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**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON**

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

Modern Languages

**Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in the Mexican university  
classroom**

by

**Maritza Maribel Martínez Sánchez**

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics

July 2017



UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

## **ABSTRACT**

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### **INTERACTIONAL PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES IN THE MEXICAN UNIVERSITY CLASSROOM**

Maritza Maribel Martínez Sánchez

Learning to speak English not only involves knowing the foreign language, but also knowing strategies that help interactants communicate. One aspect of communication refers to strategic behaviour when a breakdown in communication causes misunderstanding (Mauranen 2012) or non-understanding (Cogo and Dewey 2012). Dealing with these kinds of communication problems showcases the different ways in which interactional pragmatic strategies interconnect in order to help interactants reach mutual understanding. Awareness and deliberate use of these strategies may have a positive impact in the workplace that has acquired characteristics of a globalized society (Chiang 2009), in which English is the means of communication most of the time. The language classroom is one of the settings where interaction could be studied in that sense, where the study of English is fundamental to students' professional development. It is in the classroom where second language is shaped (Walsh 2011); and here different interactional pragmatic strategies such as repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching among others are used to fulfil the teaching and learning processes. Therefore, this thesis examines some interactional pragmatic strategies that help to overcome communicative breakdowns that could hinder understanding within classroom interaction in business English classes. The detailed analysis of classroom interaction – naturally occurring speech – has revealed there is a diverse set of patterns, which

go from using one single strategy to more complex patterns that encompass a series of strategies, necessary to reach understanding. In addition, participants have evidenced from their own perceptions that interactional pragmatic strategies are used commonly and confirm both simple and complex classroom interaction patterns, which signals speakers' awareness of interactional behaviour. In a wider view, students' and teacher's perceptions also suggest contradicting issues among English that is used in the workplace (e.g. ELF) and English taught in the classroom (native-like English). This set of findings has implications in language teaching and learning.

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# DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Maritza Maribel Martínez Sánchez declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

Interactional Pragmatic Strategies in the Mexican university classroom

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I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission:

Signed: .....

Date: July 16<sup>th</sup>, 2017 .....



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# Definitions and Abbreviations

BELF	English as Business Lingua Franca or Business English Lingua Franca
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CIC	Classroom Communication Competence
CS	Code-switching
DA	Discourse Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EFTA	European Free Trade of Association
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELFA	English as Lingua Franca in Academic Settings
ELT	English Language Teaching
ENL	English as a Native Language
FAA	Free Trade Area of Americas
IPS	Interactional Pragmatic Strategy
IPs	Interactional Pragmatic Strategies
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MICASE	Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English
NAFTA	North America Free Trade
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	Non-native Speaker
PI	Problem Indicator
R	Result
RPHR	Rephrasing

RPR	Repair
RPT	Repetition
QROO	Quintana Roo
RQ	Research Question
SIE	Synthetic Immersive Environment
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
U	Understanding
USA	United States of America
VOICE	Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English

# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 Personal motivation

Having studied English since I was a child, I am the product of learning English within different teaching methods. For instance, my first English lessons focused on drilling fixed models in which I needed to change one word (generally the verb) and use it in the tense we were working on that lesson. This was the method we had access to in the 1980s in Chetumal, Mexico, where I was born. Back then, communication was not the objective, and pragmatics even lesser so. Instead, the objective focused on form – namely grammar – and fixed dialogues that served to practice ‘conversations’ in English. Luckily, such teaching methods evolved and have since become more dynamic. However, these American ‘fixed’ conversations were learnt by heart most of the time as no other English models were used in class, not even the Belizian model that was close to my hometown. Therefore, our conversations were like the ones seen in our textbooks. Nevertheless, there were still some pragmatic features in the materials that we learnt, such as the ones related to greetings. It was there where I learnt to answer ‘very well, thank you’ everytime I was asked ‘How are you?’. Back then, I used to speak the formulae I was taught in order to get the best marks possible. However, despite getting top marks, I soon began to notice that I was not understood when I tried to talk to a native English speaker. Moreover, I could not use any strategy to make myself understood and the non-understanding situation just embarrassed me. It was only when I had the opportunity to spend some time abroad –in Canada specifically– that I realised there were more ways to talk than just the fixed dialogues we studied in school. Whilst abroad, I was able to see that it was not necessary to answer ‘very well thank you’ to everybody who asked me ‘how are you?’. Instead, I could opt to say ‘not so bad’, ‘fine’, and so on. Moreover, I could say the magic word ‘sorry’ or ‘could you repeat please?’ in the event that I did not hear or understand the other person. There was clearly a lack of knowledge of vocabulary, as well as of pragmatics on my part. Having experienced living abroad, I was able to learn more about the English language, for example, the implicit culture and traditions specific to the geographical region where it is spoken (e.g. Guy Fawkes Night in England). These experiences

provided me with more ideas about the English language and how to communicate with it.

