Environment variables like teacher competence in the TL and teaching practice experience did not seem to be a factor for boosting learner uptake after teacher reactions. T1 and T3 encouraged more learner uptake. Possibly, teacher practices mirrored their beliefs about TREs. Most likely, T2 was a follower of

Krashen's ideas about bilingual acquisition as she stated in interviews. Furthermore, she informed that she was tutoring similar to how she did years ago as practitioner teacher at bilingual schools in California, where she was teaching following those tenets. In contrast, T1 and T3 appeared to be more concerned in attracting students' attention to self-correcting their errors.

- 2) One smaller classroom group (Year 6, T1) produced higher proportions of learner uptake, which were contingent to the highest number of teacher reactions. This result could possibly come from: i) the general TL lower competence of students in that classroom year level and ii) the sustainability of moves in TREs towards the teachers' goal to make the learner self-correct and learn from errors. TREs in this classroom are longer and complex in variety forms. Nevertheless, the B School learners produced more 'uptake' since T3 compulsorily obliged that the students who originally generated one deviant structure should self-repair in the end of TREs.
- 3) Learner competence in the T2 setting did not appear to cause more interaction and uptake. In this setting, students self-repaired minimally, possibly due to the declarative recasts delivered by T2, which were maybe not perceived as negative feedback. In contrast, students with lower competence in the TL seemed to uptake more in the T1 and T3 settings.

RQ3. What status and role may learner responses have in their interlanguage development?

- Teacher reactions might draw learner attention to their target language deviant structures through scaffolding TREs that encourage learner self-regulation. Examining TREs using Aljaafreh and Lantolf's Regulatory Scale reveals that TREs might score differing results depending on the types of teacher reactions and the kinds of collaborative dialogues engaged to repair incorrect forms. Depending on the nature of teacher's help, the learner may self-regulate aiming at self-repairing the deviant form using more implicit forms of feedback. In contrast, more explicit forms might 'other-regulate' learners and might not encourage them to self-repair. Overall, it seems that certain types of implicit teacher reactions (except recasts that are not perceived as such by learners in the T2 setting) appear to scaffold better to repair certain types of errors.

- There was a lower number of explicit feedback forms, which is considered less cognitively challenging theoretically. In a significant number of TREs, a number of types of teacher reactions such as elicitations, acted as prompts to allow learners to practice target language structures by producing output (Swain, 1985, 1995; Lyster, 2007b; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009) creating potentially conditions needed for language acquisition. Those forms might encourage learner hypotheses testing about the target language forms (Swain, 1985). Similarly, in social interactionist terms, TREs negotiation of form with the teachers might promote 'pushed output' for learners (Nassaji, 2007; Pica et al., 1989) and make students confront their errors when practising the TL. Nevertheless, learner failures in self-repairing their incorrect structures after teacher reactions do not imply that the teacher's reaction could be ineffective in acquisitional terms. The immediate and lasting, long-term repair effects of teacher reactions have not been discovered (Mackey, 1999; Nabei & Swain, 2002) but the evidence of uptake and what learners might do after teacher reactions could show whether learners could have noticed it.
- Providing the learners with time and opportunity for self-repair may benefit FL development. According to Long (1996), some implicit feedback forms such as recasts were more beneficial for SLA. Nevertheless, in this study, recasts did not promote self-repair in higher occurrences. Elicitations and metalinguistic feedback generated more learner's uptake and repairs.
- Variables such as students' age, L1 background, the purpose of learning the target language and the goal of the class could trigger different results from each classroom observation research. In general, younger learners in Year 1 are more other-regulated according to the sociocultural theory. Nevertheless, the rest of learners depending on their FL competence displayed different levels in the transcripts.
- With reference to the hypotheses of the RQ3 we can state that:
 - 1) There is evidence that each TRE displays unique differentiated degrees of regulation and teachers seem to adjust to learner needs individually according to their beliefs on teacher practices.
 - 2) We find that each episode is unique but some implicit types of reactions like elicitations and metalinguistic feedback appear to encourage more scaffolding in the T1 and T3 settings.

- 3) In contrast, some types of recasts, such as the declarative, did not seem to encourage learner self-regulation in the T2 setting and learner engagement in the TRE activities.

7.6 RELEVANT ISSUES RELATED TO THE STUDY

The present discussion focus on eclectic issues related to the empirical study on “Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output”.

7.6.1 Issue 1: consistency of results with previous research

The questions and concerns of this study are situated within a long-standing SLA line of research on input, which is considered a potential source of linguistic data for FL learners. This research trend has been mostly centred on the ways in which input can be modified to promote message comprehensibility. The conversational interactions in TREs may involve the negotiations of form and meaning.

Specifically, studies from the 1990s claim that researchers and teachers equally need to concern themselves how teacher behaviours might influence students’ perceptions of FL targeted linguistic items (Mackey et al., 2007). There are supporting views that corrective feedback is beneficial to L2 learners in self-repairing and modifying their overgeneralised interlanguage grammars, according to some social interactionist theories (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Pica, 2002; Tomasello & Herron, 1989).

A number of social interactionist approach theories claim that the L2 expert and the novice must negotiate FL classroom corrective procedures to facilitate effective learning. The idea is that the expert, that is, the FL language teacher, offers just enough assistance to encourage and guide the learner in learning activities. Therefore, this kind of teacher could aid learners to take more responsibility with regard to self-repair, potentially, their FL deviant products.

The Output Hypothesis research (Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995) has articulated a need for pushing L2 learners into modifying their output by providing teacher reactions to foreign

language learner output. Similarly, we presented the sociocultural theories claim that the teacher must try to be sensitive to the learner's actual level of competence, i.e., taking into account their ZPDs (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000). In this sense, TREs of classroom interaction and negotiation involving teachers and learners could be considered potential booster vehicles for FL classroom speech activity and apprenticeship (Leontiev, 1989).

This study reveals that the 3 teachers used eight types of feedback reactions: provide, adjustment, explanation, recast, clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation. They reacted in some way to over 95% of learner turns with errors in the Senegalese immersion schools. In contrast, Lyster's teachers in the Canadian immersion study responded to about 62% of learner turns with error.

Distinctively, the order of frequency of the feedback types differs from those reported in Lyster and Ranta's study (1997). Despite the order of frequencies not being the same, teacher reactions in the present study are more distributed. In addition, the rate of repair following recasts is high (34.4%) compared to Lyster and Ranta's study (18%).

Lyster (2001) observed that grammatical and phonological errors tended to be corrected with recasts, while lexical errors tended to invite negotiation of form more often than recasts. We realised that recasts are clearer accompanied with stressed intonation or a reduction of a student utterance to stress the error correction (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster, 1998a; Roberts, 1995). Repetition turned out to be the most effective negotiation move in bringing about student-generated repair, a result that is similar to Chaudron's studies (1977, 1986, 1988).

As the Year 8 immersion teacher in Lyster's study (1994) T1 and T3 react to students' output by not breaking the flow of classroom communication, repairing inaccurate forms according to the negotiation of form view, where students and teachers interact to repair deviant structures as a classroom collaboration activity. Nevertheless, T3 seems to push his students more accurately and compulsorily in producing some type of self-repair by repeating the correct form. Regarding uptake, the teacher reactions triggering the most successful instances of student-generated repair of deviant linguistic forms are: elicitation (42.1%), metalinguistic feedback (21.5%), clarification requests (15.2%),

recast (10%), repetition (29%), explanation (40%) and provide (0.5%). Nevertheless, we do not consider learner repetition as self-repair as it often consists of mere parroting of a correct provided form. Furthermore, the results indicated that almost 66% of all recasts did not lead to uptake.

In contrast to Allen et al.'s (1990) study, in this study it does not seem that teacher reactions were confusing and were triggered by teachers' irritation towards learner TL inaccuracies.

7.6.2 Issue 2: the individual and contextual variables

The present cross-sectional study has described a varied range of teacher reactive strategies, adopted when teachers have encountered FL learner inaccurate productions at different classroom levels and in differentiated immersion programmes.

The diversity in teacher reactions vis-à-vis classroom year levels seems to suggest that the contextual features and the participants might shape TREs. We have tried to articulate some factors that might influence the learner responses (including the uptake forms) to teacher reactions regarding their deviant TL productions. In particular, variables such as the teacher, student age, the culture, the purpose of learning the target language and the goal of the programme could trigger different results.

We have found some outcome divergences between the T2, T1 and T3 settings regarding teacher reactions to FL learner output provision. It could be the case that the teachers tailor their reactions according to their beliefs about their learners' needs.

Specifically, T2 who was the native teacher of the target language conspicuously reacted less to FL learner inaccurate productions and in the cases she did so, she mostly used recasts. These actions reflected her ideas about a non-intrusive error correction that she claimed in interviews. Consequently, her students appeared to generate less uptake after signalling inaccurate FL productions. In contrast, T1 and T3 (the non-native speakers of the target languages) reacted in higher proportions to learner output according to their ideas about negative feedback. Therefore, their learners produced more instances of uptake and self-repair in their classrooms.

In connection to the previous outcomes, the differing study results in the literature review appeared to support the idea that teacher reactions and learner uptake may vary depending on the instructional context. Furthermore, teachers' beliefs about their practices might influence teacher reactions. Generally, the three teachers seem to take into account their students' level of L2 proficiency reacting to their FL output as they revealed in interviews. T1 stated clearly that she disregarded some younger learner errors according to their interlanguage state. Nevertheless, such facts have not been proved quantitatively, mentioned in qualitative terms in most studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Likewise, we cannot know whether T2's learners i) had different beliefs about incorporating teacher feedback, ii) did not notice those teacher moves as such and iii) disregarded those forms as they felt they were proficient in the TL or could not accept corrections. In Lyster and Ranta's database (1997), immersion learners of a near-native competence in French, similar to T2's students, also neglected teacher reactions acting as negative feedback. This tendency contrasts with T1's EFL students who were less proficient students and T3's L3 Spanish beginner students who generated self-repair at 90%. Therefore, there could be differences regarding learner responses to uptake regarding students' competence in the TL.

It is possible that there could be variations in results regarding the learner ages. Lyster (1998a) suggested that in his study young ESL learners are less sensitive to linguistic forms when they learn the second language. That is, those learners might not notice the purpose of teacher reactions. Maybe this fact might explain that there were higher proportions of uptake after corrective feedback on specific linguistic errors in elder and more proficient students in the present study. However, it is still difficult to gauge 'learner's degrees of noticing' about the mismatches between their productions, given that 'noticing' is a subjective experience (Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001).

Furthermore, variables such as learner motivation to learn the language and the instrumentalisation of the language potentially inherent to the immersion programmes cannot be fully determined. It could be interpreted that the driving force for learning the target language might be higher in the eldest students than in the youngest ones in

immersion programmes, with regard to the participation rates in TREs and levels of uptaking.

The students at higher grades, in most cases, appeared to be more concerned with improving the target language proficiency to enter High School or to get better qualifications for higher educational institutions or university entrance tests. These worries were reflected in the learner responses of surveys and interviews. The exceptions were T2's students who seemed to disregard negative feedback in higher proportions.

As some students wrote in the survey, they were motivated to be corrected because they believed that it was a means to improving their target language knowledge. It is likely that the large percentage of overall uptake might be a manifestation of student stimulus to make progress in FL learning. Nevertheless, we should be cautious that beliefs are not facts.

There are some implications for studying teacher reactions in natural classroom contexts in contrast to controlled laboratory experiments (Mackey et al., 2000; Philp, 1998):

- i. First, data collected in natural interaction seems suitably to represent the oral types of teacher reactions to learners' deviant productions and how learners might benefit from the classroom interaction environment to acquire a FL. In this study, teacher reactions were provided to learners in a natural (non-manipulated) interaction
- ii. Second, the SLA interactionist theory which underlies this study supports the idea that learners through conversation have the opportunity to receive 'meaningful input'
- iii. In Neo-Vygotskian or sociocultural terms, TREs in a natural setting might depict better the potential unique instances of 'scaffolding' showing different levels of regulation. In contrast, it might be difficult to depict real classroom scaffolding in controlled situations.

In summary, unlike experimental studies, which attempt to eliminate the influence of variables, the present study collected data in natural classrooms and attempted to illustrate teacher reactions to foreign language classrooms taking place in real interactional contexts.

7.6.3 Issue 3: the limitations

Some limitations of the study should be mentioned. Firstly, a case study involving three immersion settings, no matter how detailed the microanalysis is, does not lend itself to extrapolating all educational immersion environments or other FL classrooms worldwide.

Primarily, we have presented the study of teacher reactions to foreign language learners in their classrooms at two immersion bilingual schools in Senegal. Therefore, the scope of the study does not allow for broad generalisations since we found significant differences in teacher reaction behaviours to learner output and variation in learner uptake outcomes across three immersion settings, which had no TRE pattern correlations.

Faced with such contradictory findings, we should be aware of recognising the weaknesses of the present research study as well as acknowledging its achievements. The aim of the present study was not in assessing the long-term effects of teacher corrective feedback in learner acquisition.

The researcher attempted to give a more complete view of this phenomenon, examining how teacher interventions might have immediate effects on student manifestations of immediate uptake in Lyster's sense (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2001). Nevertheless, observable uptake and learner self-repair during interaction in TREs does not mean that the learner could have internalised the targeted language form. Additionally, given that the study was not longitudinal, we do not know the lasting effect of teacher reactions on the students' FL development. Moreover, learners would also react to a reaction with private speech. Similarly, when teacher reactions have transferred repair to another learner or the whole class, we have not been able to assess the outcomes.

Furthermore, the results of the present study are limited by the small sample size, since working with a videoed database is labour-intensive, especially when the analysis is not carried out by a research team. We assume that the immediate signs of learner self-repair do not prove that the TL forms would be retained over time.

It may have been interesting to have:

- i. collected introspective immediate data about the participants in relation to TREs through qualitative tools like “stimulated recall” or “think aloud comments” indicating their perceptions about teacher reactions (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Mackey, 2006).
- ii. measured individually the progress of students regarding linguistic accuracy over time.
- iii. surveyed students’ cultural differences about the acceptability of teacher reactions in the form of negative feedback, which have not been considered. For instance, in some cultures like the Japanese one, students are extremely afraid of committing faults using a FL and their common strategy is not to experiment with the FL, since it is a shame to generate errors. For this reason, it should be interesting to take into account a varied multicultural background in the classrooms of the international schools.

In general, there is a need to replicate the study with an experimental design and with larger samples. However, this dissertation, in the way it has been carried out, might contribute to the enlarging and growing collection of teacher feedback in the SLA field illustrating TREs in different types of immersion classrooms at international schools in a Third World country.

7.7 SUMMARY

The present chapter has examined the patterns of TREs of three teachers interacting with their students in three differentiated FL immersion settings. First, the analysis centred on the frequency distribution of teacher feedback types. Second, it dealt with the relationship between feedback types and the ensuing learner responses, focusing

especially on learner self-repair uptake forms. Third, the results were gauged according to sociocultural theory and the SLA social interactionist approaches

The results show that 95% of student turns containing deviant output were reacted by teachers in TREs. Language teachers use a wide range of teacher reactions that act as negative feedback for learners. Apart from verbal components, we find non-verbal ones accompanying them. In addition, we found that TREs do not match the simple IRF classroom discourse sequence.

As we have developed theoretically in Chapter 1, some teacher forms might potentially help learners in 'noticing' problems in their non-target like produced utterances. It appears that some types of feedback in TREs may potentially raise more learner consciousness to detect TL inaccuracies in their own productions. One manifestation of such possible learner perceptions could be in producing uptake.

In particular, the frequencies and distributions of teacher reactions and the ensuing different types of learner uptake in TREs reveals that self-repair was substantially generated with implicit forms of feedback. The exception gleaned from the data regarding uptake triggers were 'declarative recasts' in the T2 setting that produced minimal learner responses.

Different variables were involved in the effects of teacher reactions to learner output such as learner age, the classroom year levels, teachers' beliefs about TREs and the learners' degree of future instrumental use of the FL have also been surveyed.

In summary, the present study findings reveal a complex picture of teacher reactions to foreign language learner output behaviours and their value for generating learner self-repairs. It must be pinpointed that the results of the study might only be a microanalysis case of a collection of studies on this issue. For that reason, we cannot make generalisations.

Chapter 8

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As an aid to the reader, the final chapter of this dissertation provides a brief summary, the conclusions, the implications for practice and the recommendations for future research.

8.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine “teachers’ reactions to foreign language learner output”, as the title indicates. The two main procedures carried out coincide with the two structural parts of the present dissertation:

- i. Part I covers the literature review related to teachers’ reactions to FL learner output phenomena.
- ii. Part II describes one empirical study which illustrates “Teacher Reaction Episodes to Foreign Language Learner Output” in three immersion settings.

In particular, Part I theoretically and methodologically contextualises the main theme under examination by describing the general conceptual framework of the empirical part. We have attempted to carry out a comprehensive review in line with Long’s (2007: 20) following statement: “*whatever the precise relationship, given that SLA theorists and language teachers share a common interest, L2 development, it would clearly be self-defeating for either group to ignore the other’s work*”.

We have portrayed that SLA research about Teacher Reaction Episodes (TREs) as a developing issue which has not yet one clear and unified research methodology. We refer to ‘reaction’ as any teacher action contingent to what a learner has previously done regarding a FL production.

In addition, we have identified the key questions that SLA research has addressed in relation to “Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output” by covering different methods of enquiry such as:

- 1) SLA theories (Chapter 1)
- 2) Socioculturalism (Chapter 2)
- 3) FL classroom social interaction studies (Chapter 3)
- 4) Teacher reaction features in the light of SLA works (Chapter 4)

During the initial period of the study, the theme of teacher feedback in interaction was a marginal research issue. However, in the present day it is one active area in SLA research.

As the literature review related to teacher reactions showed:

- i. There has been substantially a cumulative body of studies covering different approaches to examine teacher and student classroom interactions (see Chapters 3 and 4).
- ii. Researchers investigating the role of corrective feedback in SLA have made distinctively remarkable growth in the last two decades.

Specifically, we have dealt with intrapsychological and interpsychological aspects regarding “Teachers’ Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output” in order to better contextualise the study. To this end, we have drawn on the research and theories dealing with input and output in SLA, in view of relating it to the empirical study.

In general, the majority of earlier studies on error treatment (Corder, 1967; Hendrickson, 1978; Vigil & Oller, 1976) have recommended pushing learners in their output rather than simply providing them with the correct form. It seems that teacher reactions may lead to interlanguage development, if some given conditions are met:

- i. first, the teacher reaction provided should be clear enough to be perceived as such by learners
- ii. second, the teacher reaction strategy should offer time and opportunity for learners to self-repair in order to modify output

- iii. third, the reaction should be finely tuned to target the error and the learner may perceive it

In present-day SLA research, there are two central study points: i) the conversational interactions of teachers and learners and ii) their potential benefits (see Chapters 2, 3 and 4). Nevertheless, the SLA optimal environment has not been determined. The issue whether teacher reactions under the forms of corrective feedback might facilitate learner acquisition and the facilitative factors surrounding this process are still controversial from different research approaches (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf, 2006; Long, 2007; Mackey, 2006).

A number of studies have carried out research attempting to ascertain the relationship between learner noticing of input and FL acquisition (Schmidt, 1990). Some factors have been examined as:

- i. the potential intrapersonal triggered cognitive processes
- ii. the degrees of 'input salience'
- iii. the concept of 'learner readiness' to acquire target language knowledge

Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003) claimed that it is still necessary to estimate the variables that might affect the amount and nature of negative feedback and the scope of learner repair or generated modified output. Hence, in the present day a growing number of studies attempt to portray the observable features of teacher reactions concerning negative feedback, but yielded inconclusive evidence. This area is still being investigated.

On the other hand, Part II describes one empirical study carried out for observing and identifying the turns of TREs (Teacher Reaction Episodes) extracted from data collected in two African (Senegalese) international schools: one a primary school and the other a secondary. In this way, we have proceeded in describing:

- 1) the statement of purpose of the empirical study (Chapter 5)
- 2) its methodology (Chapter 6)
- 3) the results and the discussion (Chapter 7)

This observational part has been theoretically and methodologically framed into one hybrid approach covering diverse complementary perspectives. For instance, the SLA social interactionist views, socioculturalism, Conversation Analysis and ethnomethodology. The focus has been on the observation of “Teacher Reactions to Foreign Language Learner Output”; namely, explicit and implicit negative forms of teacher feedback.

In order to illustrate this phenomenon, we studied three differentiated immersion settings by means of video recordings and analysed the natural classroom interactions focusing on teacher reactions. We have observed three teachers: 2 teaching English at one bilingual English-French primary school at two levels (Intermediate English and Advanced English, respectively) and 1 giving instruction of Spanish as an L3 at one bilingual English-French secondary school.

‘Immersion’ in these educational settings can be defined as the teaching approach in which students receive academic instruction in a language, that is not usually the mother tongue of the learners, and acquire it by studying part of the core content subjects in that target language.

We collected data in such an educational environment in order to investigate the relationship among learner errors, teacher reactions and uptake. Furthermore, we observed the frequency distribution of TREs (Teacher Reaction Episodes) in videorecorded data, and identified, transcribed and analysed the moves in TREs.

By reporting corpus based evidences, we have attempted to find out the conditions and means that might allow for felicitous FL teacher reactions to foreign language learner output in acquisitional terms. The study has especially examined TREs as opportunities to engage in ‘meaningful interactions’ for acquiring FLs.

In particular, the empirical study follows the lines of interactionist and sociocultural theories that claim that teacher interactive negative feedback adjustments are crucial to raise learner consciousness of the appropriateness of their FL productions, by adopting part of the model of corrective feedback discourse, designed by Lyster and Ranta (1997), which considers sequences of feedback moves. We have focused on details of TREs that might potentially favour learner opportunities for scaffolding (Wertsch, 1991).

In methodological terms, this study aimed at:

- 1) describing the way(-s) in which learners and teachers verbally and non-verbally engage didactic negotiations during TREs
- 2) identifying how TREs might be salient for language acquisition in engaging learner noticing of their deviant target language forms
- 3) investigating if learners engage after teacher immediate interventions, pay attention to their errors, and if they might fruitfully self-repair
- 4) surveying teacher and learner beliefs on TREs

In addition, we have been concerned with the specific component of teacher reactions that has also been named 'negotiation of form' in SLA research (Ellis et al., 1994; Gass et al., 1998; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Loschky, 1994; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 1998).

'Negotiation of form' takes into account teacher corrective feedback and especially, the elicitation of target language forms on the part of the learner during classroom interaction. This view is connected with the facilitative role of conversation in L2 development. Specifically, conversation is claimed to provide negative evidence about learners' own incorrect productions. Therefore, it is assumed that acquisition takes place in a social environment and is assisted by face-to-face collaborative dialogue in the FL classroom.

In order to depict TREs, we reformulated existing coding schemes designed to break down teacher negative verbal feedback and included the non-verbal components captured in our videoed database.

Firstly, we attempted to feature and categorise comprehensively the types of teacher reactions to FL learner deviant structures, adapting Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and Chaudron's (1988) categories of teacher feedback. Subsequently, we operationalised the codes under subcategories such as, i) disregard, ii) explicit verbal negative feedback, iii) implicit verbal negative feedback and iv) non-verbal components.

We summarise them briefly:

- **'Disregard'** category is a teacher strategy that has not been fully examined but only mentioned in some studies about teacher feedback (Chaudron, 1988). It has also been labelled as 'indifference', 'abandon' or 'topic continuation'. In the empirical part of the study, this aspect has been analysed under the heading of "*non incorporations of student utterances*". This notion covers the Disregard Teacher Reactive Episodes (DTREs). That is, episodes in which the teacher ignores a learner utterance or abandons correction after several attempts.
- **'Explicit negative feedback'** (i.e., overt error correction) is the kind of pedagogical feedback or teacher reaction that has pervaded SL and FL research on teaching. This trend emerged in the 70s when 'extensive error correction' was viewed as the key to success in SLA. Additionally, some authors have observed that most foreign language teachers rely heavily on error correction as the major source of feedback (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Chaudron, 1988). Moreover, since last decade, there has been a growing bulk of studies that has defended the benefits of explicit error correction in classroom interaction (DeKeyser, 1993). This type of teacher reaction overtly draws learner attention to incorrect TL forms. This practice is said to be less beneficial for FL acquisition despite there being no conclusive empirical results derived from studies (Ammar & Spada, 2006).
- **'Implicit negative feedback'** is defined as the teacher feedback that encourages students to correct themselves. That is, not giving the correct version for learner output at once. This type of feedback has begun to attract linguists (Long et al., 1998; Lyster, 1998a; Mackey & Philp, 1998) since the publication of Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996) in the SLA field. Several learning approaches suggest that the provision of implicit forms of negative feedback (mainly clarification requests and recasts) might induce learners to detect the disparity between their IL and the TL, although different studies give different outcomes.

- **Non-verbal components** in TREs consist of embodied and material actions that might act as a teacher reaction, accompany one verbal teacher reaction or complement the intended sense of the reaction.

Furthermore, we scrutinised the frequency of teacher reactions and speculated about potential effectiveness of teacher reactions to learner deviant productions. Firstly, we identified all the TREs in the videoed immersion classroom corpus and segmented discourse according to the Ethnography of the Speaking and Conversation Analysis frameworks. After examining the teacher reaction types and their distributions, we have looked at instances of student uptake that ensued after teacher reactions and focused on learner repair. In this fashion, we have tried to assess the potential influence of negative feedback in learner incorporations of teacher reactions. The results seem to reflect certain trends in relation to the error types, the kinds of teacher reactions and the immersion settings, classroom years and levels vis-à-vis 'learner uptake'.

Teacher reactions for learner output have also been scrutinised from the sociocultural perspective. We consider TREs as apprenticeship activities shaped in immersion classroom interaction. In particular, we distinguished at least two agents of mediation in TREs according to the sociocultural perspective: i) the human beings and ii) the tools participating in the learning processes (Kozulin, 2003).

We applied Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) Regulatory Scale tool to analyse 'learner self-regulation' during TREs of the empirical study. We measured through it the potential benefits of some types of teacher moves in an exploratory way. Specifically, we addressed how 'scaffolding' might be promoted and how teachers made learners actively engage in self-correcting their production in interpsychological relationships (Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

We found that there were cases involving multi-episodic episodes of 'scaffolding' (Peregoy, 1999). Additionally, in order to triangulate data we surveyed the participating teachers' and elder students' views on certain TRE phenomena.

Overall, the empirical study examined the ways foreign language teachers react to foreign language learner output and the nature of their strategies as unique actions framed within a specific activity context (Leontiev, 1989). Furthermore, we have

addressed how the learner uses any feedback that may have been offered in the classroom.

8.2 CONCLUSIONS

The original aim of the micro-genetic and cross-sectional study illustrating TREs issues has been to probe the variables of teacher reactions to L2 and L3 learner output in two international Senegalese immersion bilingual schools. The main thesis of this dissertation is that teachers' reactions to foreign language learner output reactions might potentially trigger learner uptake which could facilitate FL acquisition. In view of this, we included the analysis of the teacher reactions distributions, the linguistic or content nature of the targeted learner productions and the levels of learner 'uptake'. Here we bring together the summary of conclusions regarding the cross-sectional empirical study.

Regarding teachers' data we can summarise the following:

- Global analysis of data indicated that in most cases teachers 'incorporate' (95%) under the forms of negative feedback FL learner inaccurate utterances in the three immersion settings. That is, they provide feedback for learners. Only 5% of Disregard Teacher Reactive Episodes (DTREs) that did not incorporate target language learner deviant utterances were found in data.
- Taking into account the overall results in the three settings, the most usual type of immediate teacher reaction is elicitation (n= 409; 34.5%) followed by metalinguistic feedback (n= 220; 18.5%), clarification request (n= 170; 14.3%), recast (n= 140; 11.8%), explanation (n= 112; 9.4%), repetition (n= 110; 9.3%), provide (n= 14; 1.2%) and adjustment (n= 11; 0.9%).
- Teacher reactions appear to be more complex than the traditional IRF classroom pattern (Bellack et al., 1966; Schegloff, 2007; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Teacher reaction episodes might be 'mono-episodic' or 'multi-episodic'. A significant number of teacher reaction episodes (TREs) (almost 9%) involve 'multiple feedback'. Furthermore, we find that prototypical patterns might be broken by learners' interruptions.
- In the present study, the collection of videoed data proved that the non-verbal components (n= 991) should be considered in TRE studies. We find a) different

types of non-verbal cues and b) non-verbal elements such as gestures and writing on the blackboard. Writing on the blackboard (60.5%) seems to reinforce some TRE reactions of the types 'positive reinforcement', 'explanation' or recast' and becomes a significant mediator of learning.

- Teachers provided different types of negative feedback to learners. T1 and T3 favoured more 'negotiation of form' through 'elicitations', 'metalinguistic feedback' and 'clarification requests' and delivered lower numbers of 'recasts'. However, T2 provided only 'recasts' but disregarded most learner errors. Their practices in the videorecorded data matched their beliefs about TREs expressed in interviews and questionnaires.
- Globally, the fact that there was a low number of 'recasts' (33.6%) contradicts other studies that claimed that those types of teacher reactions are frequent in immersion contexts as other studies claimed as universal. Curiously enough, T2, who is the native teacher of the TL taught and the only non-African, used them more extensively. This study has noted that 'recasts' might be ineffective in producing immediate 'self-repair' as it is the case in the T2 setting (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Long, 1977).
- There are often extra teacher comments following core prototypical teacher reactions episodes such as positive reinforcement forms after learner uptake or nagging comments.
- Possibly, the three teachers' styles were possibly manifested in their TRs and corresponded to their surveyed expressed views. To a certain extent, teachers participating in this study have confirmed their beliefs on their own corrective practices in FL classrooms as captured in video data. For instance, T1 and T3, the non-native teachers, stated that feedback is necessary for learners. Therefore, they assign a specific role to negative feedback as the teacher reaction that negotiates accurate forms for learners. However, T2 influenced by her Krashian formation and practice in bilingual Californian schools does not value negative feedback very much and preferred to use 'recasts' when some learner deviant structures occurred in her classrooms.
- Only T1 codeswitches into the L1 of the majority of her students in some types of reactions such as 'metalinguistic comments', 'repeat' requests or 'recasts'.
- The classroom size and age group might shape the provision of teacher reactions. It seemed that it could produce higher frequencies of teacher reactions in a smaller

classroom group such as Year 6 in the T1 setting. Nevertheless, we have not found statistically significant results regarding these contextual factors.

Concerning the learners' data we can make the following statements:

- The majority of learners participating respond immediately to the teacher reactions (more than 85%) modifying their original inaccurate structures or making another mistake, generating 'uptake'.
- Certain types of TREs may encourage learners to 'notice' better interlanguage gaps between their erroneous utterances and the target language than others. In the present study, 'metalinguistic corrective feedback' appears to be the most effective in promoting 'uptake' and self-correction than 'recasts'. Learners repaired over 94% errors that received feedback.
- Negotiations through immediate implicit teacher reactions as 'elicitations', 'metalinguistic feedback' and 'repetitions' seemed to promote more repairs in contrast to 'recasts', producing over 6.25% of 'uptake'. Lexical repairs took place more frequently after forms such as 'elicitation' and 'metalinguistic feedback' rather than 'recasts'. Phonological repairs occurred in higher numbers after 'recasts' and explicit correction.
- 'Recasts' do not seem to produce efficiently learner awareness of a linguistic need or input-output mismatch as some authors have suggested (Long, 1996; Long et al., 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009). 'Recast' and 'explicit correction' were the least effective teacher reaction moves in eliciting students' 'self-repair'. Only 34% out of 280 'recasts' produced 'self-repair'. We find episodes where learners possibly take some types of teacher negative feedback as "red herrings" (Lyster, 1998a; Mackey & Philp, 1998).
- In the T1 setting, elder learners (Year 6; 10 yrs.) generated more 'uptake' implying that they might be more aware of the usability of teacher reactions in self-repairing their productions than younger learners (Year 1; 5 yrs.). These results could be similar to those of Mackey and Philp's (1998) and Oliver's (1995) studies which suggested that adult learners do not ignore 'recasts' as much as younger learners relating this phenomenon to psycho-developmental factors. Learner competence in the T2 setting did not appear to cause more interaction and 'uptake'. In this setting, students self-repaired minimally, possibly due to the declarative 'recasts' delivered

by T2, which were maybe not perceived as negative feedback. In contrast, students with lower competence in the TL seemed to uptake more in the T1 and T3 settings.

- However, we have indicated that possibly such longer learner responses could be due to i) the general TL lower competence of students in that classroom year level and ii) the sustainability of moves in TREs towards the teacher's goal to make the learner self-correct and learn from errors. In the case of the B School, learners produced more 'uptake' forms since T3 compulsorily obliged them to self-repair at the end of TREs.
- Younger students respond more spontaneously to teacher reactions of their schoolmates' deviant forms, possibly being unaware of the canonical implicit rules of the classroom. Furthermore, in contrast to previous studies (Long & Sato, 1983), students were not discouraged to participate in TREs and some learners were risk-takers in negotiating forms in the T1 and T3 settings. We suggested that it could be a Senegalese cultural factor.

As regards learners' responses:

- Examining TREs using Aljaafreh and Lantolf's Regulatory Scale reveals that, depending on the nature of teacher's help, the learner may 'self-regulate' aiming at self-repairing the deviant form using more implicit forms of feedback. In contrast, more explicit forms might 'other-regulate' learners in sociocultural terms and might not encourage them to self-repair. Hence, certain types of implicit teacher reactions (except recasts that are not perceived as such by learners) appear to scaffold better, to repair certain types of errors.
- Certain kinds of teacher reactions such as elicitation, acted as prompts to allow learners to practise target language structures by producing output (Swain, 1985, 1995) and creating potential conditions needed for language acquisition. These types of negative feedback might encourage learner hypotheses testing about the target language forms (Swain, 1985).
- In social interactionist terms, 'negotiation of form' might promote 'pushed output' for learners (Nassaji, 2007; Pica et al., 1989) and make students confront their errors when practising the TL in TREs. Nevertheless, the immediate and lasting, long-term repair effects of teacher reactions have not been discovered (Mackey, 1999; Nabei & Swain, 2002) but the evidence of 'uptake' and what learners might do after teacher reactions could show whether learners could have noticed it.

- Providing the learners with time and opportunity for self-repair may benefit FL development. According to Long (1996), some implicit feedback forms such as 'recasts' were more beneficial for SLA. Nevertheless, in this study, 'recasts' did not promote self-repair in higher occurrences. 'Elicitations' and 'metalinguistic feedback' generated more learner uptake and repair.
- Possibly contextual variables such as student age, L1 background, the purpose of learning the target language and the goal of the class could shape TREs and yield different results in observational studies. In the present study, younger learners in Year 1 are more 'other-regulated' according to the sociocultural theory. Nevertheless, the rest of learners depending on their FL competence displayed different levels of 'regulation' in their ZPDs in the transcripts.
- Each TRE displays unique differentiated degrees of 'regulation' and teachers seem to adjust to learner needs individually, according to their beliefs about teacher practice.
- Each TRE is distinctive but some implicit types of reactions like 'elicitations' and 'metalinguistic feedback' appear to encourage more 'scaffolding' in the T1 and T3 settings.
- Some types of 'recasts', such as the declarative ones, did not seem to promote learner 'self-regulation' in the T2 setting and learner engagement in the TRE activities.

8.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Several points of this study might have implications for foreign language pedagogy and instructional practice. In particular, the resulting outcomes might be useful to make teachers reflect about how their reactions might have effects on learner repairs. It could also help to raise awareness about ways of endowing learners with more opportunities to use the FL in face-to-face classroom interaction. Likewise, the empirical part of the dissertation might encourage teachers to coach learners about the importance of utilising teacher feedback in view of improving their foreign linguistic accuracy and self-repairing deviant forms.

The outcomes among different groups suggest that teachers' reactions should be adjusted to the learner individual characteristics taking into account their FL proficiency levels and ages. Special care should be taken for creating environments that might

support learner speech production in the FL and students learning to self-repair errors in order to get more involved in their learning.

Overall, any claims based on the present findings should be taken as tentative.

8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

By looking critically at the existing body of studies related to the dissertation theme and the outcomes of the empirical study, we become aware of the research gaps on this topic.

Future research should address why learners did not self-repair or show any sign of noticing it in any form of 'uptake'. Consequently, learner uptake should be further examined considering the value of "attention" (Logan, 1988) or "noticing" (Schmidt, 1990, 1995) in intrapsychological terms.

The developmental readiness of learners would be a probe to investigate the potential acquisition of new target language structures (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Pienemann et al., 1988). According to this view, learners can acquire some target linguistic features successfully at different points in their development, while others can only be acquired according to a built-in syllabus or internal schedule. The scheme might be adjusting teacher reactions under the forms of negative feedback to the appropriate learner individual developmental stages.

It may also be interesting to carry out longitudinal studies catering for the interlanguage competence of learners at the beginning of the academic year, and that teachers attune their reactions ideally according to the individual learners' needs, considering also their functional language uses. In addition, in future research it would be necessary to assess the effect of teacher reactions on the long term.

Likewise, it would be interesting to organise a study with a pre-test/post-test design and one experimental group receiving the kinds of reactions which the present empirical study reveals as most productive, alongside a control group. Furthermore, more studies are needed to determine how general social and cultural aspects may influence the patterns of TREs and learner repair.

Distinctively, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994: 481) say: “*Since interaction between individuals also entails a rich gestural component, future research on learning in the ZPD requires the analysis of video recordings to capture the meaning displayed by speakers on their hands.*”

In methodological terms, the difficulties in working with videoed material in the Applied Linguistic field are considerable. Despite the fact that the CHILDES program incorporated in the last version of 2004 the use of MPEG1, it is still a little difficult to encode this format from a DV Digital Camcorder. Six years ago the process of transforming videorecorded data of 30 minutes took hours. Nevertheless, thanks to the speed of the technological progress, the process has been shortened when editing film clips and converting the video formats. Compressing video formats is necessary to work with the existing software tools such as CLAN or ELAN that facilitate data segmentation and keep them in files. In general, it is hard and time-consuming working with video recordings for research purposes but this data support gives a more comprehensive view of any phenomenon. This methodological aspect should be improved in studies dealing with any face-to-face interaction such as the ones occurring in classrooms or natural acquisitional contexts.

Moreover, the usability of ‘uptake’ in FL acquisition remains an empirical question that should be further assessed. Outcomes of the present study seem to offer grounds for further research in that some variables might lead to optimal teacher reactions geared to learner self-repair and facilitating learning, scaffolding in TREs in particular, and learner ‘uptake’ in different learning environments. Hence, we need to continue examining the intrapsychological processes occurring during TREs. However, the instruments for measuring this issue are not ready. On the other hand, it would be interesting to study variables like motivation and positive feedback and how they might have effects on learner uptake

Finally, there is a need for more empirical studies that cater for immediate introspective data from the research participants (i.e., teachers and learners) by using ‘think-aloud’ or ‘stimulated recall’ tools. Those procedures may allow us to know how learners might be noticing the gap of their incorrect utterances prompted by teacher reactions. In addition, there are still few studies that examine TREs from the participants’ perspective and more studies of this kind should be carried out.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

THE REGULATORY SCALE BY ALJAAFREH & LANTOLF (1994)

REGULATORY SCALE – IMPLICIT (STRATEGIC) TO EXPLICIT (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994: 471)	
LEVELS	DESCRIPTIONS
0	Tutor asks the learner to reflect on their utterances, find the errors, and correct them independently.
1	Construction of a collaborative frame prompted by the presence of the tutor as a potential dialogic pattern.
2	Prompted or focused when teacher asks to repeat a sentence that contains the error by the learner or the tutor.
3	Tutor indicates that something may be wrong in a segment (i.e., sentence, clause, line) (e.g., <i>"Is there anything wrong in this sentence?"</i>).
4	Tutor rejects unsuccessful attempts at recognizing the error.
5	Tutor narrows down the location of the error (e.g., tutor repeats or points to the specific segment which contains the error).
6	Tutor indicates the nature of the error, but does not identify the error (e.g., <i>"There is something wrong with the tense marking here"</i>).
7	Tutor identifies the error (e.g., <i>"You can't use an auxiliary here"</i>).
8	Tutor rejects learner's unsuccessful attempts at correcting the error.
9	Tutor provides clues to help the learner arrive at the correct form (e.g., <i>"It is not really past but some thing that is still going on."</i>).
10	Tutor provides the correct form.
11	Tutor provides some explanation for use of the correct form.
12	Tutor provides examples of the correct pattern when other forms of help fail to produce an appropriate responsive action.

High in ZPD (levels 1, 2, 3): the learner is close to independent performance.

Low in ZPD (levels 10, 11, 12): the learner is further away from producing the correct form without help.

Appendix B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS

By signing below you are agreeing that you have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet and that you agree to take part in this research study.

I do/do not consent to being identified in the data and in any work arising from it (please delete as appropriate).

Participant's signature

Date

Printed name of person obtaining consent

Signature of person obtaining consent

Appendix C

NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER CLASS AND NATIONALITIES

NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER CLASS AND NATIONALITIES					
Schools	Teachers	Senegalese/ English Grades	FL Immersion classroom settings	Students' nationalities	N of Ss
A	T1	GS (Grande Section)/ Year 1	Intermediate English Level Immersion	6 Senegalese, 2 German, 1 French, 1 Indonesian	10
	T2	GS (Grande Section)/ Year 1	Advanced English classrooms	6 Senegalese, 1 Italian, 1 Nigerian, 1 Ghanaian, 1 American, 1 Lebanese-Senegalese, 1 French	12
	T1	CP (Cours Préparatoire) /Year 2	Intermediate English Level Immersion	10 Senegalese, 3 French, 1 Moroccan, 1 Portuguese, 1 Italian	16
	T2	CP (Cours Préparatoire) /Year 2	Advanced English classrooms	6 Senegalese, 2 American, 1 Nigerian, 1 Japanese	10
	T1	CE1 (Cours Élémentaire1) /Year 3	Intermediate English Level Immersion	6 Senegalese, 1 German, 4 French	12
	T2	CE1 (Cours Élémentaire1) /Year 3	Advanced English classrooms	7 Senegalese, 1 Nigerian, 1 American, 1 Canadian	10
	T1	CE2 (Cours Élémentaire2) /Year 4	Intermediate English Level Immersion	9 Senegalese, 2 French	11
	T2	CE2 (Cours Élémentaire2) /Year 4	Advanced English classrooms	7 Senegalese, 1 American	8
	T1	CM1 (Cours Moyen 1) /Year 5	Intermediate English Level Immersion	9 Senegalese, 1 Thai, 1 Lebanese-Senegalese, 1 French	12
	T2	CM1 (Cours Moyen 1) /Year 5	Advanced English classrooms	6 Senegalese, 1 Brazilian, 1 American, 1 Nigerian	9
	T1	CM2 (Cours Moyen 2) /Year 6	Intermediate English Level Immersion	3 Senegalese, 1 French	4
	T2	CM2 (Cours Moyen 2) /Year 6	Advanced English classrooms	3 Senegalese, 1 Togolese	4
B	T3	4 ^e /Year 9	Spanish FL classrooms	13 Senegalese, 2 French, 1 Korean, 1 American, 1 Swiss	18
	T3	3 ^e /Year 10	Spanish FL classrooms	14 Senegalese, 1 American, 1 German, 1 Saudi Arabian, 1 Togolese, 1 Liberian, 1 Nigerian	20

Abbreviation: Ss: Students FL : foreign language; N: number

Appendix D

NOTE-TAKING FORMAT SHEET

Date:
Class:
Teacher:
Tape n°:

ACTIVITIES:
NOTES:

Appendix E

QUESTIONNAIRES

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

COURSE:

(In order to ensure anonymity, do not write your name.)

1. What is your mother tongue?

2. What other languages do you speak?

3. Years learning Spanish:

4. Do you like Spanish? Yes No

5. How many hours do you spend studying Spanish at home per week?

_____ hours per week

6. Do you use Spanish outside the classroom? Yes No

If 'Yes', please specify:

7. Do you think that learning Spanish is useful for your future? Yes No

If 'Yes', please specify:

8. Do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

Use the scale of 0-4 where 0 means 'no opinion', 1 'strongly disagree', 2 'disagree', 3 'agree' and 4 'strongly agree'.

Mark "X" only one box.

no opinion	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
------------	-------------------	----------	-------	----------------

a) The mastery of grammar is foremost for communicating in Spanish.	0	1	2	3	4
b) Spanish is easier to learn than French and English.	0	1	2	3	4
c) I feel that I learn more when the teacher encourages me to self-correct my errors.	0	1	2	3	4
d) I learn more French and English in content subjects than in language courses.	0	1	2	3	4
e) The blackboard is an important tool for learning.	0	1	2	3	4
f) Teacher's appraisals encourage me to learn Spanish.	0	1	2	3	4
g) Communication breakdowns for explanations and corrections are annoying.	0	1	2	3	4
h) I feel frustrated when the teacher informs me about errors.	0	1	2	3	4
i) Interferences from other languages are inevitable while learning Spanish.	0	1	2	3	4
j) It is challenging when the teacher does not correct and asks another student or the class to mend errors.	0	1	2	3	4
k) I feel that I need time to process information in Spanish.	0	1	2	3	4
l) Communicating in a foreign language is more important than mastering its grammar.	0	1	2	3	4

no opinion	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
------------	-------------------	----------	-------	----------------

m) Grammatical explanations are the keys to language learning success. **0 1 2 3 4**

n) I want all my errors addressed on the spot by my teacher. **0 1 2 3 4**

o) When I attempt to speak Spanish, English or French often comes into my mind. **0 1 2 3 4**

p) I regret that English or French are not used in the classroom when I do not understand what was said. **0 1 2 3 4**

q) I prefer self-correcting my errors rather than the teacher gives me me at once the correct response. **0 1 2 3 4**

r) Oral interaction is important to acquire a foreign language. **0 1 2 3 4**

9. How frequently do you come across the following classroom situations?

Use the scale of 1-6 where 1 means 'never', 2 'rarely', 3 'sometimes', 4 'often', 5 'usually' and 6 'always'.

Mark "X" only one box.

never	rarely	sometimes	often	usually	always
-------	--------	-----------	-------	---------	--------

a) I ask questions to the teacher when I do not understand something. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

b) I have got many opportunities to speak Spanish in the classroom. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

c) I quickly realise my mistakes. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

d) I need time to understand what the teacher asks me. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

e) I ask my classmates to help me. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

f) I work alone in the classroom. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

10. Rank the importance of the following Spanish language areas:

Use the scale of 0-5 where 0 means 'no important' and 5 'most important'

Mark "X" only one box.

	No important	Least important_____Most important				
a) grammar	0	1	2	3	4	5
b) vocabulary	0	1	2	3	4	5
c) spelling	0	1	2	3	4	5
d) discourse	0	1	2	3	4	5

11. Write down three things that you LIKE learning Spanish

12. Write down three things that you DO NOT LIKE learning Spanish.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS SURVEY. I TRULY APPRECIATE YOUR TIME AND EFFORT. PLEASE RETURN YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE TO YOUR SPANISH TEACHER. ¡SUERTE!

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

(In order to ensure anonymity, do not write your name.)

1. Years of teaching experience and workplace names:

2. Have you ever taken a course for training foreign language teachers?

3. Do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

Use the scale of 0-4 where 0 means 'no opinion', 1 'strongly disagree', 2 'disagree', 3 'agree' and 4 'strongly agree'.

Mark "X" only one box.

no opinion	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
------------	-------------------	----------	-------	----------------

a) Communicating in a foreign language is more important than mastering its grammar.	0	1	2	3	4
b) Oral interaction is important to acquire a foreign language.	0	1	2	3	4
c) Students learn more English in content based instruction than in language courses.	0	1	2	3	4
d) Positive feedback encourages students to learn better.	0	1	2	3	4
e) Communication breakdowns for explanations and corrections are annoying.	0	1	2	3	4
f) Learners feel frustrated when the teacher informs them about errors.	0	1	2	3	4

no opinion	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
------------	-------------------	----------	-------	----------------

g) Learners need some time to process information in English, when the teacher asks them something. **0 1 2 3 4**

h) It is challenging when the teacher does not correct and asks another student or the class to mend errors. **0 1 2 3 4**

i) Grammatical explanations are the keys to language learning success. **0 1 2 3 4**

j) Learner errors should be addressed on the spot explicitly. **0 1 2 3 4**

k) Students can learn more when the teacher encourages them to self-correct errors. **0 1 2 3 4**

l) The degree of introversion -extroversion of learners influence their participation in classroom activities. **0 1 2 3 4**

4. How frequently do you come across the following classroom situations?

Use the scale of 1-6 where 1 means 'never' , 2 'rarely', 3 'sometimes', 4 'often', 5 'usually' and 6 'always'.

Mark "X" only one box.

never	rarely	sometimes	often	usually	always
-------	--------	-----------	-------	---------	--------

a) Students ask me questions when they do not understand something. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

b) Learners speak English in the classroom. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

c) Students quickly realise their mistakes. **1 2 3 4 5 6**

never	rarely	sometimes	often	usually	always
-------	--------	-----------	-------	---------	--------

d) I use non-linguistic behaviours such as gestures for clarifying things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
e) In English classrooms I use French.	1	2	3	4	5	6
f) I use the blackboard to support teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
g) I give students opportunities to solve problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
h) Small group arrangements encourage classroom interaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6
i) I ask the learner to reflect on their utterances to find errors and self-correct.	1	2	3	4	5	6
j) When foreign language students speak in English, there are interferences from their mother tongue.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. Rank the importance of the following English language areas:

Use the scale of 0-5 where 0 means 'no important' and 5 'most important'.

Mark "X" only one box.

	No important	Least important	_____	Most important		
a) grammar	0	1	2	3	4	5
b) vocabulary	0	1	2	3	4	5
c) spelling	0	1	2	3	4	5
d) discourse	0	1	2	3	4	5

6. Write down what role you play as a teacher in classroom interaction.

7. What factors do you think might influence classroom interaction? (For instance, i) the learner age, ii) the features of the educational setting, or the iii) the number of students in the classroom.

8. What error treatment strategies you use in classroom interaction?

9. Do you find any difficulties in teaching students from diverse cultural backgrounds?

10. What do you think about the L1 use in the FL classroom?

CUESTIONARIO PARA LOS PROFESORES

(Para asegurar el anonimato, no escriba su nombre.)

1. Años de experiencia docente y nombres de los lugares de trabajo.

2. ¿Ha participado en cursos de formación relacionados con la didáctica de lenguas extranjeras?

3. Indique en qué grado está de acuerdo con las siguientes frases.

Utilice la escala de 0-4 donde 0 significa "no sabe no contesta", 1 "discrepo totalmente", 2 "discrepo", 3 "estoy de acuerdo" y 4 "estoy totalmente de acuerdo".

Marque una "X" únicamente en una casilla.

no sabe no contesta	discrepo totalmente	discrepo	de acuerdo	totalmente de acuerdo
------------------------	------------------------	----------	---------------	--------------------------

a) Ser capaz de comunicarse a través de una lengua extranjera es más importante que dominar su gramática.

0 1 2 3 4

b) La interacción oral es primordial para adquirir una lengua extranjera.

0 1 2 3 4

c) Los estudiantes aprenden mejor los idiomas a través de asignaturas por contenidos que en los cursos de lengua.

0 1 2 3 4

d) La retroalimentación positiva anima a que los estudiantes aprendan mejor.

0 1 2 3 4

	no sabe no contesta	discrepo totalmente	discrepo	de acuerdo	totalmente de acuerdo
--	------------------------	------------------------	----------	---------------	--------------------------

e) Las interrupciones de la interacción en el aula para dar explicaciones y correcciones son molestas.	0	1	2	3	4
f) Los aprendices se frustran cuando los docentes les indican sus errores.	0	1	2	3	4
g) Los aprendices necesitan un lapso de tiempo para procesar la información en español cuando el profesor les pregunta algo.	0	1	2	3	4
h) Es un reto cuando el profesor no proporciona la corrección a un aprendiz y pide a otro estudiante o a toda la clase que corrija el error.	0	1	2	3	4
i) Las explicaciones gramaticales son la clave del éxito en el aprendizaje de idiomas.	0	1	2	3	4
j) Todos los errores de los aprendices deberían ser tratados al instante de manera explícita.	0	1	2	3	4
k) Los estudiantes pueden aprender mejor si el profesor les anima a autocorregir sus errores.	0	1	2	3	4
l) El grado de introversión / extroversión de los aprendices influye en sus intervenciones en las actividades de clase.	0	1	2	3	4

4. ¿Con qué frecuencia experimenta en el aula las siguientes situaciones?

Utilice la escala de 1-6 donde 1 significa "nunca", 2 "raras veces", 3 "a veces", 4 "a menudo", 5 "normalmente" y 6 "siempre".

Marque una "X" únicamente en una casilla

	nunca	raras veces	a veces	a menudo	normalmente	siempre
a) Los estudiantes me preguntan cuando no entienden algo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
b) Los estudiantes usan mucho el español en el aula.	1	2	3	4	5	6
c) Los estudiantes se dan cuenta rápidamente de sus errores.	1	2	3	4	5	6
d) Utilizo recursos no lingüísticos tales como gestos para que los aprendices me entiendan.	1	2	3	4	5	6
e) Durante las clases de español uso también el francés.	1	2	3	4	5	6
j) Utilizo la pizarra como soporte didáctico y de aprendizaje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
k) Doy oportunidades a mis estudiantes para que resuelvan por sí solos problemas de lengua.	1	2	3	4	5	6
l) Distintas disposiciones de los estudiantes durante actividades por parejas o en pequeños grupos estimulan la interacción en el aula.	1	2	3	4	5	6
m) Hago que el aprendiz reflexione sobre sus propias producciones para encontrar sus errores con el fin de que se autocorrija.	1	2	3	4	5	6
n) Cuando aprendices de español hablan en esta lengua surgen interferencias de sus lenguas maternas.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. Diga cuánta importancia da a las siguientes áreas de la lengua española:

Utilice la escala de 0-5 donde 0 significa "no importante" y 5 "importantísimo".

Marque una "X" únicamente en una casilla.

	No importante	Menos importante	_____	_____	_____	Importantísimo
a) gramática	0	1	2	3	4	5
b) vocabulario	0	1	2	3	4	5
c) ortografía	0	1	2	3	4	5
d) discurso	0	1	2	3	4	5

6. ¿Qué papel cree que juega como profesor en la interacción en el aula?

7. Diga qué factores le parecen influir en la interacción (Por ejemplo, i) la edad del aprendiz, ii) el nivel del curso, o iii) el número de estudiantes en el aula).

8. ¿Qué estrategias utiliza para tratar errores durante la interacción en el aula?

9. ¿Encuentra dificultades al enseñar a estudiantes de diversos orígenes culturales?

10. ¿Qué piensa sobre el uso de la L1 en aulas de lenguas extranjeras?

Appendix F

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS		
TRANSCRIPTION SYMBOLS		MEANING
1. Dots	:	Lengthening of the preceding sound
2. Double quotations	“ ”	Parts of a text read by the teacher
3. Upper case letter	X	Incomprehensible word
4. Square brackets	[]	Commentary
5. Upper-case letter	T	Teacher
6. Upper-case letter	S	Student
7. Upper-case letters	SS	Several students
8. Lower-case letters	Fr	French language
9. The asterisk	*	Ungrammatical forms
10. The upright arrow	↑	Rising intonation
11. The downward arrow	↓	Falling intonation
12. The horizontal arrow	→	Feature of special interest
13. Underline	_____	Some form of stress or emphasis, either by increased loudness or by higher pitch. The more underlining, the greater the emphasis
14. The tilde	~	Unintelligible talk
15. Separate left square brackets (One above the other on two successive lines)	[[Overlapping or simultaneous talk utterances by different speakers, indicates a point overlap onset, whether at the start of an utterance or later
16. Numbers in parentheses	(0.5)	Silence, represented in tenths of a second
17. Italics	<i>l</i>	Use of the L1

Appendix G

TRANSCRIPTS OF TRES

► Extracts from A School: EFL

SETTING 1: Intermediate English Classrooms

T1 Year 1/GS (Grande Section)

Extract 1

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, *la colle* [Fr] [L1].
- 2 **T1:** The glue. [recast]
[2 minutes later]
- 1 **T1:** Where is the glue?
- 2 **S1:** *C'est quoi grue?* [Fr] [lexical] [same error needs repair]

Extract 2

- 1 **T1:** If you say thank you, you say↑
- 2 **S1:** You welcome. [morphosyntax]
- 3 **T1:** [frowning face] You↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 4 **S1:** [silence] (0.2) You are welcome. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] [clapping hands] [smile]

Extract 3

- 1 **T1:** What is this?
- 2 **S1:** A pen [lexical].
- 3 **T1:** It is a↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 4 **S1:** Pencil. [self-repair]

- 5 **T1:** This is a pencil. [positive reinforcement] Repeat after me. [elicitation]
[gaze to S2] *Il dit de répéter après lui.* [Fr] This is↑ (0.2) a pencil. [with a
puppet] [hand movement]
- 6 **S2:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 7 **T1:** Teacher, teacher, he is not repeating. [nagging comment] This is a
pencil. [teacher talking in a creaky voice as a ventriloquist to a marionette]
[nagging comment] (0.5) [gaze to S2]
- 8 **S2:** This is a pencil. [repetition]
- 9 **T1:** [smile] [drawing a pencil on the BB]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** I've got eyes is black. [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** My eyes [gaze to S1] (0.2) are black. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Yes, my eyes black. [incorporation]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** /æ/nd [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** Hand. [recast] [gaze to S1] [touching her hand]
- 3 **S2:** My nose. [other intervention]
- 4 **S3:** Eye. [other intervention]
- 5 **[S4/S5:** [Ss laughing and talking]
- 6 **S1:** And foot.

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** Under the chairble [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] [wrinkling her nose] [frowning face] (0.3) Under the chair.
[recast]
- 3 **S1:** Under the /ts/air [phonology]. [recognition]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** Twenty-thirst. (0.3) Thirsty [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Thirty. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.8)
- 4 **T1:** Thir↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Thirty. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] [smile]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** I'm wearing a hak [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** [making a wry face] I'm wearing a hat. [recast] [drawing a hat on the BB]
- 3 **S2:** Hat. [peer-repair]
- 4 **S3:** Tee-shirt. [other intervention]
- 5 **S1:** Hat. [repetition]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** I'm fisty [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** [raising her eyebrows] I am thirsty. [recast]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** The banana is hello [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Yellow [recast]. [smile]
- 3 **S2:** Yellow. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Remember hello is not yellow! [nagging comment] [nodding no] [writing 'HELLO' on the BB] *C'est différent* [Fr]. *À retenir mes enfants* [Fr].

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** In the /gw/old [phonology].

- 2 **T1:** Ah! No. [nodding no] [frowning face] /gw/old. (0.3) In the world.
[provide]
- 3 **[S2:** Song, teacher (0.2) Song. [other intervention]
- 4 **[S1:** In the world. [repetition]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** Is [morphosyntax] Tabby, Tabby, Tabby.
- 2 **T1:** It is Tabby. [recast] [gaze to S1] (0.3) [smile]
- 3 **S1:** This is Tabby. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** *On applaudit bien fort* [Fr]. [3 claps] [positive reinforcement] [smile]

Extract 13

- 1 **S1:** The green three [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** The green tree. [recast]
- 3 **S2:** Green tree. [peer-repair]

Extract 14

- 1 **S1:** I want the puppy [lexical].
- 2 **S2:** Woodah! [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 3 **T1:** Clara, be quiet, please. [gaze to S2] (0.5) So do you want the puppet?
[recast] [smile]

Extract 15

- 1 **S1:** I song [lexical] a song.
- 2 **T1:** You sing a song. (0.3) OK. [recast] [writing 'sing' and 'song' on the BB]
[gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Yes, song. [recognition]

Extract 16

- 1 **S1:** I want the draw [lexical], teacher.
- 2 **T1:** Here you have your drawing. [recast] [smile]

Extract 17

- 1 **S1:** Hanna /z/ump /z/ump /z/ump [phonology].
- 2 **S2:** [laughing and playing with S3] [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 3 **T1:** Yes, she jumps. [recast] [smile]

Extract 18

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, cokie [lexical] is good.
- 2 **T1:** Ah, I see. [raising the chin] Your cookie tastes very good. [recast] [gaze to S1] Your mum is a good cooker! [smile]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** You are beauty [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** You are beautiful too, Cherouna. [recast] [smile]
- 3 **S1:** Beautiful teacher. [incorporation]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** I love [lexical] Tabby for me. [signalling the puppet and with extending arms wanting to take it]
- 2 **T1:** You want Tabby. [recast] [smile]

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** I /æ/ve [phonology] one ball.
- 2 **S2:** Ball. [other intervention]
- 3 **T1:** You have a ball. [recast] At your home?

4 **S1:** Yes, at home.