One salient feature I observed was the way in which people communicate in English, whether they were native speakers or non-native speakers. I observed both English interactions and my own first language (L1 henceforth) –Spanish– interactions, and realised that there are specific strategies that we use to communicate, especially when there is a break in a conversation. It caught my attention, so I started reading about strategies that non-native speakers of English use to communicate in that language. The reason for this was –mainly– that I am a non-native speaker of English and wanted to know the various ways in which I could better my communication. That led me to read more about English as a Lingua Franca, and when the time came for me to decide my PhD topic, I decided to focus on one strategy that aids communication: code-switching. However, as I explain in Chapter 5, the context where I wanted to carry out my study did not show enough evidence –namely data– of code-switching. Therefore, I expanded my research to consider other strategies such as repetition, rephrasing and repair, whilst retaining my focus of discovering how language could be used in order to communicate in educational contexts. Accordingly, I revisited my aim, focussing on how speakers overcome understanding problems, signalled throughout conversational breakdowns, within classroom interaction. This will contribute to the interactional field, in which an alternative way to analyse understanding is being suggested along this thesis.

## **1.2 Rationale, aims, and research questions**

Higher education worldwide is focusing on internationalisation which, in many cases, involves English as the means to communicate. Therefore, speaking English not only involves knowing the foreign language but also how to deal with communication problems that help understanding in order to obtain a productive teaching-learning environment that has a positive impact in a globalised society (Chiang 2009). A recent revision to standard regulations for English teaching and learning (see Pitzl 2015) suggests the need to include non-native speaker interaction models besides the traditional native-like models. Such an insertion implies not only having a wider panorama of how English is used nowadays in international settings, but also what lies behind it; in other words, productive

application of the English language in order to foster communication. In order to achieve understanding, therefore, various elements are needed. The first one refers to how understanding takes place in conversation and the elements involved. Such a set of elements includes interactional pragmatic strategies such as repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching among others. While there is a considerable amount of literature on each one of those strategies (see Chapter 3), they have been investigated separately most of the time. However, there is a latent reality that indicates strategies are interconnected (see Chapter 6); for example, repetition has been included and suggested as a way for repair (see Seedhouse 2004) when teaching. Thus, strategies are intertwined most of the time within interaction and provide support to reach mutual understanding, and therefore, communication. For instance, in classroom interaction, one of teacher's roles is 'shaping' (Walsh 2011) learner's second language:

What is needed, I would suggest, is a re-think of the role of the teacher so that interaction is more carefully understood, and so that the teacher plays a more central role in *shaping* learner contributions. Shaping involves taking a learner response and doing something with it rather than simply accepting it. For example, a response may be paraphrased, using slightly different vocabulary or grammatical structures; it may be summarised or extended in some way; a response may require scaffolding so that learners are assisted in saying what they really mean; it may be recast (c.f. Lyster 1998): 'handed back' to the learner but with some small changes included (Walsh 2011: 168, *author's emphasis*).

This derives into a need to explore classroom interaction from different perspectives. One of them is how interactants resource interactional strategies in order to reach mutual understanding, and how those strategies facilitate the teaching-learning process. A starting point taken from this idea refers to communication breaks and how they are overcome in conversation. Despite the fact that several studies looked at problems of understanding (Varonis and Gass 1985, Bremer *et. al* 1996, Pitzl 2005, Cogo and Dewey 2012) not many have focused on how interactional strategies are used in practice to achieve communication. Therefore, the aim of my research is *to know and interpret those instances of communication breakdown in natural conversation in educational settings from an interactional perspective with a focus on their pragmatic use; as well as to explore interlocutors' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies*; these aims attempt to look for an understanding of classroom

interaction in tertiary language education. The research questions guiding the study are:

- RQ1. Which interactional pragmatic strategies support understanding in the business English language classroom of the University of Quintana Roo, in Mexico?
- a. To what extent were communication problems solved successfully through interactional pragmatic strategies? Which problems were solved? How? Were there problems unsolved?
  - b. Were there problems solved without using interactional pragmatic strategies?
- RQ2. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs)?
- a. What problems do participants suggest IPSs help to solve for communication?
  - b. How do participants perceive their own use of IPSs? How do perceptions coincide or differ from strategic language used in the classroom?
  - c. What are participants' English language perceptions? How do these perceptions have an impact in IPSs use?

Therefore, I have considered two strands in my research questions. First, I have carried out an in-depth study of classroom interaction, which provided factual data (Chapter 6) regarding strategies that are enacted in conversation. Second, I explored participants' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies (Chapter 7). The originality of my research includes an alternative model to analyse communication from the moment there is a communication breakdown in conversation to the reach of mutual understanding between/among interlocutors. Such a model has been named Interactional Pragmatic Strategies, explained in Chapter 2 and 3. As observed, both my aims and research questions have their basis on communication theory and while communication theory in general is not the main focus of my research, it is important to discuss it before providing further detail of classroom communication, interaction, and interactional pragmatic strategies (chapters 2, 3, and 4).