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** The s/i/n [phonology] is yellow.
- 2 **T1:** The sun is yellow. [recast] [gaze to S1] [pointing at one flash card with a sun in the classroom] [drawing a yellow sun on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.2)
- 4 **S2:** Red crayon, teacher. [disruption by undisciplined student]
- 5 **S2:** Teacher, the sun[↑] is yellow. [peer-repair]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** The ski [lexical] is blue. [while colouring the English activity book]
- 2 **T1:** The sky is blue. [recast] [gaze to S1] I see. [drawing blue clouds on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** The sky is blue. [repetition]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [smile]

Extract 24

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, the sixsors [lexical]. Please. Cut.
- 2 **S2:** *Sciseaux* [Fr] [L1]. [other intervention]
- 3 **T1:** I cut with the sci[↑] ssors. [recast] [gaze to S1]

Extract 25

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, Seydina is nati [lexical].
- 2 **S2:** Teacher. Teacher. Red apple. [other intervention]
- 3 **S3/S4:** *Je lance couleur* [Fr]. [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 4 **T1:** Seydina is very naughty [recast] and I am going talk with his mother today.
- 5 **S4:** Naughty. [peer-repair]

Extract 26

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, I want robert [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** A rubber. [recast] [smile]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.3)
- 4 **T1:** Robert or a rubber? [clarification request] [blinking eyes for elicitation]
- 5 **S2/S3:** [laughing] [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 6 **S2:** Rubber. [peer-repair]
- 7 **T1:** [smile] Right. [positive reinforcement] Rubber. [positive reinforcement]

T1 Year 2/ CP (Cours Préparatoire)**Extract 1**

- 1 **S1:** Forty [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Stop. Is it forty or fourteen? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Fourteen. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes, fourteen. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'fourteen' on the BB]

Extract 2

- 1 **T1:** What colour is the banana?
- 2 **S1:** The banana is *jaune* [Fr] [L1].
- 3 **T1:** *Jaune*? [Fr] [elicitation]
- 4 **S1:** Yellow. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** Ball is blue red [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** You need and after blue. The ball is blue and red. [provide]
- 3 **S1:** The ball is blue red [morphosyntax].
- 4 **T1:** Blue and red. [recast]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** It is an eggs [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** An eggs or egg? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** It is an egg. [self-repair]
- 4 **S2/S3:** Egg. Egg. [laughs] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 5 **T1:** Eh. Eh. Do not shout. Shuuh. *On ne crie pas, s'il vous plaît* [Fr]. (0.2) Yes, it is an egg. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** I can /dans/ [phonology].
- 2 **S2:** Teacher, look. [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 3 **T1:** Dance. [recast] [writing 'dance' in capital letters on the BB]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** We [morphosyntax] pirates.
- 2 **S2:** I am a princess. [other intervention]
- 3 **T1:** You are pirates. [recast]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** Elise be↑ [morphosyntax] sick.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] [frowning face] Be is for babies. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Elise (0.2) is sick. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] Thank you very much. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** I not have [morphosyntax] brother.
- 2 **T1:** So you have not a brother. [recast]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** I have /fi/ners [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Fin↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Fin:gers. [lexical]
- 4 **T1:** Fingers. [positive reinforcement] [showing her fingers]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** I play ball foot [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Foot↑ [elicitation] [smile]
- 3 **S1:** Football. [self-repair]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** I love /keikis/ [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** What is /keikis/? [clarification request] [frowning face] [nodding no] Do not invent words. [nagging comment]
- 3 **S1:** A sweet to eat.
- 4 **S2:** She says cakes teacher. [peer-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Thank you, Mireille. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'cake' on the BB]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** I go b/ɪf/ [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** You go to the beach. [recast]

Extract 13

- 1 **S1:** I ↑(0.3) [morphosyntax] painting.
- 2 **T1:** I am painting. [recast] [miming painting a picture on the BB] Yes, Carla. You are very good at painting.

Extract 14

- 1 **S1:** I eats [morphosyntax] mango.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] I /i/↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S2:** I eat. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes, that's right, Pierre. [positive reinforcement] I eat mangoes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'mangoes' on the BB]

Extract 15

- 1 **S1:** Yes, Marie tell [morphosyntax] Cinderella.
- 2 **T1:** The -s! [metalinguistic feedback] [nodding no]
- 3 **[S2:** Teacher, song, song, song! [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 4 **S1:** [silence] (0.2) Marie tells Cinderella story. [self-repair].
- 5 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 16

- 1 **S1:** I not [morphosyntax] want.
- 2 **T1:** I not want. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** I do not want. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 17

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, I and Fatou [morphosyntax] pool.
- 2 **T1:** It is good. So Fatou and you, go to the pool. [recast]

Extract 18

- 1 **S1:** Peter has [morphosyntax] wit [lexical] shirt.
- 2 **T1:** Is wit correct? [clarification request]
- 3 **S2:** Teacher, teacher. I draw. [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 4 **S1:** White. [self-repair]

- 5 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] Peter has a white tee-shirt. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'white' on the BB]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** I drink wash [lexical].
 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Wash and drink[↑] are actions. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.8)
 4 **T1:** What do you mean wash or water? [clarification request]
 5 **[S2/S3/S4:** [laughing] [disruption by undisciplined S]
 6 **T1:** Shuh. [gaze to the undisciplined Ss]
 7 **S1** Water. [self-repair]
 8 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** Fas (0.3) fas (0.2) [lexical] run, run.
 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Fas or fast? [clarification request]
 3 **S2:** Teacher, can I go to the toilet? [other intervention]
 4 **T1:** Yes.
 5 **S1:** Fast. [self-repair]
 6 **T1:** Fast. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'fast' on the BB]

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** Dan/ /ʃ/er [phonology]!
 2 **T1:** Danger or dan/sh/er? [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** Danger. [self-repair]

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** Stan/t/ [phonology] up.
 2 **S2:** Whoa! [running to go out of the classroom] [disruption by undisciplined S]

- 3 **T1:** Mohammed, quiet please. Stop Racine, do you say stand up?
[clarification request]
- 4 **S1:** Stand (0.2) up. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Stand up. [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** It is pop. [lexical]
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Is it top? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** *Oui* [Fr], top. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 24

- 1 **S1:** I like /l/at [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** Cheb, listen to me, /l/at or rat? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1/S2:** [talking to each other] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 4 **S1:** Rat. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'RAT' on the BB]

Extract 25

- 1 **S1:** A green gasshopper [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Is it grasshopper or gasshopper? [clarification request]
- 3 **S2:** Green bug. [other intervention]
- 4 **S1:** One grasshopper. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Yes, the grasshopper. [positive reinforcement] [drawing on the BB one 'grasshopper']

Extract 26

- 1 **S1:** Carla wreeps [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Wreeps? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Carla weeps. [self-repair]

- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] Weep is a difficult word. [positive reinforcement] [gesture for crying]

Extract 27

- 1 **S1:** Mary eat [morphosyntax] apple.
 2 **T1:** Sheila. (0.3) Mary eats or eat? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** Mary eats. [self-repair]
 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 28

- 1 **S1:** Jenny is [morphosyntax] toilet.
 2 **T1:** Jenny (0.2) is a toilet? [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** In toilet. [self-repair]
 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 29

- 1 **S1:** I like cocordile [lexical].
 2 **S2/S3:** [making noises with pencils] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
 3 **T1:** Shuh. Silence! (0.3) Cocor↑dile. [repetition]
 4 **S1:** Co (0.2) crocodile. [self-repair]
 5 **T1:** Crocodile. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'crocodile' on the BB]

Extract 30

- 1 **S1:** I wan [lexical]. (0.3) Wan teddy bear.
 2 **T1:** I want. [recast]

Extract 31

- 1 **S1:** Five little duck [morphological] went out one day.

2 **T1:** Five little ducks. [recast]

Extract 32

- 1 **S1:** Mama call↑ [morphological] the doctor.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] The -s! [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 4 **T1:** Call↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Calls the doctor. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Calls. [positive reinforcement] Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing on the BB one 's' in capital letters with a snake shape]

Extract 33

- 1 **S1:** One lita [lexical] Indian boy.
- 2 **T1:** One↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S2:** Little↑ Indian boy. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes, little Indian boy. [positive reinforcement] Very good, Jenny. [positive reinforcement]. Catherine, you play a lot in class. [nagging comment]

Extract 34

- 1 **S1:** I like bubu [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Bubu is not a word. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Like bear. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes]

Extract 35

- 1 **S1:** Yellow [lexical] song.
- 2 **T1:** Yellow is a colour. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Yes. Hello. How are you. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'hello' and 'yellow' on the BB]

Extract 36

- 1 **S1:** Doll sleep. [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** Sleep↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S2:** [silence] (0.5) Slee ↑ pes [morphosyntax], Cathy. [other intervention]
- 4 **S1:** She sleeps. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** She sleeps. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 37

- 1 **S1:** There is [morphosyntax] two cats.
- 2 **S2:** And (0.2) one dog. [other intervention]
- 3 **T1:** No there is. There are cats. [provide]

Extract 38

- 1 **S1:** I have [lexical] 6 years old.
- 2 **T1:** In English, we do not use have for years but↑ to be. I am 6 years old. [explanation] (0.8) Chebiah, do not play in class. We study. [nagging comment] [moving arms]
- 3 **S1:** I am 6 years old. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Great. [positive reinforcement] I am 6 years old. [positive reinforcement] I am very happy. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'BE+ years old' and 'I am 6 years old' on the BB]

T1 Year 3/CE1 (Cours Élémentaire 1)**Extract 1**

- 1 **S1:** *Maîtresse* [L1] (0.2) teacher.
- 2 **T1:** Teacher. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.2)
- 4 **T1:** Teacher only. *Maîtresse* [Fr] teacher *veut dire la même chose* [Fr]. [explanation]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** It is a *crayon* [Fr] [L1] box [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Pencil↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** It's a pencil case. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] A pencil case. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'a pencil' and 'pencil case' on the BB]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** They is [morphosyntax] /raj/ding [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** They are [recast] [gaze to S1] (0.3) reading. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** They're (0.3) rea↑ding. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** They are reading. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** It's a /ts/ild [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** *C'est mal prononcé.* [Fr] It is child. [explanation]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** I do not see [lexical] (0.8) TV.
- 2 **T1:** Do you watch↑ (0.3) or see↑ TV? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Watch TV. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'watch TV' and 'I watch TV' on the BB]

Extract 6

- 1 **T1:** What time is it?
- 2 **S1:** Twelve. [morphosyntax]
- 3 **T1:** Twelve↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

- 4 **S1:** Twelve o'clock. [self-repair]
 5 **T1:** Well. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'o'clock' on the BB]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** I bike [morphosyntax].
 2 **T1:** You ride the bike. [recast]
 3 **S2:** *Arrête* [Fr]. (0.2) *Donne-moi ma plume* [Fr]. Teacher! [disruption by undisciplined Ss]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** Tim go [morphosyntax] New York.
 2 **T1:** Is it↑ go↑ New York? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** Tim go [morphosyntax] to New York. [partial self-repair]
 4 **T1:** There is another error after go. [metalinguistic feedback]
 5 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
 6 **T1:** It is go↑ [elicitation]
 7 **S1:** Goes. [self-repair]
 8 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'he', 'she', 'Tom', 'Mary', '...' and 'goes' on the BB]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** Christine eats cookies by [lexical] dinner.
 2 **T1:** You need for↑ dinner in your sentence. *Non* [Fr] by↑ (0.3) Christine eats cookies for dinner. [explanation]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** I ge/d/ [phonology] the book.
 2 **T1:** I get↑ the book. [recast] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** I get the book. [self-repair]
 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** I ↑(0.3) [morphosyntax] a princess.
- 2 **T1:** After I? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** *Euh* [Fr]. (0.2) I'm a princess. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** I am a princess. [positive reinforcement] Right. [positive reinforcement]
You are a princess. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** A boy sees a gos [lexical] in the house.
- 2 **T1:** A ghost. [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** A boy sees a ghost↑ [self-repair].
- 4 **T1:** *C'est bien. Tu t'encourages à parler même si tu fais des fautes* [Fr].
[positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'ghost'
on the BB]

Extract 13

- 1 **S1:** The lion is caught [morphosyntax] by hunters.
- 2 **T1:** Caught. [gaze to S1] Not↑ cat↑ched. [frowning face] We have not
studied this. [explanation]
- 3 **S2:** The lion is caught by hunters. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T1:** The lion is caught↑ by hunters. [positive reinforcement] Very good.
[positive reinforcement] [writing 'catch' and 'caught' on the BB]

Extract 14

- 1 **S1:** I [morphosyntax] not do see a frog.
- 2 **T1:** I↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** I do not see a frog. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** I do not see a frog [positive reinforcement]. Very well, Christian. [positive
reinforcement] [writing 'DO NOT' on the BB]

Extract 15

- 1 **S1:** C/u/t, c/u/t. [phonology] Open↑ the tomato. [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** You cut the tomato into slices. [recast] [writing on the BB 'to cut the tomato into slices'] *Ça veut dire en tranches très fines.* [Fr] [explanation]

Extract 16

- 1 **S1:** Put [morphosyntax] tomato.
- 2 **T1:** Put some tomato. [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Put some tomato [self-repair] on [lexical] sandwich.
- 4 **T1:** *Comment on appelle ça?* [Fr] [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Bread roll. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** A *pain rond* [Fr]. Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'bread roll' and 'put some tomato' on the BB]

Extract 17

- 1 **S1:** Put the olive. [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** Olives. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** You put the olives [self-repair] [morphosyntax] bread roll.
- 4 **T1:** The olives into↑ the bread roll. [recast]

Extract 18

- 1 **S1:** I want l/ə/monade [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** I want lemonade. [recast]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** I plane [morphosyntax] in the /a/port [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** You sit down, please. [disruption of undisciplined S] (0.4) So you take↑ (0.2) a plane in the airport. [recast]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** You [morphosyntax] have one sister?
- 2 **T1:** You need do for the question, Aicha. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Do you have one sister? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'do you have...?' on the BB]

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** I have a short [lexical] sister.
- 2 **T1:** Is she very small? [elicitation] [making the gesture meaning small with hands]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.3)
- 4 **T1:** You translate *petite* [Fr] from French but for age it is different. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Ah. (0.2) Little sister. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, little sister. [positive reinforcement] That's it! [positive reinforcement] [writing 'little sister', 'older sister', 'little brother' and 'older brother' on the BB]

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** We are African. We [morphosyntax] not American.
- 2 **T1:** Magali, yes. (0.2) You are African. But you need be (0.2) for American. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.8)
- 4 **T1:** So↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** We are not American. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] You are not American but you speak very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** It is [morphosyntax] quarter two.

- 2 **T1:** Something is missing (0.5) before two. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Past two. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [writing 'a quarter past two' on the BB]

Extract 24

- 1 **S1:** What time it is? [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** What time↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S2:** Teacher, me. Teacher [other intervention] (0.2) Is it. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] What time is it? But I wanted Mohammed to give me the correction. [writing 'What time is it?' on the BB]

Extract 25

- 1 **S1:** At what time do you [morphosyntax] breakfast?
- 2 **T1:** Before breakfast you need a verb. [metalinguistic feedback] You are not a baby, *un bébé* [Fr]. [nagging comment] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** At what (0.8) time do you have breakfast? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** You see you have done it. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 26

- 1 **S1:** The man [morphosyntax] short and thin.
- 2 **T1:** The man short and thin. [repetition] [writing 'The man', '...' and 'short and thin.' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.5)
- 4 **T1:** You need one verb. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** The man (0.2) is short and thin. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** You got it. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'IS' on the BB]

Extract 27

- 1 **S1:** My mum has [morphosyntax] car.

- 2 **T1:** Again the article. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Your mum has (0.2) a car. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** My mother has a car. [positive reinforcement] Do not forget a. [nagging comment]

Extract 28

- 1 **S1:** My father is in [lexical] holiday.
- 2 **T1:** My father is[↑] (0.3) [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** On holiday. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** On holiday. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'on' on the BB]

Extract 29

- 1 **S1:** I like [morphosyntax] picture.
- 2 **T1:** The article. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** I like the picture. [self-repair]

Extract 30

- 1 **S1:** His dog [morphosyntax] not bite.
- 2 **T1:** His dog[↑] [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Does not bite. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** His dog does not bite. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 31

- 1 **S1:** Can [morphosyntax] do it today?
- 2 **T1:** Can[↑][elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Can you do it today? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 32

- 1 **S1:** [morphosyntax] Is a naughty bee.
- 2 **T1:** Is a naughty bee. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** It is (0.2) a naughty bee. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'It is a naughty bee' on the BB]

Extract 33

- 1 **S1:** Bee gets /o/ney [phonology] from visiting many many flowers.
- 2 **T1:** Yes, the bee gets (0.6) what? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Honey from visiting many flowers. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Honey. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'honey' on the BB]

Extract 34

- 1 **S1:** Is it big nor [lexical] small?
- 2 **T1:** Is it big↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Is it big or small? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 35

- 1 **S1:** How fast you can [morphosyntax] run from bees?
- 2 **T1:** How fast↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1] [writing '?' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** How fast can you run from bees? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 36

- 1 **S1:** Honeybees do different [morphosyntax] kinds of jobs.
- 2 **T1:** Honeybees do diffe↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

- 3 **S1:** Honeybees do different kinds of jobs. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Do different kinds of jobs (0.2) very good. [positive reinforcement]
Different↑ has no plural form.

Extract 37

- 1 **S1:** Where you [morphosyntax] are from?
- 2 **T1:** Where are you from or where you are from? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Where are you from? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] [non-verbal positive reinforcement] [writing 'Where are you from?' on the BB]

Extract 38

- 1 **S1:** My mum is doing [lexical] a cake.
- 2 **T1:** One word is not the same in French. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Is making a cake. It is make a cake. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'make a cake' on the BB]

Extract 39

- 1 **S1:** The cat is over [lexical] the desk.
- 2 **T1:** The preposition we use with desk. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S2:** In. [lexical] [other intervention]
- 4 **S1:** On the desk. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** The cat is on the desk. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'on the desk' on the BB]

Extract 40

- 1 **S1:** I like [morphosyntax] very much.
- 2 **T1:** Stop, please. Something is missing. [metalinguistic feedback]

- 3 **S1:** [silence] (1.10)
- 4 **T1:** One it. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** I like (0.3) it very much. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] I like it very much. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'I like it very much.' on the BB]

Extract 41

- 1 **S1:** Yes, go straight head [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Head? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Ah. (0.2) Straight to? [lexical]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding no] [gaze to S2]
- 5 **S2:** Straight ahead. [peer-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] Straight ahead. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'STRAIGHT AHEAD' on the BB]

Extract 42

- 1 **S1:** May help you? [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** Can you repeat, please? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** May I help you? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 43

- 1 **S1:** Her suitcase is a brown [morphosyntax] and big.
- 2 **T1:** Her suitcase is a brown? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.5)
- 4 **T1:** Her suitcase is[↑] [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Brown. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Her suitcase is brown and big. [positive reinforcement] But why a brown?
- 7 **S1:** I don't know.

Extract 44

- 1 **S1:** A pair [morphosyntax] green socks costs 1000 CFAS.
- 2 **T1:** A pair↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Of green socks. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** A pair of. [positive reinforcement] OK. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'a pair of', 'socks', 'shoes' and 'trousers' on the BB]

Extract 45

- 1 **S1:** I am of [lexical] France.
- 2 **T1:** The preposition. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S2:** I am from France. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'be from + country' on the BB]

Extract 46

- 1 **S1:** The school is next [morphosyntax] the post office.
- 2 **T1:** Next to↑ the post office. [recast]

Extract 47

- 1 **S1:** Does your father play at [morphosyntax] golf?
- 2 **T1:** Play tennis, play football. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.3)
- 4 **T1:** Play↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Golf. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Play golf. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'play...', 'golf', 'tennis', 'football', 'basketball', 'baseball' and 'games' on the BB]

Extract 48

- 1 **S1:** She is a [morphosyntax] Senegalese.

- 2 **T1:** I am Gabonese. I am English. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.5)
- 4 **T1:** She is Senegalese. [recast]

Extract 49

- 1 **S1:** I speak [morphosyntax] her mother.
- 2 **T1:** One preposition is missing. (0.2) *Manque* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Yes. (0.2) *Euh* [Fr]. I speak to her mother. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** To speak to. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 50

- 1 **S1:** Where you from? [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** Where↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Where are you from? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 51

- 1 **S1:** Do you have [morphosyntax] video player?
- 2 **T1:** Before video player↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** A video player. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 52

- 1 **S1:** I would like a [morphosyntax] water glass.
- 2 **T1:** Water glass means a glass made of water. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** A glass of water. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 53

- 1 **S1:** I ride [morphosyntax] horse.
- 2 **T1:** The article. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** I ride a horse. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] Ride a horse. [positive reinforcement]
[writing 'ride a horse' on the BB]

Extract 54

- 1 **S1:** I learn [morphosyntax] ride a poney.
- 2 **T1:** I learn↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** To ride a poney. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** It is learn↑ to. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 55

- 1 **S1:** I eat fry [lexical] potatoes.
- 2 **T1:** [gaze to S1] I eat fried potatoes. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I eat fried potatoes. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'fried potatoes' on the BB]

Extract 56

- 1 **S1:** Koala bears eat eucalypt leaf [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** Eucalyptus lea↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Eucalyptus leaves. [self-repair] Koala bears eat eucalyptus leaves.
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'leaf' and 'leaves' on the BB]

Extract 57

- 1 **S1:** I have [morphosyntax] car.
- 2 **T1:** I have a car. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.3)

4 **T1:** You need a before car. I have a car. [explanation]

Extract 58

1 **S1:** It rains strong [lexical].

2 **T1:** It is it rains hard. (0.3) Strong is not good. [explanation] [writing 'It rains hard.' on the BB]

Extract 59

1 **S1:** I eat chips potato. [lexical]

2 **T1:** I eat po↑[elicitation] [moving hand for elicitation]

3 **S1:** Potato chips. [self-repair]

4 **T1:** You eat potato chips. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'potato chips' on the BB]

Extract 60

1 **S1:** Are you good in [lexical] cooking?

2 **T1:** The preposition with good. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]

3 **S1:** [silence] (0.7)

4 **T1:** Are you good↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

5 **S1:** Good of [lexical] cooking.

6 **S2:** Good at cooking? [peer-repair]

7 **T1:** Chiara, can you repeat your sentence? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

8 **S1:** Are you good at cooking? [self-repair]

9 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'good at cooking' on the BB]

Extract 61

1 **S1:** It is a rain [lexical] day.

2 **T1:** You need one adjective form before day. [metalinguistic feedback]

3 **S1:** It is a rainy day. [self-repair]

4 **T1:** Rainy day. [positive reinforcement][writing 'rainy' and 'sunny' on the BB]

Extract 62

- 1 **S1:** It is in [lexical] the North Coast.
- 2 **T1:** It is↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S2:** At [lexical] the North Coast.
- 4 **S1:** On the North coast. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** On the north coast. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'on the North Coast' on the BB]

Extract 63

- 1 **S1:** There should be a police person [lexical] at school.
- 2 **T1:** Poli↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S2:** Me, teacher. Policy [lexical]. [other intervention]
- 4 **S1:** [silence] (0.8) Policeman and policewoman. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Policeman and policewoman. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'policeman' and 'policewoman' on the BB]

Extract 64

- 1 **S1:** The dentist pulled out my dent [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Dent? [clarification request] (0.5) [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Ah. A tooth. [self-repair] The dentist pulled out my tooth. I have pain.
- 4 **T1:** The dentist pulled out my tooth. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'tooth-singular' and 'teeth-plural' on the BB] Good. [positive reinforcement] [smile] Are you OK?

Extract 65

- 1 **S1:** This home [lexical] is bigger than the other.
- 2 **T1:** Is it home or house? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** House. [self-repair] (0.3) This house is bigger than the other.
- 4 **T1:** Very good [positive reinforcement] [writing 'bigger than' on the BB]

T1 Year 4/CE2 (Cours Élémentaire 2)

Extract 1

- 1 **S1:** My desk is messy [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** A mess or messy? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** It is a mess. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'mess' on the BB]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** Everybody know [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** Everybody is third person singular. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Everybody knows. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Knows. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'he/she/everybody' and knows' on the BB] Yes. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** [morphosyntax] We meet tomorrow?
- 2 **T1:** You need something for the future and question. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Shall we meet tomorrow? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes] [writing 'shall' on the BB]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** Pleased of [morphosyntax] meet you.
- 2 **T1:** Pleased↑[elicitation] [gaze to S1] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** To meet you. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Pleased to meet you. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'pleased TO' on the BB] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** This my big sister [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] This is my↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** High [lexical].
- 4 **T1:** This is my↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Old [lexical] sister.
- 6 **T1:** Old or elder? [clarification request]
- 7 **S1:** This is my elder sister. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'elder' on the BB]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** Are you [morphosyntax] doctor?
- 2 **T1:** [frowning face] [nodding no] Doctor needs one article. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.5) Are you a doctor? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** A doctor [positive reinforcement].

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, what means [morphosyntax] this sentence?
- 2 **T1:** You need do. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** What does this sentence means? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** Where [morphosyntax] you going?
- 2 **T1:** [making a wry face] [nodding no] Where↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation] [writing 'BE' and '?' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.3) Where are you going? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** I go to school in [lexical] school bus.
- 2 **T1:** [blinking eyes for elicitation] I go to school↑ [elicitation] (0.2)
- 3 **S1:** With? [lexical]
- 4 **T1:** I go to school by school bus. [recast]
- 5 **S1:** I go to shool by bus. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes] [writing 'by bus', 'by car' , 'by boat' and 'by plane' on the BB]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** I take [morphosyntax] taxi.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] You need one article before taxi. I take a taxi. [provide]
- 3 **S1:** I take a taxi. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'take a taxi' on the BB]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** You go [morphosyntax] to the piano concert?
- 2 **T1:** [raising her chin] [writing '?' on the BB] You go or do you go?
[clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Do you go to the piano concert? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** Please, wait [morphosyntax] me.
- 2 **T1:** Wait me? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Wait for me. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Wait for me. Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'wait for' on the BB]

Extract 13

- 1 **S1:** It is nosy [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Nosy like the 'o' in nose? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** It is noisy. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'noisy' on the BB]

Extract 14

- 1 **S1:** How many [lexical] is the drink?
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] [raising her eyebrows] How↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Money [lexical] is the drink?
- 4 **T1:** How↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** How much is the drink? [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'how much' on the BB]

Extract 15

- 1 **S1:** I want an [morphosyntax] /a/m [phonology] sandwich.
- 2 **T1:** I want a ham sandwich. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** A [self-repair] ham [self-repair] sandwich.
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 16

- 1 **T1:** Kilian, what's the matter with you?
- 2 **S1:** My mother? [content]
- 3 **T1:** [frowning face] What's the matter with you? [elicitation]
- 4 **S1:** I don't understand.
- 5 **T1:** Please tell to everybody. [elicitation] I'm talking to you.
- 6 **S1:** [silent response]
- 7 **T1:** [exit]

Extract 17

- 1 **S1:** I suffer with [lexical] a stomach ache.
- 2 **T1:** I suffer[↑] [elicitation] (0.3) [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **[S2/S3/S4:** [chattering, laughing and playing]
- 4 **[S1:** Ache stomach [lexical].
- 5 **T1:** Shuh. [disruption by indisciplined students] Do you know it Jacques?
[elicitation]
- 6 **S1:** No.
- 7 **T1:** I suffer from a stomach ache. [recast] We had it in the text. Study more.
[nagging comment] [writing 'ache' and 'stomach ache' on the BB]

Extract 18

- 1 **S1:** I have a /e/dache [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] /e/dache? [clarification request] [writing 'H' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** Headache. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement] Don't drop your h's like in French! [nagging
comment]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** I have [morphosyntax] fever.
- 2 **T1:** I have a fever. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I have a[↑] fever. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'have a fever' on
the BB]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** Open [morphosyntax] mouth.
- 2 **T1:** Open your mouth. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Open your mouth, Alice. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** I want to go to [lexical] the capital from [lexical] another city.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] I want to go from↑ [elicitation] (0.8) the capital and↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I want to go from [self-repair] the capital to [self-repair] another city.
- 4 **T1:** Excellent Sandy. [positive reinforcement] It's very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'to', '...' and 'from' on the BB]

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** How time [lexical] (0.4) times [lexical] are you going to be in Nigeria?
- 2 **T1:** How↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Times [lexical].
- 4 **T1:** How↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** How long (0.2) are you going to be in Nigeria? [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'how long' on the BB]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** His face is /wit/ [phonology] as a sheet.
- 2 **T1:** His face is↑ [elicitation] whi↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** His face is white. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** White. [positive reinforcement] Well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 24

- 1 **S1:** I go there three time [morphosyntax] a week.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] I go there↑ (0.2) three↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Three times. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Three times or thrice. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'thrice' on the BB]

Extract 25

- 1 **S1:** I am doing /fɪn/ [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** I am doing /fɪn/. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** It is difficult, teacher.
- 4 **T1:** I am doing fine. [recast]

Extract 26

- 1 **S1:** /ai/ti [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Eighty? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Eighty. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Excellent. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] Oh, I'm happy. It's good for everybody [positive reinforcement] except Khady and Norman. [nagging comment]

Extract 27

- 1 **S1:** Which [lexical] would you like to drink?
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Which or what? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** What would you like to drink? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'which', '≠' and 'what' on the BB]

Extract 28

- 1 **S1:** I am sorry I break [morphosyntax] your camera.
- 2 **T1:** Break or broke? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** I broke your camera. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'BREAK', 'BROKE' and 'BROKEN' on the BB]

Extract 29

- 1 **S1:** We go to the fest [lexical], fate [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] [frowning face] Fest is one invented word but it is your first year of English. (0.3) You mean party in English. Right? [explanation]

Extract 30

- 1 **S1:** I jump one [morphosyntax] half meters.
- 2 **T1:** One half meters? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** One and a half meters. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'one and a half meters' on the BB]

Extract 31

- 1 **S1:** I can't stop hiccup [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** I can't stop[↑] [elicitation] [moving hand for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I can't stop air sounds [lexical].
- 4 **T1:** I can't stop air sounds or hiccupping? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Stop hiccupping. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Excellent Sandy. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement]. It's very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 32

- 1 **S1:** I do not like *oignon* [L1].
- 2 **T1:** *Oignon* [Fr]. [repetition] [making a wry face] [nodding no]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (1.0)
- 4 **T1:** Onion in English. [explanation] [writing 'onion' on the BB]

Extract 33

- 1 **S1:** I want to go /aibraud/ [phonology] but I don't have much money.

- 2 **T1:** Abroad. [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** I want to go abroad but I don't have much money. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 34

- 1 **S1:** What you do [morphosyntax] if you saw a ghost?
- 2 **T1:** There is a problem with the words. *L'ordre des mots* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback] [writing 'What' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** What would you do if you saw a ghost? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 35

- 1 **S1:** I finded [morphosyntax] a snake in my bath yesterday.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] The tense. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** *Euh* [Fr]. (0.2) I have found a snake. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] You found a snake. [positive reinforcement] It is scary. [writing 'find', 'found' and 'found' on the BB]

Extract 36

- 1 **S1:** Is [morphosyntax] a small country town.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] The subject is missing. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** It is a small country town. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** You need the subject. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'IT IS' on the BB]

Extract 37

- 1 **S1:** My school bag is proper [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** You need another adjective that is not invented French. [metalinguistic feedback]

- 3 **S1:** Ah. (0.2) Clean? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement]

T1 Year 5/ CM1 (Cours Moyen 1)

Extract 1

- 1 **S1:** That's good to [lexical] me.
- 2 **T1:** That's good for me. [recast]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** The exercise is more difficult. [morphosyntax]
- 2 **T1:** It is the most difficult exercise. [recast] [writing 'the most difficult' on the BB]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** Bissap [lexical] [morphosyntax], please.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] A bissap, please, but I think that in English the name is hibiscus flower tea. [explanation] [writing 'hibiscus' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** A hibiscus flower tea [self-repair], please. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** I wa/shed/ [phonology] a music show.
- 2 **T1:** I wat↑ched a music show. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I watched music show on TV. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'watched', '≠' and 'washed' on the BB]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** It was gr/ea/t [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** [frowning face] You should not pronounce words as written.
[metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** It was (0.8) *Euh* [Fr] great. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Very well. [positive reinforcement] [writing '/greit/' and 'great' on the BB]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** Write a m/i/ssage [phonology]!
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] I write a↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I write a message. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** Something [lexical] else?
- 2 **T1:** It is a question. [metalinguistic feedback] So↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Anything else? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Yes. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'anything' and '?' on the BB]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** Here are you [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** Here you are. [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Here you are. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Here you are.' on the BB]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** There is [morphosyntax] a swimming pool and a stadium near the bridge.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] We have a swimming pool and a stadium. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (1.0)
- 4 **T1:** So there↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** There are a swimming pool and a stadium near the bridge. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'THERE ARE', '+', 'PLURAL', 'example', 'There are a swimming pool and a stadium.' and 'THERE IS', '+', 'SINGULAR', 'example' and 'There is a school.']

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** Do you open in [morphosyntax] this afternoon?
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] One preposition is not necessary. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Do you open (0.3) this afternoon? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'this afternoon' and 'this morning' on the BB]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** Do you open the [morphosyntax] Sundays?
- 2 **T1:** The Sundays or on Sundays? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** On Sundays. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Do not translate from French *les samedis* [Fr]. [nagging comment] [writing 'on Sunday' on the BB]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** No smoke [morphosyntax], please.
- 2 **T1:** No smoking, please. [recast] [moving finger for elicitation]

3 S1: No smoking, please. [self-repair]

Extract 13

1 S1: What time you [morphosyntax] close?

2 T1: What time↑ you close or what time do you close? [clarification request]

3 S1: What time do you close? [self-repair]

4 T1: [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 14

1 S1: Can you describe he [lexical]?

2 T1: Can you describe↑ [elicitation]

3 S1: Him. [self-repair]

4 T1: [nodding yes] Can you describe him? [positive reinforcement]

Extract 15

1 S1: He has a [morphosyntax] blond hair.

2 T1: [blinking eyes for elicitation] Only one? [elicitation]

3 S1: He has blond hair. [self-repair]

4 T1: [nodding yes] Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 16

1 S1: She is worst [morphosyntax] than a parrot talking.

2 T1: She is↑ [elicitation]

3 S1: She is worse than a talking parrot. [self-repair]

4 T1: [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'worse than' and 'the worst' on the BB]

Extract 17

1 S1: The man /has/ [phonology] very nice.

- 2 **T1:** Are you sure that it is /has/? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** It is the man was [self-repair]. The man was very nice.
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 18

- 1 **S1:** The h/ui/sband [phonology] said.
- 2 **T1:** Husband. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** The husband said that he is happy. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** /al/ right [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] The pronunciation. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** All right. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** All right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** Little woman /was/ [phonology] awful.
- 2 **T1:** The little woman was awful. [recast] Yes.

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** What the atmosphere is made of [morphosyntax]?
- 2 **T1:** It is a question. [metalinguistic feedback] [writing '?' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** What is the atmosphere made of? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** Do you have other any [morphosyntax] information?
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Do you have↑ [elicitation]

- 3 **S1:** Any other information. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'any other' on the BB]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** The sea level is raising [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** [making a wry face] Raising or rising? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** The sea level is rising. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'raising', '≠', 'rising', 'The sun is rising.' and 'Raise your hand.' on the BB]

Extract 24

- 1 **S1:** Djembe is kind of a drum traditional [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** A drum (0.3) traditional? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Traditional drum. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 25

- 1 **S1:** It is raining [morphosyntax] since this morning.
- 2 **T1:** It has been raining since this morning. [recast]

Extract 26

- 1 **S1:** What is [morphosyntax] your hobbies?
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Hobbies[↑] is in plural. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** What are your hobbies? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] What are your hobbies?
[positive reinforcement]

Extract 27

- 1 **S1:** Where is [morphosyntax] you going?

- 2 **T1:** There is you. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Where are you going? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'you are' on the BB]

Extract 28

- 1 **S1:** She is [morphosyntax] born in Spain.
- 2 **T1:** She is born is OK? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** She was born in Spain. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 29

- 1 **S1:** He leave [morphosyntax] for Italy tomorrow.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] He lea↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Leaves. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'he', 'she', 'leaves' on the BB]

Extract 30

- 1 **S1:** How often do you take [lexical] your hair cut?
- 2 **T1:** Take your hair cut? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Do you get your hair cut. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'get your hair cut' on the BB]

Extract 31

- 1 **S1:** Once [morphosyntax] month.
- 2 **T1:** Once a month or month? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Once a month. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [nodding yes] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'once a month' on the BB]

Extract 32

- 1 **S1:** As my grandparents live in the country [lexical], I do not need so much money here.
- 2 **T1:** In the↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Countryside. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'countryside' on the BB]

Extract 33

- 1 **S1:** I went to [morphosyntax] shopping today.
- 2 **T1:** I went shopping today. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Went shopping. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'go shopping' on the BB]

Extract 34

- 1 **S1:** I feel sad because [morphosyntax] the news.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] Because↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Because of the news. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Because of. Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 35

- 1 **S1:** It will [morphosyntax] probably cold tomorrow.
- 2 **T1:** It will↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Be cold. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 36

- 1 **S1:** ab/u/t [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] It's not ab/u/t, about. About. [explanation]

Extract 37

- 1 **S1:** It is /rel/ [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** Real. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Real. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 38

- 1 **S1:** She had [morphosyntax] sick.
- 2 **T1:** You have an exam on Friday and you don't know. [nagging comment]
Coumba. *Toi tu n'apprends jamais tes leçons. Coumba tu n'apprends jamais* [Fr]. [nagging comment] Repeat again. [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** She was sick. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 39

- 1 **S1:** The earth is becoming warmest [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** Warmest or warmer? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Warmer. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Warmer. [positive reinforcement] Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 40

- 1 **S1:** Chemical reactions occurs [morphosyntax] every day.
- 2 **T1:** Reactions occurs? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Occur. [self-repair] Chemical reactions occur.
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] Chemical reactions occur. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 41

- 1 **S1:** Tap water cause [morphosyntax] salt water takes longer to freeze because it has salt in it.
- 2 **T1:** Tap water↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Causes. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Tap water causes↑ salt water takes longer to freeze because it has salt in it. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 42

- 1 **S1:** People knows [morphosyntax] that heavy objects fall faster than lighter ones.
- 2 **T1:** People↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Know. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** People know. [positive reinforcement] Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 43

- 1 **S1:** What's the difference between change climate [morphosyntax] and global warming?
- 2 **T1:** Climate↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Climate change. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes]

Extract 44

- 1 **S1:** Decomposing garbage produce [morphosyntax] two greenhouses gases.
- 2 **T1:** Produ↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Decomposing garbage produces. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes]

Extract 45

- 1 **S1:** Air pollution is associated with human activity [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** Only one activity? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** No. Human activities. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 46

- 1 **S1:** I didn't understood [morphosyntax] the words.
- 2 **T1:** I didn't understand or understood? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** I didn't understand the words. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes]

Extract 47

- 1 **S1:** I had swimmmed [morphosyntax] all day.
- 2 **T1:** Swimmmed or swum? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** I had swum [self-repair] all day.
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'swim', 'swam' and 'swum' on the BB]

Extract 48

- 1 **S1:** I like live [morphosyntax] in a big city.
- 2 **T1:** [nodding no] like liv↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I like living in a big city. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 49

- 1 **S1:** Mexico city is most [morphosyntax] dangerous than the country.
- 2 **T1:** Most dangerous or more dangerous? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** More dangerous. [self-repair]

4 T1: Yes. [positive reinforcement] More dangerous. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 50

1 S1: I have seen already [morphosyntax] the Eiffel Tower.

2 T1: I have↑ [elicitation]

3 S1: I have seen the Eiffel Tower already. [morphosyntax]

4 T1: I have↑ [elicitation]

5 S1: Already seen. [self-repair]

Extract 51

1 S1: Jenny suggested leave [morphosyntax] soon after ten.

2 T1: Jenny suggested leave? [clarification request]

3 S1: Jenny suggested leaving soon after ten. [self-repair]

4 T1: Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'to suggest', '+', 'verb', and '-ING' on the BB]

Extract 52

1 S1: You could have keep [morphosyntax] the book longer.

2 T1: Could have↑ [elicitation]

3 S1: Kept. [self-repair]

4 T1: You could have kept. [positive reinforcement] Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 53

1 S1: Would you mind open [morphosyntax] the door?

2 T1: Would you mind↑ [elicitation]

3 S1: Opening. [self-repair]

4 T1: Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 54

- 1 **S1:** Why did *Jean* [Fr] missed [morphosyntax] the bus?
- 2 **T1:** Why did *Jean*↑ [Fr] [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Miss the bus? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 55

- 1 **S1:** He has missed a [morphosyntax] opportunity.
- 2 **T1:** A opportunity? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** An opportunity. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 56

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, what I should [morphosyntax] tell her?
- 2 **T1:** What should I tell her? [recast]
- 3 **S1:** What should I tell her? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 57

- 1 **S1:** Why do [morphosyntax] not go now?
- 2 **T1:** Why not go now? [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Why not go now? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Why not go, good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 58

- 1 **S1:** I suggest that Marie comes [morphosyntax] tomorrow.
- 2 **T1:** Here, you have subjunctive. *Le subjonctif est une exception* [Fr]
[metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** I suggest that Marie come. [self-repair]

4 T1: Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 59

1 S1: Let [morphosyntax] do that.

2 T1: Let's do that. [recast]

3 S1: Let's do that. [self-repair]

4 T1: Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Let's do that' on the BB]

Extract 60

1 S1: Oh, yes. You [morphosyntax] right.

2 T1: You are right. [recast]

3 S1: You're (0.3) right↑ [self-repair]

Extract 61

1 S1: Would you like see [morphosyntax] a film tonight?

2 T1: Would you like↑ [elicitation]

3 S1: Would you like watch. [morphosyntax]

4 T1: Would you like to see or watch a film tonight? [recast]

Extract 62

1 S1: Pierre don't [morphosyntax] want to watch it.

2 T1: Pierre ↑[elicitation]

3 S1: Pierre does not want to watch it. [self-repair]

4 T1: Very good. [positive reinforcement] [smile]

T1 Year 6/ CM2 (Cours Moyen 2)

Extract 1

1 T1: When I say what's your name, what is the answer? [gaze to S3]

- 2 **S3**: [silent response] (0.9)
- 3 **T1**: Come on. [elicitation] (0.3) *Je te dis il faut pas avoir peur de parler, tu essaies tu parles* [Fr]. [moving two arms up and down]
- 4 **S3**: [silence] (0.3)
- 5 **T1**: *Tu dis*↑ [Fr] [elicitation]
- 6 **SS**: [noises and voices] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 7 **T1**: Shuuh. *Écoutez* [Fr]. (0.5) *Tu essaies. Tu peux parler vas-y* [Fr]. When I say what's your name, *par exemple* [Fr]. What do you mean in French what's your name? [elicitation]
- 8 **S3**: French? *Euh* [Fr]. (0.3) What's?
- 9 **T1**: When I say what's. (0.5) When I say what's your name? When I say what's your name what I mean in French? [elicitation]
- 10 **S3**: *Euh* [Fr]. (0.3) What's.
- 11 **T1**: *Qu'est-ce que tu entends par* [Fr] what's your name? [elicitation]
- 12 **S3**: [silent response] (0.2)
- 13 **T1**: *C'est le nom.* [Fr] [provide] *Et alors, comment réponds-tu* [Fr] when I say what's your name? [elicitation]
- 14 **S3**: My name is Claire. [self-repair]
- 15 **T1**: Claire, OK. [positive reinforcement] So my name is Claire. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 2

- 1 **T1**: Have you got any brothers or sisters?
- 2 **S3**: [silent response] (0.2)
- 3 **T1**: *Alors*↑ [Fr] what is a brother? What is a sister? [elicitation] [gaze to S3]
- 4 **S2**: [raising one hand] [other intervention]
- 5 **T1**: [gaze to S2] You know. I just want her to know. Claire, do you guess what is a brother, what is a sister? [elicitation]
- 6 **S3**: *Euh*↑ [Fr]
- 7 **T1**: Chebia has a brother and a sister. [explanation] What is brother? [elicitation]
- 8 **S3**: [silence] (0.3) *C'est un frère* [Fr]. (0.3) I have not a brother.

- 9 **T1:** Brother. Brother *c'est frère* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement] OK. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'brother' on the BB] And sister? [elicitation] (0.8) What is a sister? [clarification request]
- 10 **S3:** Sister is *sœur* [Fr]. [partial repair]
- 11 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] *Très bien* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement] *C'est une soeur* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] So the question is↑ have you got any brothers and sisters? [elicitation] Do you understand the question? [elicitation] *As-tu compris la question?* [Fr] [elicitation]
- 12 **S3:** Yes, I have one sister. [self-repair]
- 13 **T1:** Yes, go on! [elicitation]
- 14 **S3:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 15 **T1:** *Vas-y termine ta phrase!* [Fr] [elicitation] Yes, go on! [elicitation]
- 16 **S3:** *Moi j'ai qu'une soeur.* [Fr] I have one sister.
- 17 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] Have you any brother?[elicitation]
- 18 **S3:** [nodding no] No, I have no brother. [self-repair]
- 19 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 3

- 1 **T1:** What you did during the weekend?
- 2 **S3:** I do [morphosyntax].
- 3 **T1:** No, Claire. Not what you did. You should use the past tense. *On est toujours dans le passé* [Fr]. [explanation]
- 4 **S3:** *Euh* [Fr]. (0.3) *Je sais pas.* [Fr] [L1]. *Je sais pas.* [Fr] [L1]
- 5 **T1:** I↑ [elicitation]
- 6 **S3:** *Je sais pas.* [Fr] [L1]
- 7 **T1:** Yes? [elicitation]
- 8 **S3:** *Comment on dit↑* [Fr] [L1]
- 9 **T1:** Ah no, no. *Comment on dit? Comment on dit? Qu'est-ce que je vous ai appris comme phrase?* [Fr] [nagging comment] *Alors je reviens, quand vous ne connaissez pas un mot en anglais quelle (0.5) quelle est la question à poser* [Fr]? [elicitation]

- 10 **S3**: What's the English for. (0.4) What's the English for (0.2) *Euh*. (0.5) *Je suis allée* [Fr] [L1] [morphosyntax]?
- 11 **T1**: OK. She asks. Shuuh! Chippenda. [disruption by undisciplined S] What's the English for *je suis allée* [Fr]? [elicitation]
- 12 **S1**: I'm. (0.3) I'm going [morphosyntax].
- 13 **T1**: No, I am going is for future action. [explanation] (0.3) *Chippenda, qu'est-ce que je t'ai dit tout à l'heure?* [Fr] (0.2) I'm going *je vous ai dit quoi ? Est-ce que* [Fr] I'm going *c'est le passé* [Fr]? [nagging comment] [nodding no].
- 14 **S1**: *Non. C'est le futur.* [Fr] I have went [morphosyntax].
- 15 **T1**: Why have you said I have went? [clarification request]
- 16 **S1**: No, it's I went. [peer-repair]
- 17 **T1**: Claire, can you correct your sentence? [elicitation] *Peux-tu corriger ta phrase?* [Fr] [elicitation]
- 18 **S3**: I went.
- 19 **T1**: Went where? [elicitation]
- 20 **S3**: I went to one *restaurant* [Fr] [L1].
- 21 **T1**: So I went to? [elicitation]
- 22 **S3**: *Euh* [Fr]. What's the English. [silence] (0.8)
- 23 **T1**: What's the English for↑ [elicitation]
- 24 **S3**: What's the English for *restaurant* [Fr] [L1]?
- 25 **S1**: Restaurant. [peer-repair]
- 26 **T1**: Yes. [positive reinforcement] *Maintenant tu as tous les mots. Tu as* [Fr] went, *tu as* [Fr] restaurant. *Forme ta phrase* [Fr] [elicitation]
- 27 **S3**: *Euh. Je sais pas.* [Fr] [L1]
- 28 **T1**: *Tu as posé une question. On t'a tout donné. Tous les mots maintenant. Essaie de former une phrase* [Fr]. [elicitation]
- 29 **S3**: *Euh* [Fr]. I went↑ [morphosyntax]
- 30 **T1**: [gesture of nodding] I went↑ to↑ [elicitation]
- 31 **S3**: To restaurant. [morphosyntax]
- 32 **T1**: To the restaurant. [recast]
- 33 **S3**: I went to the restaurant yesterday. [self-repair]
- 34 **T1**: *Ça va, Claire? Pas très difficile, hein? Juste compliqué à l'instant.* [Fr] OK. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 4

- 1 **T1:** Who is your best friend?
- 2 **S3:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 3 **T1:** For example, look↑ My best↑
- 4 **S2:** [raising hand] Me, teacher.
- 5 **T1:** Shuuh. *Il faut laisser ceux qui ne savent pas laisser leur parler devant moi.*
[Fr] [disruption by undisciplined S] Claire, just guess. *Essaie de deviner*[Fr].
[elicitation] My best friend. Look Claire. In this school my best friend is
Khady, for example. *Comme exemple* [Fr]. Khadi is my best friend.
[explanation] So who is your best friend? A friend. What is a friend?
[elicitation]
- 6 **S3:** [silent response] (0.2)
- 7 **T1:** *Le terme* [Fr] friend *d'abord, tu le comprends* [Fr]? [clarification request]
- 8 **S3:** [silent response] (0.2)
- 9 **T1:** *Que veut dire* [Fr] friend? [elicitation]
- 10 **S3:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 11 **T1:** A friend is↑ [elicitation]
- 12 **S1:** *Un ami* [Fr]. [peer-repair]
- 13 **T1:** Very good. *Un ami* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement] OK. [positive
reinforcement] A friend is *un ami en français* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement] So
who is your best friend (0.3) you↑, Claire in the school? [elicitation]
- 14 **S3:** *C'est si j'ai un ami?* [Fr] [L1] *Un bon ami* [Fr] [L1]? [content]
- 15 **T1:** *Oui, j'ai insisté sur le terme* [Fr] best↑ Best. Best. Best↑ *qui veut dire?* [Fr]
When I say who is your best friend, Claire? [elicitation]
- 16 **S3:** *Si j'étais?* [Fr] [L1] [content]
- 17 **T1:** *Bon, je ne demande pas si tu as un ami ou une amie.* [Fr] *Je demande*
[Fr] who is your best friend? My best friend is teacher Khady. [explanation]
- 18 **S3:** [silence] (0.3)
- 19 **T1:** Marie, can you help? [elicitation]
- 20 **S4:** My best friend is Claire. [peer-repair]
- 21 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] *Cela veut dire qui est ta meilleure amie.*
[Fr] [explanation]
- 22 **S3:** [silence] (0.2)

- 23 **T1**: Who is your best friend, Claire? [elicitation]
- 24 **S3**: [silent response] (0.2)
- 25 **T1**: *Tu réponds.* [Fr] [elicitation] My best ↑ friend (0.3) [elicitation] is ↑ [elicitation]
- 26 **S3**: My be/s/ [phonology].
- 27 **T1**: Could you speak up for everybody?
- 28 **S3**: My be/s/ [phonology].
- 29 **T1**: *Non* [Fr], best ↑ friend. [provide]. (0.5) *Reprends ta phrase!* [Fr][elicitation] My best friend ↑ (0.3) [elicitation] is ↑ [elicitation]
- 30 **S3**: My best friend is (0.3) Aicha. [self-repair] (0.2) *Euh* [Fr].
- 31 **T1**: Best. [positive reinforcement] Aicha, good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'BEST' on the BB]

Extract 5

- 1 **T1**: Who is your best friend in the school, Chippenda?
- 2 **S1**: [silent response] (0.3) [playing with ballpen]
- 3 **T1**: Stop playing with this. [disruption by undisciplined student] Who is your best friend, Chippenda? [elicitation]
- 4 **S1**: I not have [morphosyntax].
- 5 **T1**: Not I ↑ (0.8) not have. [provide] (0.5) I ↑ [elicitation]
- 6 **S1**: [silence] (0.5) I doesn't have. [morphosyntax] Don't have.
- 7 **T1**: You cannot say doesn't have, don't have. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 8 **S2**: I don't have here. [self-repair]
- 9 **T1**: Good. [positive reinforcement]
- 10 **T1**: In the school? [clarification request]
- 11 **S3**: Yeah. [gesture of nodding] Out. [morphosyntax] [content]
- 12 **T1**: Outside the school? [recast] Can I know his name or her name? [elicitation]
- 13 **S1**: His name is Papi.
- 14 **T1**: Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** In my free time (0.5) I playing [morphosyntax] football.
- 2 **T1:** I like↑playing. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I like playing football. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] Oh, I see (0.3) do you like playing football? [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement] [smile] [write 'like playing' on the BB]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** I watch *télé* [Fr] [L1].
- 2 **T1:** *Voilà, tu ne sais pas dire télé, en anglais* [metalinguistic feedback], *donc tu poses la question* [Fr] what's the English for *télévision* [Fr]? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** What's the English for *télé* [Fr]?
- 4 **T1:** OK, she is asking what's the English for *television* [Fr]?
- 5 **S2:** The English for *télévision* is TV. [peer-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] *Alors, c'est↑* [Fr]. Well done. [positive reinforcement] The English for *télévision* is↑ TV. (0.2) [positive reinforcement]. Good. [positive reinforcement] *C'est très bien* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement]. *Vous avez-vous vu? C'est pas difficile* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement] OK. [positive reinforcement] So how do you form a sentence? [elicitation] *Comment on fait une phrase* [Fr]? [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 8 **T1:** I like↑[elicitation]
- 9 **S1:** I like watching TV. [self-repair]
- 10 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 8

- 1 **T1:** What did you do after school yesterday?
- 2 **S1:** I went↑ (0.3) I went↑ [morphosyntax]

- 3 **T1:** I went, good. [positive reinforcement] Yes. [positive reinforcement] Just say something, Patricia. [elicitation] [silence] (0.2)
- 4 **S1:** I played with my friends. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** You played with your friends. [positive reinforcement] (0.3) Good. [positive reinforcement] She has used played well in the past tense. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'played' on the BB]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** I did [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** I did, what? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I did (0.3) I did work [morphosyntax].
- 4 **T1:** You did[↑] work, Chippenda? [elicitation] If you say I did work, *tu sais qu'est-ce que ça veut dire en français* [Fr] I did work? [elicitation] *Tu as fait, tu insistes, tu démontres à parler. Tu insistes, tu es en train de faire une insistance.* [Fr] [explanation] *Alors je vous ai dit tout à l'heure.* [Fr] [nagging comment]
- 5 **S2:** I worked. [peer-repair]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** I went [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** I went[↑] [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I went (0.3) went [morphosyntax].
- 4 **T1:** I went[↑] [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** I went playing [morphosyntax] basketball.
- 6 **T1:** *Ah! Ta phrase est trop belle.* [Fr] I went playing. Very nice! We have studied this. [nagging comment] There is something wrong after went. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 7 **S1:** *Je sais pas.* [Fr]
- 8 **T1:** Do you mean went[↑] or want[↑]? [clarification request] Could you speak up, please?
- 9 **S1:** I want playing [morphosyntax].

- 10 **T1:** *Attention* [Fr] with pronunciation! [metalinguistic feedback]
 11 **S1:** I went playing [morphosyntax].
 12 **T1:** No, went playing. [provide] (0.8) Could anyone help to correct his sentence? [elicitation] Yes[↑], Chebia. [elicitation]
 13 **S2:** I went to play. [peer-repair]
 14 **T1:** Well done. [positive reinforcement] It is I went to play. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'I went to play' on the BB]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** I did [morphosyntax].
 2 **T1:** I did[↑] what? [elicitation]
 3 **S1:** *Euh* [Fr]. [silent reponse] (0.5)
 4 **T1:** Yes, what do you want to say? [elicitation] Don't be shy. [elicitation] Do you want to help again? [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** No.
 6 **T1:** Go on. [elicitation]
 7 **S1:** I did (0.5) rode [morphosyntax] bicycle.
 8 **T1:** Could you repeat again? [elicitation]
 9 **S1:** I rode [morphosyntax] bicycle.
 10 **T1:** One article is missing. [metalinguistic feedback]
 11 **S1:** I rode a bicycle? [self-repair]
 12 **T1:** I rode a bicycle. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] It's good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'ride' and 'rode' on the BB]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** At seven o' clock, I playing [morphosyntax].
 2 **T1:** [frowning face] Before you came to school you were playing basketball? [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** I played basketball [self-repair] and I am taking [morphosyntax] my bath.
 4 **T1:** I'm taking my bath[↑], that's what you want to say? [clarification request] (0.8) The sentence is OK but not the verb tense. [metalinguistic feedback]

- 5 **S1:** I taked [morphosyntax] my bath.
- 6 **T1:** Chippenda, can you correct, please? [elicitation] [moving hand for elicitation]
- 7 **S2:** I took my bath. [peer-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Oh! Very good, Chippenda. [clapping] [positive reinforcement] I am very happy. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'take' and 'took' on the BB]

Extract 13

- 1 **S1:** Susan /kod/ [phonology] (0.7) /koud/ [phonology] the fish.
- 2 **T1:** Susan caught the fish. [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Susan caught the fish. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 14

- 1 **S1:** We can ride our /bike/ [phonology] in the park.
- 2 **T1:** We can ride our bike in the park. [recast]

Extract 15

- 1 **T1:** What are you going to do?
- 2 **S1:** I do [content] I go [morphosyntax] Gorée, Gorée.
- 3 **T1:** Are you going to Gorée? [recast]
- 4 **S1:** Yes, we go to Gorée. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 16

- 1 **S1:** I am a sclave [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** You are a slave[↑] [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I am a slave. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Slave. [writing 'slave' on the BB] [positive reinforcement]

Extract 17

- 1 **S1:** The valley is blue [content].
- 2 **T1:** Blue? [elicitation] Have you ever seen (0.2) a blue[↑] valley? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** No, I wanted to say green! [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 18

- 1 **T1:** Who was the Queen who ruled during 45 years? Who is it?
- 2 **S1:** Elizabeth one [lexical].
- 3 **T1:** [nodding no] Does anyone knows the correct form? [elicitation]
- 4 **S2:** It is[↑] Elizabeth I. [peer-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Elizabeth I' on the BB]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** We could eat one ice-cream in the coffee [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** OK. In the café. [recast] It's not /kofi/. It's[↑] café. [adjustment] You drink coffee but the café[↑] is the place where you drink coffee. [explanation] [writing 'café' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.5) Yes. We can eat an ice-cream in [morphosyntax] café. [partial repair]
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** We can fishing [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** We can fishing? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 4 **T1:** We can[↑] [elicitation]
- 5 **S2:** We can fishes. [other intervention]
- 6 **S1:** [silence] (0.7) We can go fishing. [self-repair]
- 7 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'go fishing' on the BB]

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** I know what is [morphosyntax] it.
- 2 **T1:** I know what↑ it is. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I know what it is. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'I know what it is' on the BB]

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** I go by foot [morphosyntax] to tennis club.
- 2 **T1:** [frowning face] Go? Yesterday? By foot? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I went by foot. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** I went [morphosyntax] my.
- 2 **T1:** I went to↑ [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I went to my aunt's for lunch. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. Nadia. [positive reinforcement] Practice, practice, practice. [positive reinforcement] You can do anything you want, but you need practice practice, practice. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 24

- 1 **S1:** I go [morphosyntax] to the pool.
- 2 **T1:** Not go. The tense is not correct. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (1.0)
- 4 **T1:** Can you correct? [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** [silent response] (0.2)
- 6 **T1:** Karine, can you correct? [elicitation]
- 7 **S2:** I went. [peer-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Very good. Thank you. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'went' on the BB]

Extract 25

- 1 **S1:** I live [morphosyntax] Ouakham.
- 2 **T1:** Oh, she lives in↑ Ouakham. [recast] (1.0) Can you repeat please before Ouakham? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Live (0.2) [morphosyntax] Ouakham.
- 4 **T1:** Can anyone help to correct? [elicitation]
- 5 **Ss:** [two students raising hands]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, you. [gaze to S2] [elicitation]
- 7 **S2:** She lives in Ouakham. [peer-repair]

Extract 26

- 1 **S1:** I tell [morphosyntax] them the story.
- 2 **T1:** OK, then wait. You need the past tense of tell. [metalinguistic feedback] (0.3) It is↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 4 **T1:** Do you understand so far? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Told. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, that's it! [positive reinforcement] Told. [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'TOLD' on the BB]

Extract 27

- 1 **T1:** So what did you do after school yesterday?
- 2 **S3:** [silent response] (0.2)
- 3 **Ss:** [noises and voices] [disruption by undisciplined SS]
- 4 **T1:** Shuh. [disruption by SS] (0.3) *Alors, regarde* [Fr], *Claire*. Yesterday *c'est*↑ [Fr] [gesturing with two arms backwards and directing eyes to the S3] [elicitation]
- 5 **S3:** [silent response] (0.2)
- 6 **T1:** Today is Monday. (0.3) Today↑ is Monday. *Aujourd'hui, c'est lundi* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback] (0.5) Yesterday (0.2) *c'est*↑ [Fr] [elicitation] What is

- yesterday in French? [hands again towards the back] [elicitation] *Quand je dis*↑ [Fr] yesterday. (0.3) You, Claire↑. What is yesterday? [elicitation]
- 7 **S3:** *Demain*? [Fr] [L1]
- 8 **T1:** No, look at me. *Regarde* [Fr]. (0.2) Today↑ is Monday. Yesterday was Sunday. Tomorrow is Tuesday. Today, yesterday, tomorrow. [explanation]
- 9 **S2:** *Euh* [Fr]. Tomorrow? [lexical]
- 10 **T1:** Chebiah, can you help? [elicitation] What did you do after school yesterday? [elicitation]
- 11 **S1:** I went to the swimming pool. [peer-repair]
- 12 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Claire, do you understand? [clarification request] Yesterday is not tomorrow. [metalinguistic feedback] Can you answer the question, please? [elicitation]
- 13 **S3:** Yesterday (0.3) I went to the [morphosyntax] lesson of piano.
- 14 **T1:** You have to use the Saxon genitive with no article before lesson and no French translation. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 15 **S3:** I went (0.2) I went.
- 16 **T1:** I went↑ [elicitation]
- 17 **S3:** I went.
- 18 **T1:** I went to↑ [recast] Come on, you can do it. [elicitation] Complete the sentence with piano and lesson. [elicitation]
- 19 **S3:** I went to↑ (0.3) piano lesson. [self-repair]
- 20 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 28

- 1 **S1:** I went to *restaurant* [Fr] [L1].
- 2 **T1:** You pronounced in French (0.2) *restaurant* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** R/ei/staurant [Fr] [phonology].
- 4 **T1:** No, no, no↑ That's not the English for *restaurant* [Fr]. Written it is the same in both languages but the pronunciations are different. [explanation] (0.5) Can you try again the correct form? [elicitation]

- 5 **S1:** R/i/staurant [phonology]. I do not know. What's the English for *restaurant* [Fr]?
- 6 **T1:** It is restaurant. [adjustment] Can you correct your sentence, please? [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** I went to the restaurant. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Got it. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 29

- 1 **S3:** I rided [morphosyntax] my bicycle.
- 2 **T1:** Could you repeat again? [clarification request]
- 3 **S3:** I rode my bicycle. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] It's excellent. [positive reinforcement] That means that you know your irregular verbs. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'ride' and 'rode' on the BB]

Extract 30

- 1 **S1:** I (0.3) yesterday I look [lexical] television.
- 2 **T1:** *Alors* [Fr], he said yesterday I look[↑] (0.2) television. [repetition]
- 3 **S2:** *Moi* [Fr]. Watched television. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Look. *C'est vrai que look veut dire regarder je ne suis pas contre moi je suis d'accord. Mais on ne dit pas 'look television' en anglais. C'est une expression idiomatique aussi comme tout à l'heure, c'est comme en français.* [metalinguistic feedback] *C'est quoi?* [Fr] [elicitation]
- 5 **S4:** Looks [morphosyntax].
- 6 **T1:** *C'est quoi?* [Fr] [elicitation]
- 7 **S4:** I looks [morphosyntax].
- 8 **T1:** I looks. [repetition] [gesture writing 'looks' in the air] (0.8) *Quand est-ce que qu'on met un -s aux verbes en anglais?* [Fr] [elicitation]
- 9 **S4:** I looking. [morphosyntax]
- 10 **T1:** No, you cannot say I looking. [explanation] *When do we use -ing? Quand on utilise la forme -ing* [Fr] ?[elicitation]
- 11 **S3:** *Le participe présent?* [Fr] [content]

- 12 **T1** : *Le participe présent?* [Fr] [elicitation]
- 13 **S2**: *Qu'est- ce que le participe?* [Fr] [content]
- 14 **T1**: Mmm. I am not satisfied [frowning face] OK. No. *On va y revenir, on va y revenir sur ces verbes* [Fr]. [explanation] (0.5) Chebiah, do you know the verb we use with TV? [elicitation]
- 15 **S1**: Watch. [peer-repair]
- 16 **T1**: Yes, that's it! [positive reinforcement] [writing 'watch' on the BB]

Extract 31

- 1 **S1**: I go [morphosyntax] School *Bilingue* [Fr].
- 2 **T1**: I go↑[elicitation] (0.3) School *Bilingue* [Fr]. [repetition]
- 3 **S1**: [silent response] (0.5)
- 4 **T1**: Then Chippenda said 'I go School *Bilingue* [Fr]', is it correct? [clarification request] Chippenda, here is your answer. Shuuh. He said↑ [writing leaving a space between 'go' and 'school' on the BB] I go School. School! What? *Bilingue* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1**: *Bilingue* [Fr].
- 6 **T1**: *Bilingue* [Fr]. You see. Is it I go School *Bilingue* [Fr]? [clarification request] Is it correct? [clarification request] Chippenda, could you try to correct the sentence? [elicitation] Go ↑ [elicitation] What ↑ (0.3) what's missing? [elicitation]
- 7 **S1**: *Je sais pas*. [Fr] [L1]
- 8 **T1**: *Ta phrase n'est pas correcte*. [metalinguistic feedback] *Ta phrase est*. [Fr] [repetition] What's missing? [elicitation]
- 9 **S1**: I go to school.
- 10 **T1**: Mmm? [clarification request]
- 11 **S1**: *Bilingue* [Fr]. [self-repair]
- 12 **T1**: Sorry? [clarification request]
- 13 **S1**: I go [morphosyntax] School *Bilingue* [Fr].
- 14 **T1**: I go School *Bilingue* [Fr]? [elicitation] You said the same thing. [metalinguistic feedback] Yes (0.2) could you help him? [addressing to S2] [elicitation]
- 15 **S1**: I go↑ [morphosyntax] School *Bilingue* [Fr].

- 16 **T1:** You said the same thing. [metalinguistic feedback] Yes. [elicitation]
[addressing to S2]
- 17 **T1:** Could you help him? [elicitation]
- 18 **S2:** I go to school. [low voice]
- 19 **T1:** Yes↑ [low voice] [elicitation]
- 20 **S1:** *Bilingue* [Fr]. [low voice] [peer-repair]
- 21 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] *L'expression c'est* [Fr] 'to go to school'.
[positive reinforcement] OK, Chippenda? [clarification request] *L'expression
c'est* [Fr] to go↑ *Aller à l'école* [Fr]. [positive reinforcement] OK. [positive
reinforcement] To go↑ go to. [writing 'go to' on the BB] to go to school.
[positive reinforcement] OK. [positive reinforcement] *Aller à l'école.* [Fr]
[positive reinforcement]

Extract 32

- 1 **S1:** The knights was [morphosyntax] brave.
- 2 **T1:** The knights were brave. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (1.0)
- 4 **T1:** Was or were brave? Chantal. [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** They (0.2) were↑ brave. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] The knights were brave. [positive
reinforcement]

Extract 33

- 1 **S1:** It is /a/pposite [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** Opposite. It means the same as in front of. [recast] Do you mean in front
of? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** In front of, opposite. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'OPPOSITE' on the BB]

Extract 34

- 1 **S1:** Our br/ai/dge [phonology].

2 **T1:** OK. Our bridge. [recast]

Extract 35

- 1 **S1:** I brush my tooth [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** I brush my (0.2) teeth↑ [adjustment] [writing 'one tooth', 'singular', 'teeth' and 'plural' on the BB]

Extract 36

- 1 **S1:** I am at school all the day [content].
- 2 **T1:** What do you mean all day or everyday? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Everyday. [self-repair] (0.5) I go to school everyday.
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement] Really? [writing 'everyday' on the BB]

Extract 37

- 1 **S1:** I did want [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** No. Think about it. [elicitation]
- 3 **S2:** It is time. [other intervention]
- 4 **T1:** OK. *La prochaine fois je reviendrai pourquoi j'ai dit* [Fr] no. [exit]

Extract 38

- 1 **T1:** In my free time I like cooking. And you? How about you?
- 2 **S3:** I eating [morphosyntax], I play football I watch TV.
- 3 **T1:** You cannot say I eating. [provide] No. 'I eat' conjugated in the present tense. [explanation] So you eat play football and watch TV. [elicitation]
- 4 **S3:** I eat. [self-repair]
- 5 **T1:** Yes? [elicitation]
- 6 **S3:** And watch TV.
- 7 **T1:** And watch TV↑ [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 39

- 1 **S1:** I watched the TV and play [morphosyntax] football.
- 2 **T1:** Not play[↑] but played. [provide] [writing 'PLAYED' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** I played football. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [smile]

Extract 40

- 1 **S1:** Who and which are (0.3) is [morphosyntax] a preposition. [content]
- 2 **T1:** Who is a preposition? [elicitation] It's very interesting. Are you sure?
[clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Both are prepositions. [content]
- 4 **T1:** Prepositions are used for time, place and direction like in, at, to.
[metalinguistic feedback] (1.5) Do you mean a pronoun? [clarification request]
- 5 **S2:** Yes, a pronoun. [self-repair]

Extract 41

- 1 **S1:** [morphosyntax] Was a king who lived in the sixteen [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** And where is the subject? [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Henry II was a king who lived in the sixteen [lexical].
- 4 **T1:** The subject is OK but, what sixteen? [elicitation] (1.5) Something is missing. [metalinguistic feedback] Do you refer to floor, street? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Century. [partial self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, perfect. [positive reinforcement] This is perfect. [positive reinforcement] But there is a problem with sixteen with century. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 7 **S1:** Yes. (0.3) Sixteenth century. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Can you repeat the whole sentence? [elicitation]
- 9 **S1:** Henry II (0.2) was a king who lived in the XVIth century. [self-repair]
- 10 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'XVIth century' on the BB]

Extract 42

- 1 **S1:** I like (0.3) playing in [morphosyntax] football.
- 2 **T1:** I like playing in↑ football? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** I don't know. I like playing football? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] I like playing football. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 43

- 1 **S1:** Dad drink [morphosyntax] cola.
- 2 **T1:** You said dad drink↑ [repetition] [writing 'dad' on the BB] (1.0) Where is the mistake here? [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Dad's got to drink [morphosyntax] cola. Drank. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Dad has got to drink cola or drank cola? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Dad drank cola. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Dad drank cola. [positive reinforcement] Great. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 44

- 1 **S1:** Shall we meet in [lexical] Friday?
- 2 **T1:** Not in↑ but on↑ Friday. [adjustment] Can you correct? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Shall we meet on↑ Friday? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Perfect. [positive reinforcement] On Friday, on Saturday and all the days of the week. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'on Friday' on the BB]

Extract 45

- 1 **S1:** The Saxon and Norman army [morphosyntax] met at the Battle of Hastings.
- 2 **T1:** The Saxon and Norman ar↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.2)

- 4 **T1:** You say the Saxon and Norman. [metalinguistic feedback] So ar↑ (0.2)
mi↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** The Saxon and Norman armies. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, that's it! [positive reinforcement] The whole sentence, please.
[elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Met at the Battle of Hastings. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'army', 'singular', 'armies',
'plural' and 'The Saxon and Norman armies' on the BB]

Extract 46

- 1 **S1:** Sorry, I have [morphosyntax] wrong number.
- 2 **T1:** Sorry I have the↑ (0.2) wrong number. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I have the wrong number. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 47

- 1 **S1:** Could I speak [morphosyntax] Marie?
- 2 **T1:** You need something after speak. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** To? (0.3) Could I speak to Marie? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes] Speak to ↑ [positive
reinforcement] Could I speak to Marie? [positive reinforcement] Very well.
[positive reinforcement] [writing 'speak to' on the BB]

Extract 48

- 1 **S1:** Could I have the number [lexical]?
- 2 **T1:** What number? [elicitation] (0.5) The house number, the flight number?
[clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Could I have your phone number, please? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 49

- 1 **S1:** Please, come in [lexical] my birthday party.
- 2 **T1:** Not in↑ but come to↑ my birthday party. Come to↑ [provide] [writing 'come to' on the BB]

Extract 50

- 1 **S1:** How much [lexical] do you sleep each night?
- 2 **T1:** It is not much. [provide] We talk about time. [metalinguistic feedback] So? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.8)
- 4 **T1:** Come on. [elicitation] (0.3) How much, how long or how many? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** How long. [silence] (0.3)
- 6 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Go on. [elicitation] It is OK. [positive reinforcement]
- 7 **S1:** How long do you sleep each night? [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'how long' on the BB]

Extract 51

- 1 **S1:** I would love [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** You need to after love. [explanation] I would love to. [adjustment] [writing 'love to' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** I would love to go to the swimming pool. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 52

- 1 **S1:** I play tennis in [lexical] Saturday.
- 2 **T1:** On↑ Saturday. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** I play tennis on Saturday. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'ON' , '+' and 'day of the week']

Extract 53

- 1 **S1:** That's well [lexical] for me.
- 2 **T1:** That's good for me. [recast] [writing 'goo' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** Yes. That's good for me. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [writing 'd for me' on the BB] Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 54

- 1 **S1:** Is it far of [lexical] here?
- 2 **T1:** It is not far of. [provide] (0.8) But? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** It is far from [self-repair] here.
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] (0.2) Very good. [positive reinforcement]
[writing 'far from' on the BB]

Extract 55

- 1 **S1:** Please turn the second street at [lexical] the left.
- 2 **T1:** On↑ the left. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Please turn the second street on [self-repair] the left.
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'on the right' and 'on the left' on the BB]

Extract 56

- 1 **S1:** Turn right at the red light [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Light can be any light. [metalinguistic feedback] You are translating red light directly from French and it is not the word. [explanation] (0.3) What's the name in English? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I don't know.
- 4 **T1:** The translation is traffic lights [writing 'traffic lights' on the BB] and not red↑ light. [adjustment]

Extract 57

- 1 **S1:** It is [morphosyntax] far?
- 2 **T1:** The order it is not far[↑] (0.3) is not one question. [explanation] (1.5) Can you correct your sentence? [elicitation] [writing '?' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** Is it far? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 58

- 1 **S1:** There are not [morphosyntax] bottles.
- 2 **T1:** Where is any? [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** There are not any bottles. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** There are not any bottles. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'any bottles' on the BB] Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 59

- 1 **S1:** I am [morphosyntax] student.
- 2 **T1:** OK so far. But for profession and student you need one article. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** I am a student. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] Yes. [positive reinforcement] I am a[↑] student. I am a teacher. I am a policeman. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'I am a student', 'a teacher' and 'a policeman' on the BB]

Extract 60

- 1 **S1:** I want to send [morphosyntax] e-mail.
- 2 **T1:** You need one article before e-mail. [metalinguistic feedback] How do you say it? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I want to send a [morphosyntax] e-mail.
- 4 **T1:** Claire, e-mail has the beginning with a vowel. [metalinguistic feedback] So[↑] [elicitation]

- 5 **S1:** I want to send an[↑] e-mail. [self-repair]
 6 **T1:** An e-mail. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement]
 [writing 'an e-mail' on the BB]

Extract 61

- 1 **S1:** I am not keen of [lexical] dogs.
 2 **T1:** The preposition is not of [metalinguistic feedback] (1.0) but[↑] [elicitation]
 3 **S1:** Keen (0.3) at? [lexical]
 4 **T1:** You can choose one. In (0.2) on[↑] about? [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** On? (0.3) I am not keen on dogs. [self-repair]
 6 **T1:** I am not keen on[↑] dogs. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'to be keen on'
 on the BB] Keen (0.2) on[↑] [positive reinforcement]

Extract 62

- 1 **S1:** Sorry. But it will be tomorrow in the [morphosyntax] morning.
 2 **T1:** With tomorrow and morning, afternoon, night you do not need in[↑] the.
 Not[↑] in the. [explanation] [writing 'tomorrow morning', '/', 'afternoon', '/',
 and 'night' on the BB] (0.5) Can you correct your sentence? [elicitation]
 3 **S1:** It will be tomorrow morning. [self-repair]
 4 **T1:** Yes. Tomorrow morning. [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive
 reinforcement]

Extract 63

- 1 **S1:** I like shop [morphosyntax].
 2 **T1:** One shop? [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** No. *Acheter* [Fr].
 4 **T1:** We have studied the action for *acheter* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback]
 What's the name of the mini supermarket close to the beach? [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** Shopping. Yes. *Euh* [Fr]. I like shopping, teacher. [self-repair]

- 6 **T1:** Yes, very good. [positive reinforcement] I like shopping. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'LIKE SHOPPING' on the BB]

Extract 64

- 1 **S1:** My hobby is the *lecture* [Fr] [L1].
- 2 **T1:** Lecture in English (0.2) is not like in French, Chebia. It is another thing, another meaning. It is a word with 'read' [explanation] [writing 'READ' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** My hobby is (0.3) reading. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Reading. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'ING' on the BB] Got it. [positive reinforcement] Yes↑ reading. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 65

- 1 **S1:** I hate the [morphosyntax] rap.
- 2 **T1:** You translate again from French. [metalinguistic feedback] Do you see the mistake, Chebia? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Without the?
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Come on. [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** I hate rap. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 66

- 1 **S1:** I prefer the [morphosyntax] art.
- 2 **T1:** Again the same mistake? [metalinguistic feedback](0.3) It is↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I prefer art. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** I prefer art. [positive reinforcement] Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 67

- 1 **S1:** I play at the [morphosyntax] tennis.

- 2 **T1:** You translate from French. [metalinguistic feedback] How is the correct sentence, Chebiah? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I play tennis. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes, that's right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 68

- 1 **S1:** Would you like to dinner [lexical]?
- 2 **T1:** Dinner is not a verb in English. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** Would you like to come for dinner? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Come for dinner[↑] is great. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'come for dinner' on the BB]

Extract 69

- 1 **S1:** The theories of Einstein of time [morphosyntax] and space were a big step forward from other scientiphist [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Einstein's theories about time and space. [recast] Scientist is not English. [explanation] It is scientist. [adjustment] [writing 'scientist' on the BB] Can you correct the whole sentence? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** The [morphosyntax] Einstein's theories.
- 4 **T1:** The article is not necessary. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** Einstein's theories about time and space were (0.3) a big step. [silence] (0.2)
- 6 **T1:** Come on. [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Forward from (0.3) other scientists. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Great. [positive reinforcement] Einstein's theories about time and space were a big step forward from other scien[↑]tists. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Einstein's theories' on the BB] That's it. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 70

- 1 **S1:** Sun [lexical] power is a source of energy.

- 2 **T1:** Okay, so far but there is a word that could be better than sun here. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** I don't know.
- 4 **T1:** It is like French. [metalinguistic feedback] It is[↑] [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Solar power? [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, that's it. [positive reinforcement] Solar power. [positive reinforcement] Solar like in French. [positive reinforcement] The solar power is a source of energy. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'solar power' on the BB]

Extract 71

- 1 **S1:** Where are the coast floods [lexical] in France?
- 2 **T1:** Coast floods. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (1.0)
- 4 **T1:** Coastal flooding. [recast] Consult the photocopy of vocabulary I gave you last week! [nagging comment] [writing 'coastal flooding' on the BB]

Extract 72

- 1 **S1:** I do not think [morphosyntax] is a very important problem.
- 2 **T1:** Where is that[↑] to connect sentences? [metalinguistic feedback] (1.5)
Can you put it? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I do not think that it is a very important problem. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement] Do not forget that. [nagging comment] [writing 'I do not think THAT...' on the BB]

Extract 73

- 1 **S1:** /a/cid [phonology] rain is destroying forests.
- 2 **T1:** How do you pronounce this? [elicitation] [writing 'acid' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** Acid. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Acid. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 74

- 1 **S1:** At [lexical] the 15th century, explorers of Italy arrived to Senegal.
- 2 **T1:** In↑ the 15th century, Italian explorers arrived in Senegal. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** In the 15th century, explorers of Italy arrived to Senegal. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. In the 15th century. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'the XVth century' on the BB]

Extract 75

- 1 **S1:** The writer sees endangered [lexical] species in Tanzania.
- 2 **T1:** You need something before endangered. [explanation] (0.3) Recall the poster you did? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.2)
- 4 **T1:** E↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Endangered species. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, that's the correct word. [positive reinforcement] Endangered species. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'endangered species' on the BB]

Extract 76

- 1 **S1:** Many people can't get clean water enough [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** Many people can't get clean water↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.2)
- 4 **T1:** Clean water enough? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Yes.
- 6 **T1:** Where do you place (0.2) enough? [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Enough↑ clean water. (0.2) *Euh* [Fr]. (0.3) Many people can't get enough clean water. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Many people can't get enough clean water (0.2) is correct. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 77

- 1 **S1:** The film wasn't [morphosyntax] good as we had expected.
- 2 **T1:** One as is missing. [metalinguistic feedback] (0.3) Can you correct your sentence? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** The film wasn't as good as we had expected. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** As good as we had expected. [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'AS GOOD AS' on the BB]

Extract 78

- 1 **S1:** Wastes can make sick [morphosyntax] people.
- 2 **T1:** Can make↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 4 **T1:** Can make↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** People (0.2) sick. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, that's it. [positive reinforcement] Wastes can make people sick. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 79

- 1 **S1:** All flooding is caused for [lexical] El Nino.
- 2 **T1:** It cannot be ↑ for El Nino because you do not give something. [explanation] (0.5) But↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** To [lexical]?
- 4 **T1:** Not to ↑ but another preposition we have studied. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Ah! By↑ El Nino. All flooding is caused by El Nino. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** By. [positive reinforcement] OK. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'All flooding is caused by El Nino' on the BB] (0.3) Why by El Nino? [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Because it is one adverb. [content]
- 8 **T1:** One adverb? [clarification request]
- 9 **S1:** I think it is. [content]

- 10 **T1:** It is not one adverb. (0.5) By El Nino it is a by-agent in passive sentence.
[explanation]

Extract 80

- 1 **S1:** Bacteria and virus [morphosyntax] are microorganisms.
2 **T1:** There plural of virus is viruses. [explanation] [writing 'virus', 'singular',
'viruses' and 'plural' on the BB]

Extract 81

- 1 **S1:** I am just not good with [lexical] it.
2 **T1:** We have studied the preposition after good. [metalinguistic feedback]
3 **S1:** Good at it. [self-repair]
4 **T1:** [writing 'good AT' on the BB]

Extract 82

- 1 **S1:** The sheeps [morphosyntax] live in most parts of Senegal.
2 **T1:** There is something wrong. [metalinguistic feedback]
3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
4 **T1:** One word has irregular plural. [metalinguistic feedback] Do you know it?
[elicitation]
5 **S1:** The sheep? [self-repair]
6 **T1:** Yes, it is the sheep. [positive reinforcement] Sheep and not sheeps.
[positive reinforcement] [writing 'sheep', 'singular', 'sheep' and 'plural' on
the BB]

Extract 83

- 1 **S1:** Ingredients of canned food contain many add/ai/tives [phonology]
such as preservatives which can cause allergies.
2 **T1:** Add/ai/tives? [clarification request]
3 **S1:** Additives. [self-repair]

- 4 **T1:** Additives. [positive reinforcement] Great. [positive reinforcement] That's it. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 84

- 1 **S1:** Where did you bought [morphosyntax] your new shirt?
 2 **T1:** Where did you bought is right? [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** Where you bought [morphosyntax] your new shirt?
 4 **T1:** There is something wrong with the verb. [metalinguistic feedback] (1.0) Can you correct it? [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** Where did you buy. Yes. (0.2) Where did you buy your new shirt? [self-repair]
 6 **T1:** That's right now. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 85

- 1 **S1:** Most blacks in America suffer [morphosyntax] discrimin/a/tion [phonology].
 2 **T1:** Discrimination. [recast] After suffer you need a preposition. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
 4 **T1:** Can you put it? [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** I do not know.
 6 **T1:** It starts with "f". [elicitation]
 7 **S1:** From? (0.3) [self-repair]
 8 **T1:** It is suffer from. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement] (0.2) However (0.2) it is not discrimin/a/ tion. (0.5) There is a problem. [metalinguistic feedback] It is[↑] [elicitation]
 9 **S1:** Discr/ai/min/a/tion [phonology] [phonology].
 10 **T1:** No, it is discrimination. [adjustment]

Extract 86

- 1 **S1:** I go [morphosyntax] trip.
- 2 **T1:** I go↑[elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** I go to [morphosyntax] trip.
- 4 **T1:** Some things are missing. [metalinguistic feedback] But not go to. Trip only is not good. (0.2) You need one article before trip. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** In trip [morphosyntax]?
- 6 **T1:** Try another preposition. [elicitation] Do not be afraid of making mistakes, try. [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Go on a trip. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] Go on a trip. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'go on a trip' on the BB] Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 87

- 1 **S1:** I paid [morphosyntax] today.
- 2 **T1:** You mean the excursion. Something is missing. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** I paid it today. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** I paid it↑(0.2) today. [positive reinforcement] That's right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 88

- 1 **S1:** Have you ever travelled in [lexical] plane?
- 2 **T1:** You translate from French, *Claire* [Fr], the preposition with plane. [metalinguistic feedback] *Claire*, we have studied it in class. Do you remember it and correct? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** By plane. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** By plane. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'by plane' on the BB] OK. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 89

- 1 **S1:** Have you been foreigner lands [lexical]?
- 2 **T1:** Have you ever been overseas? [recast] [writing 'overseas' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** What countries do you want to go in future? [lexical]
- 4 **T1:** You need one article. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** [silence] [0.2]
- 6 **T1:** Go in↑ [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** In the future. [self-repair] What countries do you want to go in the future?
- 8 **T1:** OK. [positive reinforcement] In the future. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 90

- 1 **S1:** What do you usually buy in [lexical] vacation?
- 2 **T1:** In vacation? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** On vacation. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] On vacation. [positive reinforcement] On vacation. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'on vacation' on the BB] Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 91

- 1 **S1:** Where did you go in [lexical] your last vacation?
- 2 **T1:** Again a problem with the preposition. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** On your last vacation? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] On your last vacation. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 92

- 1 **S1:** Enjoy the [morphosyntax] stay.
- 2 **T1:** It is better. (0.3) Enjoy your stay. [explanation]

Extract 93

- 1 **S1:** She borrows [lexical] me some money.
- 2 **T1:** The verb borrow[↑] is not correct. [explanation] (1.5) Which is the other verb you often use badly? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** She lend [morphosyntax].
- 4 **T1:** The third person. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** She lends me some money. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Lends. [positive reinforcement] Very well. [positive reinforcement]
[writing 'he', 'she' and 'lends' on the BB]

Extract 94

- 1 **S1:** Can you tell [morphosyntax] the way to [morphosyntax] museum?
- 2 **T1:** Can you tell the way to museum, is it correct? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Can you tell me the way to the museum? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] You got it. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 95

- 1 **S1:** Go straight [morphosyntax] this street.
- 2 **T1:** There is a problem with one preposition. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Go straight. *Euh* [Fr]. (0.3) along[↑] this street. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] That's it. [positive reinforcement] Along this street. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'along the street' on the BB]

Extract 96

- 1 **S1:** There is a bookstore in [lexical] the corner.
- 2 **T1:** You need another preposition. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** At [lexical] the corner.
- 4 **T1:** Another preposition [metalinguistic feedback] which is[↑] [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** On the corner. [self-repair] There is a bookstore on the corner.

- 6 **T1:** The right preposition is on. [positive reinforcement] On the corner.
[positive reinforcement] [writing 'ON the corner' on the BB]

Extract 97

- 1 **S1:** May I lend [lexical] your dictionary?
2 **T1:** Another verb is better. [metalinguistic feedback]
3 **S1:** It is (0.5) may I borrow your dictionary? [self-repair]
4 **T1:** Yes, to borrow a dictionary. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'borrow a book' and 'a dictionary' on the BB]

Extract 98

- 1 **S1:** How long did [morphosyntax] take?
2 **T1:** The subject is missing. [metalinguistic feedback]
3 **S1:** How long did it take? [self-repair]
4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 99

- 1 **S1:** Have you ever rode [morphosyntax] a camel?
2 **T1:** Not rode. It is one irregular verb. (0.5) But ridden[↑] [explanation]
3 **S1:** Ridden? [self-repair] Have you ever ridden a camel?
4 **T1:** Ridden. [positive reinforcement] Have you ever ridden a camel?
[positive reinforcement] [writing 'ride', '-', 'rode', '-', 'rid', 'or' and 'ridden'
on the BB] Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 100

- 1 **S1:** I have spoken [morphosyntax] a police officer.
2 **T1:** A preposition is missing after spoken. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
3 **S1:** *Euh* [Fr]. To. I have spoken to a police officer. [self-repair]

- 4 **T1:** To speak to. [positive reinforcement] Yes. [positive reinforcement]
[writing 'TO SPEAK TO' on the BB]

Extract 101

- 1 **S1:** How long last [morphosyntax] this competition?
2 **T1:** It is not good. (0.3) You need the auxiliary do. [explanation]
3 **S1:** How long does this competition last? [self-repair]
4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 103

- 1 **S1:** Would you like to make [lexical] part?
2 **T1:** The verb is not make (0.8) part but take↑ part. [explanation] [writing
'take part' on the BB]
3 **S1:** Would you like to take part? [self-repair]
4 **T1:** Yes, take part. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 104

- 1 **S1:** Where did you got [morphosyntax] the clothes you are wearing?
2 **T1:** Did you got? [clarification request]
3 **S1:** *Euh* [Fr]. Where did you get the clothes you are wearing [self-repair]
4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 105

- 1 **S1:** Who do you usually go shopping [morphosyntax]?
2 **T1:** Go shopping↑ [elicitation]
3 **S1:** Go shopping with. [self-repair]
4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'go shopping with' on the BB]

Extract 106

- 1 **S1:** What have you bought [morphosyntax] this week?
- 2 **T1:** The past form of buy is irregular. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** What have you bought this week? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Bought. [positive reinforcement] Not bought. [positive reinforcement]
Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'buy', '-', 'bought', '-', and 'bought'
on the BB]

Extract 107

- 1 **S1:** What happens [morphosyntax] in France yesterday?
- 2 **T1:** [silence] (0.3) You have yesterday. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** What was happen[↑] [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T1:** Not[↑] what was happen. The past form of happen. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** What happened in France yesterday? [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] That's it. [positive reinforcement] What
happened in France yesterday? [positive reinforcement]

Extract 108

- 1 **S1:** Tell me of [lexical] it.
- 2 **T1:** Not tell me of. (0.3) The verb is tell about [explanation] [writing 'write
about' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** Tell me about it. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 109

- 1 **S1:** You told the homework at [lexical] me.
- 2 **T1:** Why at? [clarification request] No French direct translation. [nagging
comment]
- 3 **S1:** You told the homework to me. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes, tell to me. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 110

- 1 **S1:** What's the title of [morphosyntax] last book you read?
- 2 **T1:** It is the last[↑] book like the superlative forms the most, the biggest. With the. (0.3) What's the title of the last book you read? [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** What's the title of the last book you read? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 111

- 1 **S1:** I go swim [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T1:** It is like go shopping. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** I go swimming. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'go swimming' on the BB]

Extract 112

- 1 **S1:** My father travels six hours by jeep of [lexical] Dakar.
- 2 **T1:** Christine, not of Dakar. (0.5) You need from for a place. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** My father travels six hours by jeep from Dakar. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** From Dakar. [positive reinforcement] Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'from' on the BB]

Extract 113

- 1 **S1:** What [morphosyntax] the advantages of travelling by plane?
- 2 **T1:** You need the verb. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** What the advantages of travelling by plane are? [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T1:** Are after what. [explanation] [writing 'what' on the BB] What.
- 5 **S1:** What are (0.2) the advantages of travelling by plane? [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 114

- 1 **S1:** What [morphosyntax] the best way to travel around France?
- 2 **T1:** Again the verb. Your mother tongue also uses verbs, isn't it?
[metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Yes, but not always. *Euh* [Fr]. What is the best way to travel around France? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 115

- 1 **S1:** Americans first walked in [lexical] the moon.
- 2 **T1:** It cannot be Americans first walked in[↑] the moon, inside the moon.
[explanation]
- 3 **S1:** On the moon. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** The correct form is on the moon. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'ON the moon' on the BB]

Extract 116

- 1 **S1:** The Olympic Games are hold [morphosyntax] every four years.
- 2 **T1:** The verb in participle. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** The Olympic Games are helded. [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T1:** It is held. Hold (0.3) held. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** Olympic Games are held every four years. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes, hold held. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'hold', '-', 'held', '-' and 'held' on the BB]

Extract 117

- 1 **S1:** I would [morphosyntax] sightseeing.
- 2 **T1:** I would what? You need a verb before sightseeing. I would sightseeing is not a complete sentence. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** I would like to have sightseeing. [self-repair]

- 4 **T1:** To have sightseeing is OK. [positive reinforcement] Or to go sightseeing which is better. [writing 'to go sightseeing' on the BB]

Extract 118

- 1 **S1:** I got up today early [morphosyntax].
 2 **T1:** So far it is not bad. But early is not quite good after today. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** I got up early today. [self-repair]
 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 119

- 1 **S1:** Did you leave the book in [lexical] the floor?
 2 **T1:** It cannot be in the floor. No inside but on the floor. [explanation] [writing 'on the floor' on the BB]

Extract 120

- 1 **S1:** Have you finded [morphosyntax] you're the book?
 2 **T1:** Are you sure that it is have you finded [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** Fund. [morphosyntax] I don't know.
 4 **T1:** You do not study, Marcel. [nagging comment]
 5 **S1:** *Si moi j'étudie* [Fr], teacher. (0.3) I lot study. [morphosyntax]
 6 **T1:** You do not study a lot. [recast] [nagging comment] You should study more and harder. *Plus et prendre en sérieux les études* [Fr]. [nagging comment] The past form of find is found. [explanation] [writing 'find', '-', 'found', '- ' and 'found' on the BB]

Extract 121

- 1 **S1:** Where [morphosyntax] this person was born?
 2 **T1:** Where this person was born is not the correct order. [explanation]
 3 **S1:** Where was born this person? [morphosyntax]

- 4 **T1:** No. The order of words is not good. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** Where was this person born? [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very well, after two tries. [positive reinforcement] Where was this person born? [positive reinforcement]

Extract 122

- 1 **S1:** I go abroad in the [morphosyntax] next year.
- 2 **T1:** Something is wrong in I go abroad in the next year. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** I go abroad in [morphosyntax] next year.
- 4 **T1:** In the next year and in next year are not correct. The next year. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** I go abroad next year. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'next year' on the BB]

Extract 123

- 1 **S1:** What would you do if you become [morphosyntax] rich?
- 2 **T1:** With would it should be became but we have not studied it. [explanation] [writing 'became' on the BB]

Extract 124

- 1 **S1:** In my opinion it is the best way for [lexical] getting rich.
- 2 **T1:** You need another preposition after the best way. [metalinguistic feedback] Tell some logic preposition. [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Of getting? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]
- 5 **S1:** In my opinion (0.5) it is the best way of getting rich. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Both the best way of getting or to get rich are correct. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'the best way of getting' on the BB]

Extract 125

- 1 **S1:** Would you like [morphosyntax] visit this country?
- 2 **T1:** You need a preposition after like. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Would you like to visit? [self-repair] Would you like to visit the country?
[bird chirping outside]
- 4 **T1:** Great. [positive reinforcement] Would you like to ↑ [positive reinforcement] [writing 'would you like to...?' on the BB]

Extract 126

- 1 **S1:** More that [lexical] half of all Senegalese people did not travel abroad at all.
- 2 **T1:** You have the superlative form. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Most half of. [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T1:** More is OK. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** More of [lexical] half.
- 6 **T1:** No. It is more than half of all Senegalese. More than. [explanation] Study more please. [nagging comment] [writing 'more than' on the BB]

Extract 127

- 1 **S1:** Everyone does [lexical] mistakes when they are learning.
- 2 **T1:** We need another verb for mistakes. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Makes mistakes? [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Very good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'to make mistakes' on the BB]

Extract 128

- 1 **S1:** I think it would be nice [morphosyntax] sky in Switzerland.
- 2 **T1:** It cannot be nice sky. It is difficult for you. It is nice to go skiing or go skiing. [explanation]

Extract 129

- 1 **S1:** Me, also [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** Also is not correct here. It should be me too. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** Me too. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 130

- 1 **S1:** My place favourite [morphosyntax] in Senegal is Saint Louis.
- 2 **T1:** In English (0.3) the adjective is not like in French. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** My favourite place in Senegal is Saint Louis. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Favourite place. [positive reinforcement] Yes. [positive reinforcement]
[writing 'favourite place' on the BB]

Extract 131

- 1 **S1:** I like to talk a lot at [lexical] the telephone.
- 2 **T1:** Do not translate like in French word for word *au telephone* [Fr].
[metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** In [lexical] the telephone?
- 4 **T1:** Warmer warmer! [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** On the telephone? [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]
- 7 **S1:** I like to talk a lot on the telephone. [self-repair]
- 8 **T1:** On the telephone. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'on the telephone'
on the BB]

Extract 132

- 1 **S1:** I buy a sweat teeshirt [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** This is a funny word (0.2) sweat teeshirt! It is almost correct.
[metalinguistic feedback] It is sweat↑ [elicitation]

- 3 **S1:** A sweatshirt. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes, a sweatshirt. [positive reinforcement] Sweet teeshirt was very funny. In French the word is the same but your mother tongue is not French. [writing 'sweatshirt' on the BB]

Extract 133

- 1 **S1:** We went to all-you-eat buffet [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** All-you-eat-buffet is not the correct word. [explanation] (0.4) It is all-you-can-eat-buffet. [provide] [writing 'all-you-can-eat-buffet' on the BB]

Extract 134

- 1 **S1:** I'll be working Monday until [lexical] Friday.
- 2 **T1:** Another preposition is needed. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** I'll be working Monday to [lexical] Friday.
- 4 **T1:** OK. But through Friday is better here. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** I'll be working Monday through Friday. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 135

- 1 **S1:** It is more fun [morphosyntax] to listen to music than [morphosyntax] watch TV.
- 2 **T1:** It is[↑] [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Funnier [self-repair] to listen to music than [morphosyntax] watch TV.
- 4 **T1:** Funnier is OK. [positive reinforcement] (0.2) Than to watch TV, yes. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'funnier' on the BB]

Extract 136

- 1 **S1:** What are you interested [morphosyntax]?
- 2 **T1:** What are you interested[↑] [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Interested in. [self-repair]

- 4 **T1:** Interested in↑ (0.8) Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'interested in' on the BB]

Extract 137

- 1 **S1:** You↑ [morphosyntax] lucky.
 2 **T1:** One verb is necessary. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** You are. [self-repair]
 4 **T1:** Go on. [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** Lucky.
 6 **T1:** You are lucky. [positive reinforcement] Right. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 138

- 1 **S1:** He is friendly and talker [lexical].
 2 **T1:** Talker is English but talkative is better. He is friendly and talkative. [explanation] [writing 'talkative' on the BB]

Extract 139

- 1 **S1:** Where [morphosyntax] the Celts come from?
 2 **T1:** [nodding no] (1.2) The verb. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Where [morphosyntax] come from the Celts?
 4 **T1:** A verb is necessary. *Il faut↑un verbe, l'auxiliaire* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback]
 5 **S1:** Where (0.3) do the Celts come from? [self-repair]
 6 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 140

- 1 **S1:** Stonehenge [morphosyntax] used as a Celtic temple and it is possible the Celts build it.
 2 **T1:** [writing 'Stonehenge_____used as a Celtic temple' on the BB] There is a verb missing. [metalinguistic feedback]

- 3 **S1:** Stonehenge (0.2) was used as a Celtic temple. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 141

- 1 **S1:** The Romans invaded Britain at [lexical] 43 A.D.
- 2 **T1:** It is not at 43 A.D but in 43 A.D. [explanation] [writing 'in 43 A.D' on the BB]

Extract 142

- 1 **S1:** Elizabeth never married and was knew [morphosyntax] as the Virgin Queen.
- 2 **T1:** The right past form of know is not knew but↑ known. [explanation] You don't study. [nagging comment] [writing 'know', '-', 'knew', '-' and 'known' on the BB]

Extract 143

- 1 **S1:** Shakespeare's family was not [lexical] poor nor rich.
- 2 **T1:** With negatives you need one word we have studied. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Shakespeare's family was no [lexical] poor nor.
- 4 **T1:** No, no. It is neither poor nor rich. [explanation]

Extract 144

- 1 **S1:** It's on the right next to the sta/s/ion [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** Station. [recast]

Extract 145

- 1 **S1:** Circ/u/s [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** The pronunciation is cir↑cus. [explanation]

- 3 **S1:** Circus. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 146

- 1 **S1:** I want /ei/nything [phonology].
- 2 **T1:** /ei/nothing (0.3) or anything? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Anything. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Yes. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 147

- 1 **S1:** I play/t/ [phonology] tennis.
- 2 **T1:** You should say played tennis. [recast] It's my favourite play.

Extract 148

- 1 **S1:** We finish, we finished [morphology] exercises.
- 2 **T1:** You should say we are finished with. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** We are finished with the exercises. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Right. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'We are finished with' on the BB]

Extract 149

- 1 **S1:** You played good [lexical].
- 2 **T1:** You played↑[elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (1.0)
- 4 **T1:** You need the adverb form of 'good'. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** You played well. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'well' on the BB]

Extract 150

- 1 **S1:** My mother buys meat at the meat shop [lexical].

- 2 **T1:** Meat shop? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Butchery? [lexical] *Boucher* [Fr] [L1].
- 4 **T1:** The butcher (0.2) or *boucher* [Fr]? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** The butcher. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] The butcher. [positive reinforcement]
[writing 'butcher' on the BB]

Extract 151

- 1 **S1:** Can you lend me 1000 euros for my car?
- 2 **S2:** I cannot buy your car. [content]
- 3 **T1:** Lend. Lend. Not buy his car. (0.3) He has no car. He wants you give some money. [explanation]

Extract 152

- 1 **S1:** Do you agree with smoking ban?
- 2 **S3:** But, I have never smoked. [content]
- 3 **T1:** She asks you if you think that smoking prohibition is OK. [explanation]

Extract 153

- 1 **S1:** I went to the library [lexical] to buy the dictionary.
- 2 **T1:** Library? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Bookshop. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Very well. [positive reinforcement] Library is a false friend. [writing 'library', '≠' and 'bookshop' on the BB]

Extract 154

- 1 **S1:** I am going to the post [lexical] today.
- 2 **T1:** Post needs another word in English. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Post office. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** [writing 'post office' on the BB]

Extract 155

- 1 **S1:** Have you ever seen a hypopotam [lexical] in Senegal?
- 2 **T1:** Hippopotamus or hypopotam? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** The hippopotamus. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'hippopotamus' on the BB]

Extract 156

- 1 **S1:** The sun raises [lexical] in the east.
- 2 **T1:** Raise is different from rise. [writing 'raise' and 'rise' on the BB] [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** The sun rises. [self-repair]
- 4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] Raise is with effort and rise without effort.

Extract 157

- 1 **S1:** Mary did [lexical] pictures during the trip.
- 2 **T1:** We use other verb with pictures. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Mary had [lexical] pictures.
- 4 **T1:** Mary t/u/↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Mary took pictures pictures. [self-repair]
- 6 **T1:** Very good. [positive reinforcement] Mary took pictures or made pictures. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'take', '/', 'make', and 'pictures' on the BB]

Extract 158

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, I do not understand the use of the two past times [lexical] quite well.
- 2 **T1:** Past times means ancient times like Egypt era of pyramids. [metalinguistic feedback] We use the correct word with verbs. *La conjugaison* [Fr].
- 3 **S1:** I do not understand the use of the two past tenses. [self-repair]

- 4 **T1:** Present tense, past tense, future tense. [writing 'tense' on the BB]
[positive reinforcement]

Extract 159

- 1 **S1:** I pass [lexical] the holidays in Alexandria.
2 **T1:** There is a problem with the verb. [metalinguistic feedback]
3 **S1:** Spend the holidays. [self-repair]
4 **T1:** To spend holidays. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 160

- 1 **S1:** The *rivière* [Fr] [L1] was less shallow than we expected.
2 **T1:** One word is French. [metalinguistic feedback]
3 **S1:** The river (0.2) was less shallow than we expected. [self-repair]
4 **T1:** Good. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'river' on the BB]

SETTING 2: Advanced English Classrooms

T2 Year 1/ GS (Grande Section)

Extract 1

- 1 **S1:** I am heat [lexical].
2 **[S2:** [S2 starts striking the window and makes noises] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
3 **[S3:** Teacher. (1.0) Teacher. [other intervention]
4 **T2:** You feel hot. [recast] [teacher using the hand like a fan] Me too.

Extract 2

- 1 **[S1:** I have this /d/oy [phonology].
2 **[S2/S3:** [laughing and playing with one teddy bear] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]

- 3 **S4:** Teacher, yellow. [other intervention]
 4 **T2:** [nodding no] You keep this toy. [recast] [smile] [pointing at the toy]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** Bill wants bubu [lexical].
 2 **S2:** I like teddy. [other intervention]
 3 **T2:** [lifting her eyebrows] [nodding no] Yes, the teddy bear. [recast] [gaze to the teddy bear]
 4 **S1:** Teddy (1.5) bear. [self-repair]
 5 **[S3:** Teddy, teddy. [other intervention]
 6 **[S4:** Hi, teddy! [other intervention]
 7 **T2:** Bill wants the teddy bear. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** I want one pen [lexical].
 2 **T2:** Here you have a pencil. [recast] [gaze to S1]
 3 **[Ss:** [a group of 4 children stand up and dance in circles] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
 4 **[S2:** Teacher, teacher, red. [other intervention]
 5 **S1:** Teacher, I want one pen. [same error]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** Teacher, I am (1.0) thirty [lexical].
 2 **S2:** [drumming on the table] Oooh! [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
 3 **T2:** Thirsty. [recast] You can have water. [using fingers, as if holding a glass with water tilted towards the mouth as when drinking]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** I am tied [lexical].

- 2 **S2:** [silence] (0.2) Teacher, teacher. [laughters] [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 3 **T1:** Yes, very tired. [recast] [smile]

T2 Year 2/ CP (Cours Préparatoire)

Extract 1

- 1 **T2:** What time is it?
- 2 **[S1]:** It's fift [lexical] o'clock.
- 3 **[S2]:** [student going out of the classroom without permission] [disruption by undisciplined student]
- 4 **T2:** Mike, stop! [to the undisciplined S2] (2.0) It is five[↑] (0.2) o'clock. [recast] [observing the education clock toy moving hands] [drawing one clock showing the time on the BB]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** I have two tooth [morphosyntax].
- 2 **S2:** Teacher, teacher. [showing his teeth]
- 3 **T2:** You have two teeth. [recast] [opening the mouth showing the teeth]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** He's wearing a white /tei:/ [phonology] shirt.
- 2 **T2:** [nodding no] A white tee-shirt, yes. [recast] [smile]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** She has got a blue shirt. [lexical]
- 2 **T2:** She is wearing a blue skirt. [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Yes, she is wearing a blue skirt. [self-repair]
- 4 **S2:** Whoah! [disruption by undisciplined S]

- 5 **T2:** A blue skirt. Let's give her some star, honey. She is a star. [clapping]
[boos of some students] We always go up; we never go down, honey. Let's
give her some star. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** I take the carpeture [lexical] to home.
2 **S2:** Teacher, help. [other intervention]
3 **T2:** [frowning face] Your folder. [recast] [writing 'folder' and drawing a blue
one on the BB]

T2 Year 3/ CE1 (Cours Élémentaire 1)

Extract 1

- 1 **S1:** I. (1.5) I am (0.2) am too sick. Too sick↑[morphosyntax] stand up.
2 **T2:** If you are too sick↑ to [recast] stand up [both hands moving up] you
should not come to school. [gaze to S1]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** One day the caterpillar ate some orange [morphosyntax].
2 **T2:** Ate↑ (0.3) some oranges. [recast] [gaze to S1] Oh. He ate very much.

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** He ate thirty large pizza [morphosyntax].
2 **T2:** Thirty large pi↑zzas. [recast] [gaze to S1] Oh my God! [mouth wide open
in surprise]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** You see the doctor at the /o/spital [phonology]. [chirping cicada near
one window] [other intervention]

- 2 **T2:** At the hospital. [recast] (0.3) It is hos↑pital. [provide]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** It is lo/k/ cabine. [phonological]
 2 **T2:** A log cabine. Oh! A log cabine. [recast] [writing 'log cabine' on the BB]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** I play basket [lexical] after school.
 2 **S2:** Teacher, I am tired [disruption by undisciplined S].
 3 **T2:** You play↑ (0.2) basketball. [recast] Falla, please↑ be quiet.

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** Mary buy [morphosyntax] an icecream.
 2 **T2:** Mary buys↑ an icecream. [recast]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** I did not copied [morphosyntax].
 2 **T2:** I did not copy. [recast] [gaze to S1]
 [continuation of the lesson and no learner uptake]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** I go [morphosyntax] to my grandmother yesterday.
 2 **S2/S3:** [chattering and playing]
 3 **T2:** [raising her eyebrows] You say I went to my grand-mother. [recast]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** And he love [morphosyntax] candy.
 2 **T2:** And he loves candies. [recast] [gaze to S1]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** I /i/ump [phonology] meters.
- 2 **Ss** [a group of 3 Ss talking to each other and laughing]
- 3 **T2:** You jump, jump! [recast] [gaze to Ss] [teacher jumping twice]

T2 Year 4/CE2 (Cours Élémentaire2)**Extract 1**

- 1 **S1:** I go [morphosyntax] to the pool.
- 2 **T2:** Went to the pool. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Went to the pool. [repetition]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** Yes, my friend did go [morphosyntax] to school.
- 2 **T2:** Yes, I went to school yesterday. [recast]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** I prefer /s/ocolate [phonology].
- 2 **T2:** [nodding no] [frowning face] Chocolate. [recast] [gaze to S1] [moving hand for repetition]
- 3 **Ss:** [loud laughters] [disruptions of undisciplined Ss]
- 4 **S1:** Chocolate. [repetition]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** This is what I wrote. I drew [morphosyntax] it by myself.
- 2 **S2/S3/S4:** [chattering and laughing] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 3 **T2:** Yes. I drew. [recast]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** Here, there is a ski building [lexical] in New York.
- 2 **T2:** Sky [elicitation] (0.3) skyscraper. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** The ski building [lexical] is big.
- 4 **T2:** Skyscrap ↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Skyscraper [self-repair] is big.
- 6 **T2:** [writing 'skyscraper' on the BB]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** I play [morphosyntax] football last week.
- 2 **T2:** Played football. [recast] [gaze to S1] [moving hand for repetition]
- 3 **S1:** Played football. [repetition]
- 4 **T2:** Yes. [positive reinforcement] Nadia, study more. [nagging comment]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** I stayed at house [lexical].
- 2 **T2:** [winkling her nose] At house? [elicitation] [moving hand for elicitation]
- 3 **S2:** [singing and whistling] [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 4 **S1:** Ah! I stayed at home. [self-repair]
- 5 **T2:** [writing 'I stayed at home.' on the BB] [finger pointing here]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** And I looked [lexical] TV.
[the headmistress knocks at the classroom door] [other intervention]
- 2 **T2:** You watched TV too. [recast] [smile]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** There is [morphosyntax] some grapes.

- 2 **T2:** [making a wry face] Grapes in plural. [metalinguistic feedback] Study more! [nagging comment] (2.0) [writing 'There are some grapes' on the BB]

T2 Year 5/ CM1 (Cours Moyen 1)

Extract 1

- 1 **S1:** I ate [morphosyntax] food.
- 2 **T2:** You need some before food. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** I ate some food. [self-repair]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** They caught [morphosyntax] all the animals.
- 2 **T2:** [nodding no] [frowning face] They caught. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** They killed them. [self-repair]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** Finish. We finish [morphosyntax], teacher.
- 2 **S2:** [making noises with the chair] [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 3 **T2:** Finished. [recast] [moving hand to stress the word]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** Are you the big [lexical] brother?
- 2 **T2:** [gaze to S1] Are you the oldest↑ youngest? [recast]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** Moment [morphosyntax], please.
- 2 **T2:** Take a moment. [recast]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** Seals and wals [lexical].
- 2 **T2:** Do you know what whales are? [recast] (1.0) [writing 'whale' on the BB]
- 3 **Ss:** *Balleines*. [Fr]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** They make [morphosyntax] a cake for the birthday party.
- 2 **T2:** OK. The word is make but you needed the past tense. [metalinguistic feedback] [writing 'make a cake' on the BB]

T2 Year 6/ CM2 (Cours Moyen 2)**Extract 1**

- 1 **S1:** All our knowledge have [morphosyntax] its origin in our perceptions.
- 2 **S2:** Teacher. [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 3 **T2:** Our knowledge has. [recast] [gaze to S1] [nodding no] Mouna, you should study more. [nagging comment]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** The tyre got bursted[↑] [morphosyntax].
- 2 **S2:** The car was not new. [other intervention]
- 3 **T2:** [nodding no] Burst. It burst. [recast] [gaze to S1] And was the car shaking?

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** I go to the sea [lexical] in Ouakham.
- 2 **S2:** She wants to say beach. [other intervention]
- 3 **T2:** Do you mean beach? [clarification request]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1**: I can change the /ʃ/annel [phonology] if the programme is boring.
- 2 **S2/S3**: [talking to each other] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 3 **T2**: Please, can you be quiet? (1.7) The channel. [recast] [gaze to S2 and S3] [writing 'channel' on the BB]. You should listen to the lesson [nagging comment].

► Extracts from B School: ELE**SETTING 3: Spanish Immersion Classrooms****T3 Year 9/ 4^e****Extract 1**

- 1 **S1**: Son bolivia [lexical].
- 2 **T3**: Son↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1**: B/u/livianos [phonology].
- 4 **T3**: Son bolivianos. [adjustment]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1**: Rusos. (1.2) Rusosos [lexical].
- 2 **T3**: Repite bien. [elicitation]
- 3 **S1**: Son rusos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3**: No has estudiado las nacionalidades. [nagging comment]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1**: Miriam es de Sueza [lexical].
- 2 **T3**: Piensa mejor. [elicitation]
- 3 **S1**: De Suiza. [self-repair]

4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Suiza' on the BB]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** Mina es francés [morphology].
- 2 **T3:** ¿Francés? [clarification request] [frowning face]
- 3 **S1:** Francesa. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'francés' and 'francesa' on the BB]

Extract 5

- 1 **T3:** ¿Cómo te llamas?
- 2 **S1:** Estoy bien. [content]
- 3 **T3:** [frowning face] Nombre. [elicitation]
- 4 **S1:** Me llamo Michelle. [self-repair]
- 5 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** ¿Cuál es tu estado civil?
- 2 **S2:** Soy de Senegal. [content]
- 3 **T3:** Estado civil↑ [elicitation]
- 4 **S2:** Senegalés. [content]
- 5 **T3:** Te pregunta si estás casado, soltero, separado o viudo. [explanation]
- 6 **S2:** [silence] (0.3) Estoy soltero.
- 7 **T3:** Estoy soltero. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** ¿Cuál es tu nacionalidad?
- 2 **S2:** Soy de Senegal. [content]
- 3 **T3:** No te pregunta tu país. Pregunta tu nacionalidad (0.8) tu pasaporte. [explanation]
- 4 **S2:** Soy senegalés. [self-repair]

5 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** Pham es (0.4) *vietnamien* [Fr] [L1].
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] [frowning face] Es↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Vietnamiano [lexical].
- 4 **T3:** ¿Vietnamien, vietnamiano o bien vietnamita? [clarification request]
[moving hands]
- 5 **S1:** Creo que (0.3) vietnamita. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Sí, vietnamita. [positive reinforcement] Correcto. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'vietnamita' on the BB]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** Mi padre es Cheikh Achid. (0.3) Es un asuro [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** ¿Te refieres a seguro? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Mi padre es un seguros [lexical].
- 4 **T3:** Un seguros no tiene sentido en español. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** Trabaja en un seguros [lexical].
- 6 **T3:** No es↑ en un seguros [smile] (0.5) pero trabaja en una correduría de seguros. [explanation] [writing 'correduría de seguros' on the BB]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** Página vinticinco [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Página↑ [elicitation] [raising his chin]
- 3 **S1:** Página veinticinco. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Veinticinco. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** Es [morphosyntax] románica iglesia [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** Cuidado con el orden y elementos. [metalinguistic feedback]

- 3 **S1:** Es iglesia [morphosyntax] románica.
- 4 **T3:** [nodding no] Es↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Es una iglesia románica. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Sí, es esto. [positive reinforcement] Esta es una iglesia románica.
[positive reinforcement] [writing 'Esta es una iglesia románica.' on the BB]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** Son iglesias goti↑cas [phonology].
- 2 **S2/S3:** [chattering and laughs] [disruption by undisciplined S]
- 3 **T3:** Shuh. Góticas del siglo XII. [recast]

Extract 13

- 1 **S1:** La caseta es pequeño [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** La caseta es pequeño. [repetition] [raising his eyebrows]
- 3 **S1:** La caseta es pequeña. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Pequeña. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 14

- 1 **S1:** Ejerci/s/io [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** Ejerci↑cio. [writing 'ejercicio' on the BB] [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Ejercicio. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 15

- 1 **S1:** Los hotel son bajos [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** ¿Bajos cómo niños? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Ah. Baratos. Los hoteles son baratos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Los hoteles son baratos. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'barato' and 'barata' on the BB]

Extract 16

- 1 **S1:** Tiene fotos [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Sí, tienen faltas. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Tiene fotos [lexical].
- 4 **T3:** No, no, tiene fotos (0.2) que es inventado. Sino faltas. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** Tiene faltas (0.2) faltas. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 17

- 1 **S1:** Es un poco de [morphosyntax] perezoso.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Un poco de perezoso? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Es un poco perezoso. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Un poco perezoso. Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 18

- 1 **S1:** Gloria, está está [morphosyntax] *parti*↑ [L1].
- 2 **S2:** Está (0.2) [morphosyntax] *parti*↑ [L1].
- 3 **S1:** Está está [morphosyntax] *partido*↑ [lexical] (0.3) a inglés [lexical].
- 4 **T3:** Mira ¿Cómo se forma el participio? (0.2) los tiempos en pasado. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Está [morphosyntax] *partido* [lexical].
- 6 **T3:** No, no, no. [moving head from side to side] [moving one finger] Ha dicho↑ [0.8] [gaze to the rest of the class] Gloria está *partido*. [repetition] [gesture of moving hand transferring repair to the class] [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Gloria está *partido* [morphosyntax] en [lexical] inglés [lexical].
- 8 **T3:** No, no, no. Hay un problema con la forma y tiempo del verbo. [explanation]
- 9 **S2:** Tiene que. [content]
- 10 **S3:** Debe que o tiene que. [content]
- 11 **S1:** Gloria está [morphosyntax] *partida* [lexical] en Inglesia [lexical].
- 12 **T3:** Bien. ¿Quién me puede conjugar este verbo? [elicitation]

- 13 **S2:** Yo he partido, tú has partido, él ha partido [other-repair], nosotros hemos partido, vosotros habéis partido, ellos han partido.
- 14 **T3:** ¿Cómo vamos a expresarlo? [elicitation]
- 15 **S1:** Gloria ha partido [morphosyntax] en [lexical] Inglesia [lexical].
- 16 **S2:** Gloria ha ido a Inglaterra. [peer-repair] [content]
- 17 **T3:** Gloria ha ido a Inglaterra. [positive reinforcement] Gloria ha partido de viaje a Inglaterra, a Europa. [positive reinforcement]
- 18 **Ss:** Sí.
- 19 **S3:** El lunes.
- 20 **T3:** Pero por el momento Gloria está aquí. [explanation] Pero el lunes está delante de nosotros. [metalinguistic feedback] Bien. ¿Cómo vamos a expresarlo? [elicitation] Gloria. (0.2) [elicitation] Gloria↑ (0.3) [elicitation] Gloria. [elicitation] ¿Qué verbo vamos a emplear? [metalinguistic feedback]/ [elicitation]
- 21 **S1:** *Hein.* [Fr] Bien↑
- 22 **T3:** Gloria↑ [elicitation]
- 23 **S2:** Gloria va a↑
- 24 **[Ss:** Ir a Inglaterra. [peer-repair]
- 25 **T3:** Gloria va a ir a Inglaterra. [positive reinforcement] Repite. [elicitation]
- 26 **S1:** Gloria va a ir a Inglaterra. [repetition]
- 27 **T3:** ¿Cuándo? [elicitation]
- 28 **S1:** El lunes.
- 29 **T3:** Bien Gloria el próximo lunes, Gloria va a↑ [elicitación]
- 30 **S1:** El próximo lunes Gloria va a ir a Inglaterra. [self-repair]
- 31 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** La ca/j/ete/j/a [phonology] era muy amplia.
- 2 **T3:** Carretera. [recast] Es difícil la pronunciación pero reflexiona sobre cómo dices las erres. [metalinguistic feedback] [writing 'RR' and 'carrerrera' on the BB]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** Tengo proyectos [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** [raising his eyebrows] ¿Cómo se dice en español? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Pro/i/↑ectos [phonology].
- 4 **T3:** Proyecto. [recast]

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** Los hotel [morphosyntax] son baratos.
- 2 **T3:** [frowning face] Hay que poner el plural. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Los hoteles son baratos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** Aquella iglesia [lexical] es muy antigua.
- 2 **T3:** Tienes que estudiar el vocabulario, Kama. [nagging comment] ¿Cómo se dice en español, Abdou? [elicitation] [gaze to S2]
- 3 **S2:** Iglesia. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]. Iglesia. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'iglesia' on the BB]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** Hay una fábrica textil/e/ [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** No pienses en francés. [nagging comment] Habla en español. [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (1.5)
- 4 **T3:** ¿Cómo se lee esto? [elicitation] [writing 'textil' on the BB] [making a wry face]
- 5 **S1:** Textil. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Ahora bien. [positive reinforcement] Repite toda la frase correctamente. [elicitation]

7 **S1:** Hay una fábrica textil. [self-repair]

8 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 24

1 **S1:** En el muse [lexical] provincial hay cuadros.

2 **T3:** Inventas español con francés. [metalinguistic feedback] [nagging comment] ¿Qué es esto? [nagging comment] Es vocabulario básico de la lección. [nagging comment] [metalinguistic feedback] Mariame, di a tu compañero la palabra. [elicitation] [gaze to S2]

3 **S2:** Es museo, señor. [peer-repair]

4 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] Si se estudia es fácil y si se hacen bien las cosas. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'el museo' on the BB]

Extract 25

1 **S1:** El viaje en el avión con muchas *turbulences* [Fr] [L1] aterrorizar. [morphosyntax]

2 **T3:** Hubo muchas turbulencias. [recast] [gaze to S1]

3 **S1:** Estabámos aterrizados [lexical].

4 **T3:** ¿Te refieres a aterrizar? [clarification request]

5 **S1:** Tener (0.2) miedo.

6 **T3:** Aterrorizados de terror como en francés. [explanation]

7 **S1:** Me hube [morphosyntax] muy aterrorizado.

8 **T3:** No está mal pero no es muy correcto en español. [metalinguistic feedback]

9 **S1:** Tuve miedo. [self-repair]

10 **T3:** Tuve miedo está muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

11 **S1:** Pero el piloto *hació* [morphosyntax] un aterrizaje muy hermoso.

12 **T3:** ¡Cuidado con el verbo! [metalinguistic feedback]

13 **S1:** Sí. (0.2) *Euh* [Fr]. Hizo un aterrizaje muy hermoso. [self-repair]

14 **T3:** Perfecto. [positive reinforcement]

15 **S1:** Y los pasajeros fueron salidos con no heridas [morphosyntax].

16 **T3:** Los pasajeros *salie*↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

- 17 **S1**: Salieron del viaje con no heridas [morphosyntax].
 18 **T3**: Eso no es bueno con no heridas. Es sin. [explanation]
 19 **S1**: Hizo un aterrizaje muy hermoso. Y salieron sin heridas. [self-repair]
 20 **T3**: Perfecto. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'sin heridas' on the BB]

Extract 26

- 1 **S1**: Empezieron [morphosyntax].
 2 **T3**: [lowering his chin] Emp[↑] [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1**: Empezaron. [self-repair]
 4 **T3**: Sí. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 27

- 1 **S1**: Hicemos [morphosyntax] nuestro[morphosyntax] destinación [lexical].
 2 **T3**: Hicemos [repetition] (1.0) nuestro [repetition] destinación. [repetition]
 3 **S1**: [silence] (0.3) Hicimos [self-repair] nuestra [self-repair] destinación [lexical].
 4 **T3**: La forma verbal hicimos es correcta. [positive reinforcement] Pero la palabra destinación es inventada y el verbo no es correcto. Debe ser llegar a un destino [explanation] [writing 'destino' on the BB] (1.0) ¿Puedes corregirte (0.2) Elise? [elicitation] [school bell ringing]
 5 **S1**: Llegamos a nuestro destino. [self-repair]
 6 **T3**: Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] Llegamos a nuestro destino. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'llegar a un destino' on the BB]

Extract 28

- 1 **S1**: Empezaban [morphosyntax].
 2 **T3**: Hay un problema con empe[↑]ziaban. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1**: Empezaron. [self-repair]
 4 **T3**: No hay diptongo en el pretérito. [positive reinforcement] Empezaron. [positive reinforcement] Tú sueles usar los verbos sin pensar. [nagging comment] [writing 'empezaron' on the BB]

Extract 29

- 1 **S1:** Pasamos el [morphosyntax] noche.
- 2 **T3:** Pasamos el noche. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** La noche. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** El género correcto es femenino, la noche. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 30

- 1 **S1:** Tuvimos que pasar en [morphosyntax] la noche.
- 2 **T3:** Pasar en↑ la noche [repetition]. Algo está mal. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Hicimos noche en el parador. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Pasar la noche mejor.

Extract 31

- 1 **S1:** Después [morphosyntax] comer.
- 2 **T3:** Después (0.3) ↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** De comer. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 32

- 1 **S1:** Pa/ʃ/i↑na [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** Bien. [writing 'página' on the BB] Lee esto. [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Pagi↑na [phonology].
- 4 **T3:** Pronuncia bien. [nagging comment]
- 5 **S1:** Página. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 33

- 1 **S1:** Ellas son de /y/apón [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** Son de↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

- 3 **S2**: Ellas son de Japón. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T3**: Bien. [positive reinforcement] Japón. [positive reinforcement]
Mohammed nunca estás al tanto de lo que pasa en clase. [nagging comment]

Extract 34

- 1 **S1**: Ella es de suico [lexical].
- 2 **T3**: Repite. [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1**: Suiza. [repetition]
- 4 **T3**: Bien. [positive reinforcement] Suiza. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Suiza' on the BB]

Extract 35

- 1 **S1**: Son to/ʀ/es [phonology] románicas.
- 2 **T3**: Torres. [adjustment]
- 3 **S1**: [silent] (0.7)
- 4 **T1**: Repite. [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1**: To↑rres románicas. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3**: Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'torres' on the BB]

Extract 36

- 1 **S1**: Luis se voy [morphosyntax] a pasar unos días al pueblo.
- 2 **T3**: ¿Por qué se? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1**: Luis va a pasar [self-repair] unos días al pueblo.
- 4 **T3**: Bien. [positive reinforcement] Cuidado. [nagging comment]

Extract 37

- 1 **S1**: Luis se acuerda [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3**: Luis se↑[elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1**: Luis se acuerda. [self-repair] Luis se acuerda muy bien de su pueblo.

- 4 **T3:** Se acuerda, bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'acordarse' and 'se acuerda' on the BB]

Extract 38

- 1 **S1:** Va Luis a menudo muy [morphosyntax] a su pueblo.
 2 **T3:** [frowning face] A menudo muy. [repetition]
 3 **S1:** Muy a menudo. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'muy a menudo' on the BB]

Extract 39

- 1 **S1:** Sí, tiene (0.3) [morphosyntax] tengo buenos recuerdos de mi niñez.
 2 **T3:** ¿Tiene o tengo? [clarification request]
 3 **S2/S3:** [Ss laughing and talking] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
 4 **T3:** Shuh.
 5 **S1:** Sí, tengo buenos recuerdos de mi niñez. [self-repair]
 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 40

- 1 **S1:** Mil novientos [lexical].
 2 **T3:** Mil novientos. [repetition]
 3 **S1:** Mil noventos [lexical].
 4 **T3:** [making a wry face] No estudiáis. [nagging comment] Mil no ↑
 [elicitation] [gaze to S2]
 5 **S2:** Mil novecientos cuarenta y dos. [peer-repair]
 6 **T3:** Mil novecientos cuarenta y dos. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]. Corrige tu frase. [addressing to S1] [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 7 **S1:** Mil novecientos cuarenta y dos CFAS. [self-repair].
 8 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]. Mil novecientos cuarenta y dos CFAS.
 [writing 'mil novecientos cuarenta dos' on the BB] [positive reinforcement]

Extract 41

- 1 **S1:** Mi abuelo era simpátic^o [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** Simpat^oco. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Mi abuelo era simpático. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Simpático. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'simpático' on the BB]

Extract 42

- 1 **S1:** Nos bañábamos [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** Te voy a castigar vas a venir el sabado por la mañana. [nagging comment] Piensa en el grupo del verbo y su infinitivo. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Bañar. Nos bañábamos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Nos bañábamos. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 43

- 1 **S1:** Al principio me puso [morphological] muy nervioso.
- 2 **T3:** Y me puse. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Y me puse muy nervioso. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 44

- 1 **S1:** La clase está en el primero nivel [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Primero nivel, ¿se dice así en español? [clarification request]
- 3 **S2:** Está (0.3) en la planta baja. [peer-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Lo correcto es en la planta baja. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 45

- 1 **S1:** Pagué cincocientos [lexical] treinta y cuatro CFAs.

- 2 **T3:** ¿Cincocientos? [clarification request]. [raising his eyebrows]
Cincocientos. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** ¡Ah! Quinientos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Debes estudiar más, Kama. [nagging comment]

Extract 46

- 1 **S1:** Manolo se fui [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** ¿Cómo? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Manolo se fue tarde [self-repair] a la cama porque tenía que madrugar.
- 4 **T1:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Yo me fui' and 'Él se fue' on the BB]

Extract 47

- 1 **S1:** Restuve [lexical] en el teatro.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Qué es restuve? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** No sé.
- 4 **T3:** Estu↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Estuve [self-repair] al [morphosyntax] teatro.
- 6 **T3:** Bien pregunto (0.6) ¿Dónde estuvieron ustedes ayer. [clarification request]
- 7 **S1:** En el teatro. [self-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Estuvisteis en el teatro. [positive reinforcement] Y no al teatro.

Extract 48

- 1 **S1:** Estuvimos. (0.3) Estuvimos al [morphological] teatro.
- 2 **T3:** Estuvimos↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** En el teatro. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] En el teatro y no al teatro. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'EN el teatro' on the BB]

Extract 49

- 1 **S1:** Pepe no nada [morphology] me dijo.
- 2 **T3:** Pepe no nada me dijo. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** Nada me dijo Pepe. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Nada me dijo Pepe es una buena frase [positive reinforcement]. O mejor Pepe no me dijo nada. [writing 'Pepe no me dijo nada' on the BB]

Extract 50

- 1 **S1:** V/e/nte [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** V/e/nte. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Veinte. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 51

- 1 **S1:** Es [morphosyntax] en [morphosyntax] la derecha de la casa. [talking in soft voice]
- 2 **[S2/S3:** [Ss laughing and talking] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 3 **[T3:** ¿Es o está [clarification request] (2.0) en la derecha? [clarification request] Y habla en voz alta, por favor. [nagging comment]
- 4 **S1:** Está [self-repair] en [morphosyntax] la derecha de la casa. Detrás de la casa.
- 5 **T3:** Está, está bien. [positive reinforcement] En la derecha no es la preposición correcta. [explanation]
- 6 **S2:** A la derecha. [peer-repair]
- 7 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]. A la derecha y a la izquierda [positive reinforcement] [writing 'a la derecha' y 'a la izquierda' on the BB]

Extract 52

- 1 **S1:** Ellos tienen un pe/R/o [phonology] negro.
- 2 **T3:** Tienen un pe/R/o. [repetition] [gaze to S1]

- 3 **S1:** Un perro. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Perro. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'perro' and 'pero' on the BB]

Extract 53

- 1 **S1:** Ellas tienen un antiguo [lexical] televisor.
- 2 **T3:** [smile] ¿Antigo o antiguo? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Tienen un televisor muy antiguo. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] Antiguo. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 54

- 1 **S1:** Ayer pudo [lexical] lluvia.
- 2 **T3:** Ayer pudo o hubo? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Hubo lluvia. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Hubo lluvia [positive reinforcement] o llovía. Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Hubo lluvia' and 'Llovía' on the BB]

Extract 55

- 1 **S1:** El teléfono no funcione [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** El teléfono no funcione. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Funciona. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 56

- 1 **S1:** Voy en vélo [Fr] [L1] cada día.
- 2 **T3:** Vélo [Fr]? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Bicicleta. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí, bicicleta. [positive reinforcement] [smile] [writing 'bicicleta' and 'bici' on the BB]

Extract 57

- 1 **S1:** Como muchos dulces. Es dangerouso [lexical] para la salud.
- 2 **S2:** Señor, dangerouso no es español. [other intervention]
- 3 **T3:** Sí, hay un problema con dangerouso. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 4 **S1:** Peligroso. [self-repair]
- 5 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'peligroso' on the BB]

Extract 58

- 1 **S1:** Estoy mucho de [morphosyntax] tiempo sentada.
- 2 **T3:** Mucho de tiempo. [repetition]
- 3 **S2/S3:** [Ss laughing and talking] [disruption by undisciplined Ss]
- 4 **T3:** Shuh. [gaze to S2 and S3]
- 5 **S1:** Estoy mucho tiempo sentada. [self-repair]. Por eso me [morphosyntax] engordo.
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Por eso me engordo. [repetition] ¿Está bien? [clarification request]
- 7 **S1:** Sin me. Engordo, señor. [self-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Engordo. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 59

- 1 **S1:** Como mucho [morphosyntax] fruta.
- 2 **T3:** [raising his chin] Mucho fruta. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** Como mucha fruta. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'mucha fruta' on the BB]

Extract 60

- 1 **S1:** Yo me abu/l/o [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** Me abu/l/o. [repetition] ¿rro o lo? [clarification request] [raising his chin]
- 3 **S1:** Aburro. [said in low pitch] [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Mejor. [positive reinforcement] Me aburro. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 61

- 1 **S1:** He escrito [morphosyntax] una carta.
- 2 **T3:** He escri↑ (0.5) [elicitation] escri↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** He escrito [morphosyntax] la carta.
- 4 **T3:** ¿Es escrito? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** No sé. (0.3) Escrito. [lexical]
- 6 **T3:** Escrito [repetition]. Es escri↑ [elicitation]
- 7 **S2:** Escribiendo [morphosyntax] [other intervention]
- 8 **S1:** Es escrito. [self-repair]
- 9 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Es escrito. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 62

- 1 **S1:** Te aconsejo de [morphosyntax] ir al doctor.
- 2 **T3:** El verbo es diferente en español. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Te aconsejo ir. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'aconsejo + verbo en infinitivo' on the BB]

Extract 63

- 1 **S1:** Perdona, no entendo [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** No entendo [repetition]. Entender es irregular. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Entiendo. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'entiendo' on the BB]

Extract 64

- 1 **S1:** Porría [morphosyntax] ir el sábado a trabajo voluntario.
- 2 **T3:** Porría ↑ ir [repetition]. Poder es un verbo irregular. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Poderría [morphosyntax].
- 4 **T3:** Casi (0.3) casi bien. [metalinguistic feedback]

- 5 **S1:** Podría ir. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement] Di toda tu frase.
- 7 **S1:** [silence] (0.5) Podría ir el sábado a trabajo voluntario.

Extract 65

- 1 **S1:** No me gustó [morphosyntax] fregar los platos.
- 2 **T3:** No me gustó fregar los platos. [repetition] Me gustó. [repetition] ¿Te gustas? [elicitation] (1.5) Es diferente me gusta y me gustó. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Me gusta fregar los platos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 66

- 1 **S1:** Mi padre trabaja a [lexical] un banco.
- 2 **T3:** Trabaja a un banco. [repetition] A↑ es para movimiento a un lugar. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** En un banco. [self-repair] Mi padre trabaja en un banco.
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'ir a' and 'estar en' on the BB]

Extract 67

- 1 **S1:** Soy [lexical] 16 años.
- 2 **T3:** El verbo para la edad. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Tengo 16 años. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'tener años' on the BB]

Extract 68

- 1 **S1:** Nací el vintrés [lexical] de agosto.
- 2 **T3:** Vintres. [repetition] Vintres es un número en lengua marciana. [metalinguistic feedback] Fatou, debes estudiar más. [nagging comment]
- 3 **S2:** [whispering in a low voice 'veintitrés']

4 **S1:** [silence] (0.3) Veintitrés. [self-repair]

5 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 69

1 **T3:** ¿Quién ha hecho el ejercicio cinco?

2 **S1:** Yo no lo he hecho, señor.

3 **T3:** Serge.

4 **S2:** Yo también [lexical].

5 **T3:** También es para afirmación. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S2]

6 **S2:** [silence] (0.3) Tampoco. [self-repair]

7 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'también = afirmación', 'tampoco = negación' on the BB]

Extract 70

1 **S1:** Se [morphosyntax] hablo alemán.

2 **T3:** Se hablo alemán. [repetition]

3 **S1:** [silence] (0.5)

4 **T3:** Se es para la forma impersonal o pasiva. [metalinguistic feedback]

5 **S1:** [silence] (0.3)

6 **T3:** ¿Por qué (0.2) se? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

7 **S1:** Hablo alemán. [self-repair]

8 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Hablo alemán. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 71

1 **S1:** Estes [morphosyntax] libros son de aventuras.

2 **T3:** [making a wry face] Estes libros. [repetition]

3 **S1:** [silence] (1.0)

4 **T3:** Reflexiona si estes es un demostrativo. [metalinguistic feedback]

5 **S1:** ¿Estos libros? [self-repair]

6 **T3:** Sin dudar, *Martin* [Fr]. Estos libros. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 72

- 1 **S1**: Jugo [morphosyntax] al fútbol en *Almadies* [Fr].
- 2 **T3**: Jugo al fútbol. [repetition] Jugo es un sinónimo de zumo. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1**: Pues es juego al fútbol, señor. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3**: Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'juego' on the BB]

Extract 73

- 1 **S1**: Aburro [morphosyntax] mucho.
- 2 **T3**: Aburrirse es un verbo pronominal. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1**: ¿Me aburro? [self-repair]
- 4 **T3**: Me aburro mucho. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] [smile]

Extract 74

- 1 **S1**: No como mucho [morphosyntax] carne. Prefiero el pescado.
- 2 **T3**: Mucho carne. [repetition] [raising his chin] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1**: Muchas carnes. [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T3**: Sí, es femenino. [positive reinforcement] Carne es femenino pero no se puede contar. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **T3**: Bien. [positive reinforcement]
- 6 **S1**: No (0.5) no como mucha carne. [self-repair]
- 7 **T3**: Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 75

- 1 **S1**: Mi madre cocina peces [lexical] ricos.
- 2 **T3**: Peces es para seres vivos y pescado para comer. [metalinguistic feedback] [raising his chin] ¿Cómo se dice el animal acuático que se come? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1**: El pescado. Mi madre cocina pescados [morphosyntax].

- 4 **T3:** No pescados. (0.3) Pescados es singular. [explanation]
- 5 **S1:** Mi madre cocina pescado. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 76

- 1 **S1:** Duermo poco. ¿Y tú?
- 2 **S2:** Yo tampoco [morphosyntax].
- 3 **T3:** Yo tampoco. [repetition] [nodding no] Hay que recordar las diferencias de tampoco, también, yo sí y yo no. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 4 **S2:** Yo también. [self-repair]
- 5 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'yo tampoco' on the BB]

Extract 77

- 1 **S1:** Yo gusta [morphosyntax] la paella.
- 2 **T3:** [raising his eyebrows] Yo gusta. [repetition] Cuidado con la conjugación del verbo gustar. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Me gusta la paella. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Me gusta (0.2) o a mí me gusta. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 78

- 1 **S1:** Me gusta el arte de la [morphosyntax] España.
- 2 **T3:** En español he explicado sobre los artículos delante de los países. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** El arte de España. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] España, Francia. No llevan artículo en español excepto los Estados Unidos.

Extract 79

- 1 **S1:** Pablo es [lexical] veintisiete años.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Es 27 años? [clarification request] [lowering his chin] [gaze to S1]

- 3 **S1:** No, tiene veintisiete años. [self-repair] *Je me trompe* [Fr].
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Recordad siempre, es tener años. [writing 'tener x años' on the BB]

Extract 80

- 1 **S1:** Estudia a [lexical] colegio.
- 2 **T3:** Estudia↑[elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** En el colegio. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Estudia en el colegio. [positive reinforcement] En clase de español se piensa en español y no en francés. [nagging comment]

Extract 81

- 1 **S1:** Mi hermano mayor (0.3) tiene vintinueve [lexical] años.
- 2 **T3:** [raising his chin] ¿Vintinueve? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Tiene veintinueve años. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 82

- 1 **S1:** Mi padre es periodista [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** ¿Jornalista es alguien que trabaja en un periódico? [clarification request] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** No. Es periodista. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Periodista. [writing 'periodista' on the BB] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 83

- 1 **S1:** Juego [lexical] la guitarra.
- 2 **T3:** [winking his nose] Juego la guitarra ¿Es un deporte? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.8)
- 4 **T3:** To↑ [elicitation]

- 5 **S1:** Creo que (0.7) toco la guitarra.
- 6 **T3:** No jugar un instrumento sino tocar. Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'tocar un instrumento' 'tocar...', 'la guitarra' and 'el piano' on the BB]

Extract 84

- 1 **S1:** Habito [lexical] en Dakar.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Es habito en Dakar? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Vivo en Dakar. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Habito es inventado. Usa las palabras que sabes. [nagging comment]

Extract 85

- 1 **S1:** Vivimos a [lexical] Dakar.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Vivimos Dakar? [clarification request] [nodding no]
- 3 **S1:** En Dakar. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'vivir en' on the BB]

Extract 86

- 1 **S1:** Los platos precuisinados [lexical] no me gustan.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Qué te parece más español precuisinados o precocinados? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Precocinados. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'precocinado' on the BB]

Extract 87

- 1 **S1:** Este agua ole [morphosyntax] mal.
- 2 **T3:** [raising his eyebrows] ¿Qué es ole? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** *Sentir* [Fr].
- 4 **T3:** El verbo es oler pero es irregular. (0.3) Huele [explanation] [writing 'oler', 'huelo', 'huelas', 'huele', 'olemos', 'oleis' and 'huelen' on the BB]

Extract 88

- 1 **S1:** Alice, quiero novelas [lexical] tuyas de tus vacaciones.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Novelas de libros como las de Cervantes? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Las historias de mi amiga.
- 4 **T3:** Entonces se llama no↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Las noticias como del telediario. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 89

- 1 **S1:** Parto [lexical] a casa después de la clase.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Parto es una forma en español? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Me marchó. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Me marchó. [positive reinforcement] Sí. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 90

- 1 **S1:** Bebo suco [lexical] zumo de naranja [lexical] cada mañana.
- 2 **T3:** Suco y naranja. (0.8) ¿Son correctos? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Es zumo de naranja. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 91

- 1 **S1:** Me picó (0.3) una abella [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Abella no es español. Se dice abeja. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** Abeja. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Una abeja te picó. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'la abeja' on the BB]

Extract 92

- 1 **S1:** Me hice una herida cuando cortia [morphosyntax] pan.

- 2 **T3:** ¿Cortía es el imperfecto de cortar? [clarification request] Piensa un poco. [nagging comment]
- 3 **S1:** Cortaba. [self-repair] (0.3) Me hice una herida cuando cortaba pan.
- 4 **T3:** Cortaba, bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 93

- 1 **S1:** Me sentía [morphosyntax] contento de ver mis padres otra vez.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Fall, me sentía es el tiempo correcto del imperfecto de sentir? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Puede que no. ¿Sentía es? [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí, sentía. Haz toda la frase. [positive reinforcement]
- 5 **S1:** Me sentía contento de ver mis padres otra vez.

Extract 94

- 1 **S1:** ¿Cómo sabisteis [morphosyntax] mi accidente?
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] (0.5) Supisteis [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** ¿Cómo supisteis mi accidente? [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 95

- 1 **S1:** Quiriera [morphosyntax] menos ejercicios
- 2 **T3:** ¿Quiriera o quisiera? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (1.0) Quisiera. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

T3 Year 10/3^e**Extract 1**

- 1 **S1:** Después [morphosyntax] limpie bien.
- 2 **T3:** Después (0.3) de↑ [elicitation]

3 **S1:** Limpiar bien. [self-repair]

Extract 2

- 1 **S1:** Ella me dijo que se despierte [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** Se. (0.3) ¿Por qué se? [elicitation] *Shuuh* [Fr]. [to other two students talking in the classroom] [disruption of undisciplined S].
- 3 **S1:** Porque está ella despierte. [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T3:** ¿Por qué, Alisha? Explícate. Tu primera idea. [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Porque ella dijo que *je me réveille* [L1]. [content]
- 6 **T3:** ¿Quién debe despertar y hacer la acción? [metalinguistic feedback] / [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Ella. [content] Yo.
- 8 **T3:** Cuidado y reflexionemos [nagging comment]. Bien. ¿Quién debe hacer la acción? [metalinguistic feedback]/[elicitation]
- 9 **S1:** Me, me, me dijo. Yo (0.7) debo de [morphosyntax] despertar.
- 10 **T3:** ¿A quién? Entonces la persona que hace la acción y se despierta son diferentes. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 11 **S2:** Ella me dijo que la despierte, [self-repair] que la despierte a las cinco.
- 12 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 3

- 1 **S1:** El piloto es apl/o/dido [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** ¿Quién es apl/o/dido? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Es aplaudido. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] El piloto es aplaudido. [writing 'aplaudido' on the BB] [positive reinforcement]

Extract 4

- 1 **S1:** El piloto es aplaudido para [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Por es en español con la forma pasiva. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** Es aplaudido por los pasajeros. [self-repair]

- 4 **T3:** Entonces para expresar la voz pasiva así es cómo se hace. Para introducir el complemento agente por. [positive reinforcement] (0.9)
Entonces↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** El piloto fue↑
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]
- 7 **S1:** El piloto fue aplaudido por los pasajeros. [self-repair]

Extract 5

- 1 **S1:** Eso fue un viaje un voyage [L1] muy difícil.
- 2 **T3:** Eso fue un vi↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Eso fue un viaje muy difícil. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'viaje' on the BB]

Extract 6

- 1 **S1:** E/gz/ercicio [phonology].
- 2 **T3:** E-jer-ci-cio. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Ejercicio. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Ejercicio. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 7

- 1 **S1:** En la pa/gi↑/na [phonology] seis.
- 2 **T3:** Página. [recast]
- 3 **S1:** Sí, el número seis. [recognition]

Extract 8

- 1 **S1:** Mi pe/r/o [phonology] [phonology] era muy grande.
- 2 **T3:** Reflexiona sobre cómo pronuncias las erres. [explanation]
- 3 **S1:** El perro. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 9

- 1 **S1:** Yo no tienes [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** Primera persona. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Yo no tengo [self-repair] dineros [morphosyntax] para comprar [lexical] una intervención quirúrgica.
- 4 **T3:** Para comprar↑ (0.2) [repetition]
- 5 **S1:** Para pagar. [self-repair] (0.3) Yo no tengo dineros [morphosyntax] para pagar intervención.
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 10

- 1 **S1:** Ojalá nos volvemos [morphosyntax] a ver pronto.
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Hay algo que falla en la frase. En el verbo. [metalinguistic feedback] [smile]
- 3 **S1:** Nos volvamos a ver. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** [nodding yes] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] Nos volvamos a ver. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 11

- 1 **S1:** Yo escribiendo [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** La forma verbal no está bien. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Yo soy (0.3) [morphosyntax] estoy escribiendo. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Es (0.3) ¿Soy o estoy escribiendo? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Estoy escribiendo. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Es estar escribiendo. [positive reinforcement] Sí. [positive reinforcement] Estoy escribiendo. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 12

- 1 **S1:** Es importante que muestra [morphosyntax] una opinión.

- 2 **T3:** Esta es la expresión de una opinión aquí se pone un subjuntivo. [metalinguistic feedback] (0.8) Entonces↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Muestre. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Tienes que reflexionar un poco para aprender. [nagging comment]

Extract 13

- 1 **S1:** El viaje fue muy malo porque [morphosyntax] un mucho la cabeza.
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Repite esta frase [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** El viaje fue muy malo porque.
- 4 **T3:** Porque↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** La cabeza no muy bien. [morphosyntax]
- 6 **T3:** Porque↑[elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** El viaje fue muy malo porque tiene que pasar. [morphosyntax]
- 8 **T3:** Porque tiene↑ [elicitation]
- 9 **S1:** Le duele la cabeza. [self-repair]
- 10 **T3:** Pero es una acción pasada. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 11 **S1:** Le dolía la cabeza. [self-repair]
- 12 **T3:** Le dolía [positive reinforcement]. Le dolía la cabeza. [positive reinforcement] A Michel, le dolía la cabeza. [positive reinforcement] Sí, bien. [positive reinforcement].

Extract 14

- 1 **S1:** El coche había (0.3) había [morphosyntax] una [morphosyntax] problema.
- 2 **T3:** Es porque tuvo↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S2:** Porque tuvo un. [other intervention]
- 4 **T3:** [nodding no] Tú no estudias. [nagging comment]
- 5 **S1:** El viaje fue muy malo porque el coche tuvo una (0.8) *eah* [Fr] una avería. El viaje fue muy malo porque el coche tuvo una avería en la caja de cambios. [self-repair]

- 6 **T3:** El viaje fue muy malo porque hubo una avería en la caja de cambios o bien vamos a decir porque el coche tuvo una avería. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 15

- 1 **S1:** Los viajeros [morphosyntax].
 2 **T3:** Los viajeros. [repetition] [moving finger for repetition]
 3 **S1:** Los viajeros. (0.2) [self-repair] viajeros estaban con un humor de perros
 4 **T3:** El verbo no es del todo correcto. [metalinguistic feedback]
 5 **S1:** Los viajeros tenían un humor de perros. [self-repair]
 6 **T3:** [nodding yes] Bien. [positive reinforcement] Es tener un humor de perros. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 16

- 1 **S1:** Estaban desus [lexical].
 2 **T3:** ¿Cómo se dice "déçu" [Fr]? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** Estaban desados [lexical].
 4 **T3:** [nodding no] Desados. [repetition] [frowning face]
 5 **S1:** Estaban *malheureux* [Fr] [L1] malareosos [lexical].
 6 **T3:** Estaban decep↑ [elicitation]
 7 **S2:** Estaban decepcionados. [peer-repair]
 8 **T3:** Decepcionados. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] ¿Puedes corregirte y continuar, Awa? [elicitation]
 9 **S1:** Estaban decepcionados y cansados al final del viaje porque fue muy malo. [self-repair]
 10 **T3:** [nodding yes] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 17

- 1 **S1:** Entonces no tuvieron el viaje que quieren [morphology].
 2 **T3:** ¿Quieron? [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** Que querían [self-repair] que quieran [morphosyntax].

- 4 **T3:** No tuvieron el viaje que↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** El viaje que quiera [morphosyntax].
- 6 **S2:** Que querían. [peer-repair]
- 7 **S3:** Quieran [morphosyntax].
- 8 **T3:** No hablemos todos a la vez [nagging comment]. Shuh! (0.3) Sí, querían. [positive reinforcement] Vamos a poner el imperfecto. [positive reinforcement]
- 9 **S1:** No tuvieron el viaje que querían tener. [self-repair]
- 10 **T3:** No tuvieron el viaje que querían tener. [positive reinforcement] Vamos a poner no tuvieron el viaje [writing 'No tuvieron el viaje' on the BB]. Pero vamos a poner una sola palabra. ¿Cuál? [elicitation]
- 11 **S4:** Señor.
- 12 **T3:** Sí.
- 13 **S1:** No tuvieron el viaje que piensa [morphosyntax].
- 14 **T3:** Un adjetivo para viaje. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 15 **S3:** No tuvieron el viaje soñado. [self-repair]
- 16 **T3:** Sí, soñado. [positive reinforcement] No tuvieron el viaje soñado. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'soñado' on the BB]

Extract 18

- 1 **S1:** Le agradezco [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** Le agradezco. [recast] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Le agradezco [self-repair] que le haya [morphosyntax] (0.3) vaya a resolver el problema.
- 4 **T3:** ¿Haya o vaya? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** Le agradezco que le [morphosyntax] vaya a resolver el problema.
- 6 **T3:** Tienes dos pronombres le. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 7 **S1:** Le agradezco que vaya a resolver el problema. [self-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Le agradezco que vaya a resolver el problema. [positive reinforcement] O agradezco que le vaya a resolver el problema. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Le agradezco que vaya a resolver el problema.' and 'Agradezco que le vaya a resolver el problema' on the BB]

Extract 19

- 1 **S1:** Se ha molestido [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** ¿Molestido? [clarification request] [lowering his chin]
- 3 **S1:** Se ha molestado con mis palabras. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Piensa antes de hablar. [nagging comment] Se ha molestado. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 20

- 1 **S1:** No perdono que no hayas venido [morphosyntax] a visitarnos.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Es correcto? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Has venido [morphosyntax].
- 4 **T3:** [nodding no] Venudo. [repetition] El participio de venir. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Venado [morphosyntax].
- 6 **T3:** Tú no estudias. [nagging comment]
- 7 **S3:** No perdonamos que no hayas venido a visitarnos. [peer-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Que no hayas venido a visitarnos. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] Alice, repite la frase completa. [elicitation].
- 9 **S1:** No te perdonamos que no hayas venido a visitarnos. [self-repair]
- 10 **T3:** [nodding yes] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 21

- 1 **S1:** No es posible que lluevas [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** Piensa sobre el verbo llover. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Que lluevas [morphosyntax].
- 4 **T3:** Es un verbo impersonal. [metalinguistic feedback].
- 5 **S1:** Llova [morphosyntax].
- 6 **T3:** Llu↑ [elicitation] Es↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 7 **S1:** No es posible que llueva esta tarde. [self-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]
- 9 **S1:** A nosotros nos duele la cabeza. [morphosyntax]

- 10 **T3:** Pero estamos en el pasado. [metalinguistic feedback]
 11 **S1:** A nosotros (0.2) nos dolía la cabeza. [self-repair]
 12 **T3:** A nosotros nos dolía la cabeza. [positive reinforcement]. Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 22

- 1 **S1:** Estoy mucho de [morphosyntax] tiempo enfadada con mi madre.
 2 **T3:** Traduces directamente del francés. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Estoy mucho tiempo enfadada. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Estoy mucho tiempo enfadada con mi madre. [positive reinforcement]
 Correcto. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 23

- 1 **S1:** Disfrutamos [morphosyntax] el tiempo libre.
 2 **T3:** Falta una preposición. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Disfrutar de [self-repair]. Disfrutamos del tiempo libre.
 4 **T3:** [writing 'disfrutar de' on the BB] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 24

- 1 **S1:** Muchos senegaleses piensan que emigrar a España es bueno (0.7) porque hay más trabajo en Europeo [lexical].
 2 **T3:** Europeo no es el continente. [metalinguistic feedback] [lowering his chin]
 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.3)
 4 **T3:** Es↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 5 **S1:** En Europa. [self-repair]
 6 **T3:** Europa. [positive reinforcement] [nodding yes] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 25

- 1 **S1:** Para ser buen estudiante de idiomas hay [morphosyntax] leer muchos libros en lenguas extranjeras.
- 2 **T3:** Después de hay↑ ponemos↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Que. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'hay que' on the BB]

Extract 26

- 1 **S1:** Mi padre es *peintre* [Fr] [L1] (0.2) peintro [lexical] abstracto.
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Mi padre es↑ [elicitation] (0.5) Peintro↑ es inventado. [metalinguistic feedback] Hemos estudiado esta profesión el año pasado. [nagging comment] Fall, ¿puedes corregir con la palabra correcta? [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Pintor. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Es pintor. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]. ¿Puedes corregir tu frase entera? [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Mi padre es pintor abstracto.

Extract 27

- 1 **S1:** Es duro de [morphosyntax] aprender español. Los verbos son difíciles.
- 2 **T3:** No traduzcas del francés "c'est dur de" [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback] [nagging comment]
- 3 **S1:** Es duro aprender. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Correcto. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 28

- 1 **S1:** Visito la [morphosyntax] Francia cada verano con mis padres y hermanos.
- 2 **T3:** ¿La Francia? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Visito Francia. [self-repair]

- 4 **T3:** Visito Francia, Inglaterra, España. Bien. [positive reinforcement] Es un típico error que tenemos las personas que hablamos francés.

Extract 29

- 1 **S1:** He estado dos vez [morphosyntax] en España en las islas Canarias.
 2 **T3:** Dos↑ ve↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** Veces. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** ¡Cuidado con el número! [nagging comment] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 30

- 1 **S1:** Me gusto [morphosyntax] la paella y el chorizo.
 2 **T3:** [nodding no] ¿Te quieres mucho? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** Gusta [morphosyntax].
 4 **T3:** ¿Cuántas cosas? [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** Me gustan [self-repair] la paella y el chorizo.
 6 **T3:** Me gustan muchas cosas. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 31

- 1 **S1:** Mi hermana y yo cuisinamos [lexical] en casa el domingo.
 2 **T3:** El verbo es cocinar. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Cocinamos. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 32

- 1 **S1:** Hablo un poco [morphosyntax] alemán y italiano.
 2 **T3:** Es un poco↑ [elicitation]
 3 **S1:** Un poco de alemán. [self-repair]

- 4 **T3:** Está muy bien [positive reinforcement] pero hay otra cosa no correcta.
[metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Es es italiano. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'es italiano' and 'un poco de' on the BB] [positive reinforcement]

Extract 33

- 1 **S1:** No me gusta [morphosyntax] los aviones.
- 2 **T3:** Tenemos los aviones [metalinguistic feedback]. Es↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Me gustan los aviones. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 34

- 1 **S1:** Antes apenas salgamos [morphosyntax] de casa.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Qué tiempo y modo? Estamos en el imperfecto de indicativo.
[metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** *Imparfait* [Fr].
- 4 **T3:** Imperfecto. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** [silence] (0.3)
- 6 **T3:** Entonces (0.2) antes apenas↑ [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Antes apenas salíamos. [self-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Sí↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 9 **S1:** Antes apenas salíamos de casa.
- 10 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 35

- 1 **S1:** Fuimos preocupados. [morphosyntax] Somos preocupados.
[morphosyntax]
- 2 **T3:** ¿Fuimos o somos? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Somos preocupados. [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T3:** Es↑ [elicitation]

- 5 **S1:** Estamos preocupados. [morphosyntax]
- 6 **T3:** Estamos hablando en pasado. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 7 **S1:** Estábamos preocupados. [self-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'estar preocupado' on the BB]

Extract 36

- 1 **S1:** Yo man/s/o [lexical] pescado los viernes.
- 2 **T3:** Corrígete. [elicitation] Es un verbo que hemos estudiado. [nagging comment]
- 3 **S1:** No sé.
- 4 **T3:** Tú no estudias. [nagging comment] El verbo es básico. (0.3) Es com↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Comer.
- 6 **T1:** Sí, comer. Entonces es↑ [elicitation]
- 7 **S1:** Como pescado. [self-repair]
- 8 **T3:** Como. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 37

- 1 **S1:** ¿Dormes [morphosyntax] un poco?
- 2 **T3:** La conjugación de dormir. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Duermes. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Correcto. [positive reinforcement] Duermes. [positive reinforcement] Debes estudiar más. [nagging comment] No escuchas en clase. [nagging comment]

Extract 38

- 1 **S1:** Busca un *cadeau* [Fr] [L1] ideal para su novia.
- 2 **T3:** Busca un re↑ [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** No sé la palabra en español, señor.
- 4 **T3:** ¿Alguien puede ayudar a corregir? [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Regalo. [self-repair]

6 **T3:** Regalo. [positive reinforcement]. Bien. [positive reinforcement].

Extract 39

1 **S1:** Ayer tuve un día muy ajereado [lexical].

2 **T3:** ¿Muy ajereado? [clarification request]

3 **S1:** [silence] (0.4)

4 **T3:** Aje↑ (0.2) [elicitation]

5 **S1:** Ajetreado. [self-repair]

6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 40

1 **S1:** Cuando te /a/nteras [phonology].

2 **T3:** Cuando te enteras. [recast]

3 **S1:** Cuando te enteras [self-repair] de esta noticia, estamos tristes.

Extract 41

1 **S1:** Me riendo cuenta [lexical] de que aprender vocabulario es útil para hablar mejor.

2 **T3:** ¿Me doy cuenta o me riendo cuenta? [elicitation]

3 **S1:** Me doy cuenta. [self-repair]

4 **T3:** Está bien experimentar. Pero la traducción es darse cuenta de. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'darse cuenta de' on the BB]

Extract 42

1 **S1:** Intento de [morphosyntax] hacer ejercicios de química sin fórmulas pero es difícil.

2 **T3:** Hay una preposición no necesaria. No necesaria. [metalinguistic feedback]

3 **S1:** Intento hacer ejercicios de química sin fórmulas pero es difícil. [self-repair]

- 4 **T3:** Intentar hacer. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'intentar hacer' on the BB]

Extract 43

- 1 **S1:** Me gusto [morphosyntax] viajar en avión porque es cómodo.
 2 **T3:** Me gusto significa me quiero mucho. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Me gusta. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Ahora está bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 44

- 1 **S1:** Costa de Marfil está al [lexical] sur de Nigeria.
 2 **T3:** Traduces del francés. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** En el sur. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** [writing 'en el sur' on the BB] En el sur, en el norte, en el este, en el oeste [drawing the cardinal points on the BB] [positive reinforcement]

Extract 45

- 1 **S1:** Los [morphosyntax] compro unos regalos a los niños de Saint Louis.
 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Los es para objetos. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Les[↑] compro unos regalos a los niños de Saint Louis. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Les compro. A ellos. [positive reinforcement] Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 46

- 1 **S1:** Leo el jornal [lexical] cada día.
 2 **T3:** Jornal tiene un significado diferente en español y hemos estudiado esta palabra. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.2)
 4 **T3:** Es per[↑] [elicitation]
 5 **S1:** Periódico. [self-repair]

- 6 **T3:** Periódico. [positive reinforcement] Tenemos que revisar el vocabulario siempre. [nagging comment]

Extract 47

- 1 **S1:** Estoy mucho de [morphosyntax] tiempo en mi casa estudiando.
 2 **T3:** No pienses en francés con *beaucoup de* [Fr]. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Estoy mucho tiempo en mi casa estudiando. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Mucho tiempo. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 48

- 1 **S1:** Yo no soporta [morphosyntax] ese tipo de comedia.
 2 **T3:** ¿Soporta? [clarification request])(1.8) Yo no sopor↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
 3 **S1:** Yo no soporto. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 49

- 1 **S1:** ¿Cuál es el film [lexical] que has ido a ver?
 2 **T3:** Film es inglés. Un anglicismo. [metalinguistic feedback] ¿Cómo es en español? [elicitation] Se puede poner una vocal a tu palabra. [metalinguistic feedback]
 3 **S1:** Filme. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Es correcto filme. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 50

- 1 **S1:** Me molesta [morphosyntax] estas noticias.
 2 **T3:** ¿Me molesta o me molestan? [elicitation]
 3 **S1:** Me molestan. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Me molestan las noticias. [writing 'me molesta una cosa' and 'me molestan unas cosas' on the BB]

Extract 51

- 1 **S1:** ¿Qué [morphosyntax] año acabó la revolución francesa?
- 2 **T3:** Te falta una preposición en la pregunta. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** ¿Cuándo acabó la revolución francesa? [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Está bien pero querría que corrigieras con que. Otra opción sería en qué año acabó la revolución francesa. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 52

- 1 **S1:** Es un [lexical] único país de África sin guerra y conflictos.
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Hay algo que no está bien. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Senegal es el único país de África sin guerra y conflictos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 53

- 1 **S1:** Preferimos [morphosyntax] ir a Francia porque hay seguridad.
- 2 **T3:** [wrinkling his nose] Prefe↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Preferimos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 54

- 1 **S1:** Me intereso [morphosyntax] los museos de anticuidad [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Me intereso los [nodding no] museos. [repetition] [gaze to S1] [smile]
- 3 **S1:** Me interesan. [self-repair] Me interesan los museos.
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Pero hay otra palabra que no es española. [writing 'anticuidad' on the BB] [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Señor no sé.
- 6 **T3:** Hay un adjetivo que hemos estudiado. Se parece a tu palabra [metalinguistic feedback]
- 7 **S1:** Antiguo.
- 8 **T3:** Sí. Es un poco difícil pero vamos a corregir.

- 9 **S1:** Antigüedad [lexical].
- 10 **T3:** Similar pero debes poner una e↑ [metalinguistic feedback]
- 11 **S1:** ¿Antigüedad? [self-repair]
- 12 **T3:** Antigüedad (0.2) muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 55

- 1 **S1:** Quiero visitar a [morphosyntax] Latinoamérica.
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Latinoamérica no es una persona. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Quiero visitar Latinoamérica. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** [nodding yes] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 56

- 1 **S1:** Ayer hizo muy [lexical] frío.
- 2 **T3:** [frowning face] Muy es un adverbio. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Hizo mucho frío. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí, bien. [positive reinforcement] (0.3) Mucho frío. Mucho frío. [writing 'mucho frío' on the BB]

Extract 57

- 1 **S1:** Es más dangerouso [lexical] usar la bicicleta con tráfico.
- 2 **T3:** Dangerouso es francés. Peligroso es lo más correcto [explanation].
- 3 **S1:** Sí, señor. Es más peligroso [self-repair] usar la bicicleta con tráfico. Hay muchos coches.
- 4 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 58

- 1 **S1:** Antes [morphosyntax] dormir estudio vocabulario.
- 2 **T3:** Bueno, Antoine. [raising his chin] Se dice antes dormir o antes de dormir? [clarification request]

- 3 **S1:** Antes de dormir.
- 4 **T3:** [nodding yes] Bien. [positive reinforcement] Antes de dormir [positive reinforcement]. En español es diferente del francés. (0.3) ¿Puedes decir toda tu frase otra vez con antes?
- 5 **S1:** Sí, señor. Antes de dormir estudio vocabulario.
- 6 **T3:** Perfecto. [positive reinforcement] Antes de. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'antes de dormir' on the BB]

Extract 59

- 1 **S1:** No le [morphosyntax] soporto este tipo de película.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Por qué (0.3) no le soporto? ¿Hablas de una persona? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** No↑ una persona. Las películas de amor, señor. (0.3) Es ¿No soporto este tipo de película? [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Ahora, está bien. [positive reinforcement] No soporto este tipo de película.

Extract 60

- 1 **S1:** Me encanta [morphosyntax] las películas de aventuras.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Me encanta? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Me encantan las películas de aventuras. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Me encantan las películas. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'me encantan las películas' and 'me encanta esta película' on the BB]

Extract 61

- 1 **S1:** ¿Qué hay que hacer para aprender muchos vocabularios [morphosyntax]?
- 2 **T3:** [frowning face] Vocabulario no se puede contar como en francés. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.2) ¿Qué hay que hacer para aprender mucho vocabulario? [self-repair]

4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 62

- 1 **S1:** Mi ordenador [lexical] no funciona, señor.
- 2 **T3:** Mi ordenador. [repetition] [gaze to S1] [smile] Di la palabra correcta en español, no entiendo. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Sí. Mi ordenador no funciona. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 63

- 1 **S1:** Atendimos [lexical] el barco para ir a la isla pequeña.
- 2 **T3:** Atendimos es un falso amigo. [metalinguistic feedback] ¿Cómo se dice en español? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Esperamos. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien, es esperamos del verbo esperar. [positive reinforcement] Atender es otra palabra en español.

Extract 64

- 1 **S1:** Le ha chopado [lexical] el bolígrafo.
- 2 **T3:** Le ha chopado. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** ¿Cómo se dice señor? (0.2) Sí, quitado. [self-repair] Le ha quitado el bolígrafo.
- 4 **T3:** Le ha quitado es correcto. [positive reinforcement] Pero mejor robado. O mangado más familiar, coloquial.

Extract 65

- 1 **S1:** Espero en la plataforma [lexical] del puerto.
- 2 **T3:** Espero en la pla↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** ¿Plataforma, platifforma [lexical]?
- 4 **T3:** Una palabra es correcta. [metalinguistic feedback]

- 5 **S1:** Plataforma. [lexical]
 6 **T3:** [nodding no] Entonces es plata↑ [elicitation]
 7 **S1:** Plataforma. [self-repair]
 8 **T3:** Plataforma. [positive reinforcement] Correcto. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 66

- 1 **S1:** Me dolía la orella [lexical] y fui al médico ayer.
 2 **T3:** Me dolia la↑ (0.5) ore↑ [elicitation]
 3 **S1:** Ja. [self-repair] La oreja.
 4 **T3:** Oreja. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'oreja' on the BB]

Extract 67

- 1 **S1:** Dibujamos retratos [lexical] en clase de dibujo.
 2 **T3:** [wrinkling his nose] Retratos. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** Dibujos de personas.
 4 **T3:** Dibujáis retratos en clase de dibujo. [recast]
 5 **S1:** Sí, retrato. (0.3) Dibujamos retratos. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 68

- 1 **S1:** El profesor de historia ha suspendido [morphosyntax] cinco estudiantes.
 2 **T3:** ¿Ha suspendido cinco estudiantes ↑ (0.3) o a cinco estudiantes?
 [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** A cinco estudiantes. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** [nodding yes] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 69

- 1 **S1:** Vivirás en verano a [lexical] Salamanca.
 2 **T3:** Vivirás en verano↑[elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 3 **S1:** En Salamanca. [self-repair]

- 4 **T3:** En Salamanca. [positive reinforcement] A Salamanca es un fallo de principiante. En Salamanca. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 70

- 1 **S1:** Necesitamos harina [lexical].
 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Harina. [repetition]
 3 **S1:** Harina. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Es harina en español. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 71

- 1 **S1:** En saliendo [morphosyntax] de casa, encontré Cherouna.
 2 **T3:** En saliendo de casa. [repetition] [nodding no] Bueno.
 3 **S1:** Saliendo de casa. [self-repair]
 4 **T3:** Ahora bien. [positive reinforcement] Saliendo de casa o al salir de casa. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 72

- 1 **S1:** Hay [lexical] *advantages* [Fr] [L1] *ventajas* [lexical] con la energía solar.
 2 **T3:** ¿Avantajes? [clarification request]
 3 **S1:** No sé la palabra, señor.
 4 **T3:** No lo hemos estudiado pero tienes un diccionario para buscar palabras. [nagging comment] (0.5) Te digo el comienzo de la palabra. (0.8) Vent↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
 5 **S1:** Ventajas [lexical].
 6 **T3:** [nodding no]
 7 **S2:** Yo, señor. [raising hand] Ventajos [lexical].
 8 **T3:** Es femenino. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
 9 **S1:** Ventajas. [self-repair]
 10 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement] (1.0) Repite tu frase.
 11 **S1:** Hay ventajas con la energía solar.

12 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [smile]

Extract 73

- 1 **S1:** He visitado el nuevo nacido [lexical] de mi prima.
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] ¿Qué es nuevo nacido, Abdou? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Un bebé que tiene pocos días, señor.
- 4 **T3:** Esto se llama recién nacido en español. [explanation]

Extract 74

- 1 **S1:** Montamos [lexical] ahora el autobús.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Montar? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Ir en autobús, subir al autobús. [self-repair].
- 4 **T3:** [nodding yes] Subir al autobús está bien. [positive reinforcement]
- 5 **S1:** Subimos ahora al autobús.
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Montar es para caballo. Como montar a caballo. [writing 'montar a caballo' and 'subir al autobús' on the BB]

Extract 75

- 1 **S1:** Es mal elevado [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Mal elevado es una traducción literal. La palabra es con educado. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.8) Mal↑ educado. [partial-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Es maleducado junto. Pero bien. [explanation] [writing 'maleducado' on the BB]

Extract 76

- 1 **S1:** Si es [lexical] abierto el museo, iré mañana.
- 2 **T3:** Es abierto. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Está abierto. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 77

- 1 **S1:** Contamos sobre [lexical] tu presencia.
- 2 **T3:** Contamos↑[gaze to S1] con↑[elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Contamos con tu presencia. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 78

- 1 **S1:** ¿Qué [lexical] de los dos quieres?
- 2 **T3:** ¿Qué de los dos quieres? [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** ¿Cuál? [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement] Corrige tu frase.
- 5 **S1:** ¿Cuál de los dos quieres?
- 6 **T3:** [nodding yes] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 79

- 1 **S1:** Trabaja como chico del café [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Trabaja como cama↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Camarero. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí. Camarero y camarera. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 80

- 1 **S1:** No te preocupies [morphosyntax].
- 2 **T3:** No te preocu↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Te preocupes. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Preocupes. Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 81

- 1 **S1:** Mis amigos de Francia son arribados [morphosyntax] [lexical] hoy.
- 2 **T3:** El verbo es llegar [metalinguistic feedback] y necesitas↑[gaze to S1]

- 3 **S1:** Mis amigos de Francia han llegado hoy. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Han llegado, sí. [positive reinforcement] Arribar existe pero es para barcos.

Extract 82

- 1 **S1:** Soy [lexical] muy cansado.
- 2 **T3:** [gaze to S1] Antes de muy cansado↑[writing '_____ muy cansado' on the BB] [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Estoy muy cansado. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 83

- 1 **S1:** Vamos a salir [lexical] de la clase.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Sortir o salir? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Salir. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí, salir. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 84

- 1 **S1:** Somos [lexical] en una nueva era.
- 2 **T3:** Somos en una nueva era. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Estamos en una nueva era. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Sí, estamos en una nueva era. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 85

- 1 **S1:** Hago [lexical] un paseo por la avenida.
- 2 **T3:** Hago un paseo. ¿Lo construyes? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** [silent response] (0.3)
- 4 **T3:** Necesitas el verbo dar con paseo. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Doy un paseo por la avenida. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 86

- 1 **S1:** Me amuso [lexical] mucho con mis amigos.
- 2 **T3:** ¿Me amuso mucho? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Me diversiono [lexical] mucho. *Euh* [Fr]. [silence] (0.3)
- 4 **T3:** Este verbo es básico. Me divi↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Divierto. Me divierto. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** [nodding yes] Me divierto. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 87

- 1 **S1:** Quiero devenir [lexical] abogado del estado.
- 2 **T3:** [gaze to S1] ¿Devenir o ser? [clarification request]
- 3 **S1:** Entonces ser abogado. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** ¿Puedes repetir toda la frase? [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Quiero ser abogado del estado.
- 6 **T3:** Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 88

- 1 **S1:** La motocicleta amarilla es a [lexical] mi hermano.
- 2 **T3:** Traduces del francés con es a ↑ y necesitas otra preposición. [metalinguistic feedback] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** ¿Es para [lexical] mi hermano?
- 4 **T3:** [nodding no] Otra preposición. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Es de mi hermano. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Sí. Es de mi hermano. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 89

- 1 **S1:** Le dolía [morphosyntax] las rodillas.
- 2 **T3:** Rodillas está en plural. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** Le dolían las rodillas. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 90

- 1 **S1:** Defenîdría [morphosyntax] mi país si hay [morphosyntax] guerra.
- 2 **T3:** Corrige los tiempos. [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Defendería mi país (1.8) si hubiera guerra. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 91

- 1 **S1:** Está pidiendo [morphosyntax] muchas cosas.
- 2 **T3:** [gaze to S1] Estáî [elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Pidiendo. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Es un verbo irregular. Pidiendo. Bien [positive reinforcement]

Extract 92

- 1 **S1:** Parecistes [morphosyntax] muy cansada en el partido.
- 2 **T3:** Parecisî [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Pareciste. Pareciste muy cansada. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Mucho mejor. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 93

- 1 **S1:** La lluvia influó [morphosyntax] en nuestra decisión de andar por la montaña.
- 2 **T3:** La lluvia no influî [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** No. Influyó en nuestra decisión. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 94

- 1 **S1:** Él dijiera [morphosyntax] la verdad pero nadie le creyó.
- 2 **T3:** Él diî [elicitation]

- 3 **S1:** Dijera. [morphosyntax]
- 4 **T3:** [gaze to S1] Necesitas el pasado. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Ah. (0.5) Dijo. Él dijo la verdad pero nadie le creyó. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Sí, dijo. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 95

- 1 **S1:** Porrán [morphosyntax] visitar el museo otra vez.
- 2 **T3:** Pod↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Sí. Podrán visitar el museo otra vez. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Muy bien, Cathy. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 96

- 1 **S1:** Traímos [morphosyntax] los diccionarios hoy.
- 2 **T3:** [nodding no] Tra↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.7) Trajimos los diccionarios. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Traer es un verbo básico. Bien [positive reinforcement]

Extract 97

- 1 **S1:** Me alegro de que os sentáis [morphosyntax] bien.
- 2 **T3:** [gaze to S1] Os sentáis. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** Si (0.3) Sintáis. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 98

- 1 **S1:** Nos hubiera gustado que pedieses [morphosyntax] disculpas a Robert por las palabras feas.
- 2 **T3:** Nos hubiera gustado que. [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Pidieses [self-repair] disculpas. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Perfecto, Richard. [positive reinforcement] Has estudiado.

Extract 99

- 1 **S1:** Móvete, [morphosyntax] por favor.
- 2 **T3:** Para de molestar las niñas, Abdou. [disruption by undisciplined S]
Muévete. [recast]

Extract 100

- 1 **S1:** Cuanto más protestarás [morphosyntax] menos te escucharán.
- 2 **T3:** Cuanto más protes↑ [elicitation] [moving finger for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** Protestes menos te escucharán. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Hay que estudiar las reglas del subjuntivo y usarlas. [nagging comment] [gaze to S1]

Extract 101

- 1 **S1:** No recordaba [morphosyntax] la cara de esa persona.
- 2 **T3:** No recordaba↑ [repetition] [hand gesture for elicitation]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.3) No recordaba. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** No recordaba. [positive reinforcement] Hay que estudiar los verbos de la lista obligatoria. [nagging comment]

Extract 102

- 1 **S1:** Es una persona racisto [morphosyntax] (0.3) *raciste* [Fr][L1].
- 2 **T3:** [gaze to S1] En español se dice racista en masculino y femenino. Persona racista, niño racista. [explanation]

Extract 103

- 1 **S1:** Molestan [morphosyntax] las luces.
- 2 **T3:** [gaze to S1] Molestan. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** Moliestan [morphosyntax].

- 4 **T3:** Molestan está bien. Pero hay algo que falta antes de molestan. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Le molestan. [self-repair]

Extract 104

- 1 **S1:** Yo [morphosyntax] me interesan las ciencias.
- 2 **T3:** Yo me interesan las ciencias. [repetition] [raising his chin]
- 3 **S1:** Ah sí. A mí me interesan las ciencias. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** A mí me interesan o me interesan las ciencias. [positive reinforcement]
Muy bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 105

- 1 **S1:** La gramática sirvió [morphosyntax] mucho.
- 2 **T3:** Servió. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** La gramática me sirvió mucho para el examen. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] Te corregiste bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 106

- 1 **S1:** Contan [morphosyntax] mentiras sobre el mundo [lexical].
- 2 **T3:** Cuidado con la conjugación de contar. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.8) Cuentan mentiras [self-repair] sobre el mundo [lexical].
- 4 **T3:** Bien. Cuentan mentiras. [positive reinforcement] (0.7) ¿Pero qué quieres decir con el mundo? [clarification request] [gaze to S1]
- 5 **S1:** Las personas. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Las personas está bien pero el mundo no mucho. [positive reinforcement] Khady, puedes decir la gente.

Extract 107

- 1 **S1:** Mis amigos empezaron [morphosyntax] a reír.
- 2 **T3:** Mis amigos em↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]

- 3 **S1:** Empezaron a reír. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 108

- 1 **S1:** Aunque no actúa [morphosyntax] (0.3) actúas [morphosyntax] tienes que ayudar en el show.
- 2 **T3:** Aunque no actu↑ [elicitation] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Aunque no actúes. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Actúes. [positive reinforcement] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 109

- 1 **S1:** Cuecemos [morphosyntax] el pan en el horno.
- 2 **T3:** Cuecemos. [repetition] [gaze to S1]
- 3 **S1:** Cueciemos [morphosyntax].
- 4 **S2:** Cocemos el pan en el horno. [peer-repair]
- 5 **T3:** Cocemos. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 110

- 1 **S1:** Yo me descanso [morphosyntax] este fin de semana.
- 2 **T3:** [gaze to S1] Yo me descanso. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** Yo me descanso en [lexical] este fin de semana.
- 4 **T3:** ¿Por qué en este fin de semana? [clarification request]
- 5 **S1:** ¿Este fin de semana? [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Sí. [positive reinforcement] Repite toda tu frase.
- 7 **S1:** Yo descanso todo este fin de semana.
- 8 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 111

- 1 **S1:** Oíbamos [morphosyntax] los paja↑ros [phonology] fuera.

- 2 **T3:** Oíbamos. [repetition] Paja ↑ ros. [repetition] [writing 'oibamos' and 'pajaros' on the BB] [nodding no]
- 3 **S1:** Oíamos [self-repair] paja↑ros [lexical].
- 4 **T3:** Oíamos está bien. [positive reinforcement] Hay un problema con paja↑ros. [metalinguistic feedback]
- 5 **S1:** Pá↑jaros. [self-repair] Oíamos pájaros.
- 6 **T3:** Oíamos pájaros. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'Oíamos' and 'pájaros' on the BB]

Extract 112

- 1 **S1:** Su diccionario está debajo [morphosyntax] la mesa.
- 2 **T3:** Debajo (0.3) la mesa. [repetition]
- 3 **S1:** Debajo de (0.2) la mesa. [self-repair]
- 4 **T3:** Debajo de la mesa. [positive reinforcement] [writing 'debajo de + artículo + nombre' and 'ej. debajo de la mesa on the BB] Bien. [positive reinforcement]

Extract 113

- 1 **S1:** Nos gusta [morphosyntax] los caramelos de café.
- 2 **T3:** Nos gusta los caramelos. [repetition] [writing 'nos gusta los caramelos' on the BB]
- 3 **S1:** [silence] (0.2)
- 4 **T3:** Nos gus↑ [elicitation]
- 5 **S1:** Nos gustan. [self-repair]
- 6 **T3:** Bien. [positive reinforcement] [writing one -n to 'gusta' on the BB] Cuidado con las eñes.