### 1.3 Communication theory

Communication has many of characteristics that defines it. For example, Canale (1983) has listed some of them: communication is a form of social interaction, communication is unpredictable and creative in form and message; communication is immersed in discourse and sociocultural contexts that give language appropriacy; communication is limited to psychological and other conditions such as memory, fatigue and distractions; and communication always has a purpose, among other features (p. 3-4). Moreover, communication is understood as:

the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes (Canale 1983: 4)

Such an exchange and negotiation of information that leads to understanding among interactants represents my reasoning in this thesis. In other words, in order to reach understanding, speakers might follow some utterance paths which goal implies at least three major points: intelligibility or when utterances are recognizable, comprehensibility or when interlocutors recognize the utterance meaning, and interpretability when interlocutors recognize the speaker's intention (Smith & Nelson 1985). Such three aspects of support communication making through oral exchanges of any kind (e.g. in academic setting, touristic workplaces, etc.).

Moving to academic settings, there exist other models that try to explain spoken discourse within classrooms. Some of the models go beyond illustrating turn-taking such as IRF by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), and suggest cyclical models that show the ultimate goal of reaching understanding in a language classroom, that is the learning process. For example, Holmes and Riddiford (2011) did a study about the effects of conscious learning including opportunities for social interaction in workplaces from which they observe that, while classroom and workplace settings are different, it is possible to complement cognitive issues with social-interactive actions throughout certain activities that students had to do in workplaces and not necessary in the classroom. So, preliminary activities consisted of classroom tasks like retrospective interviews and/or open-ended roles plays that help students to elaborate personalized responses in order to interact, meaning they did not follow dialogue model from a textbook or a script.

Thus, they developed their own interaction. At the end of the module, students were sent to workplaces where they had to interact face-to-face with other people in the second language. As a result, Holmes and Riddiford (2011) observed the learning process of students that had language practices in workplaces –in addition to those taught and practiced in the classroom– and found improvement in their communication skills.

So, on one hand, there is a further need to contribute more on interactional studies. Furthermore, an alternative model such as the Interactional Pragmatic Strategies may contribute to understanding not only how complex language is but, as well, the great diversity of micro-strategies that work together as a net to reach understanding, and therefore, communication. This is closely related to the study of communication strategies (see Chapter 2). On the other hand, while it seems that communication implies also the study of cognition, we have to be cautious on this idea because my research is limited to presenting patterns of understanding emerging from classroom interactions taken as socio-cultural linguistic contact. In other words, an in-depth analysis under neurolinguistics or psycholinguistics viewpoints are not included, as my aims seek sociolinguistic answers. That is to say, it is undeniable that brain processes are crucial in communication. Nonetheless, this thesis focuses beyond cognition, as it is not a matter to observe how understanding is reached through a mind process by a single “individual” (see Mauranen 2012: 36) as neurolinguistics (e.g. Clapan 2001) and psycholinguistics (e.g. Menn 2017) traditionally do, but from the perspective of a sociolinguistic process through interaction (Schegloff 1991), between two and/or among several interlocutors (e.g. Coupland 2016). However, it is important to offer a short explanation of some related cognitive issues.

### **1.3.1 Cognition theory and communication**

Cognition, together with learning, is a well-known term used in educational psychology (Greeno, Collins & Resnick 1996) and psycholinguistics (Harvey 2014). Vast amounts of research have focused on first language acquisition, in which individual observation of mother tongue, namely first language or L1, has been the study focus, and most L1 studies of cognition are conducted through methodology designs of experiments, in which subjects of study are infants and children. In addition, second languages have been studied under cognitive theory. These studies are referred in the literature as Second Language Acquisition (SLA

henceforth).

SLA theories concern to various fields such as teaching and learning theories in which, for example, matters regarding age is related to individuals' affect (namely motivation), development and cognition (e.g. Da Silva Gomes C & Dorcasberro 2005). SLA theory has contributed to the analysis of the learner himself/herself and has mapped out the slim line that considers a learner as individual to a wider view which places him/her in a community. Breen's (2001) conceptualization of a learner has placed different levels in which learning takes place:

- Learners' attributes, conceptualizations and affects (e.g. individual's innate language acquisition capacity)
- Learners' actions in context (e.g. language learning strategies)
- Classroom contexts: a particular learning community (e.g. active contributor to a communicative environment)
- Wider community identity and participation, which includes learner's view of his/her experience transition from the past, present and future.

(Breen, 2001: 9)

From Breen's (2001) perspective, communication tackles all stages of learners. However, it is the actions in context that my thesis aims to explore, but not limiting to learner - learner interaction, but to all possible interactions that may take place in the language classroom, emphasizing interactional patterns that help to reach understanding. It is clear from Breen's (2001) learner classification that cognition has tackled not only the psychological side of language and communication but the social too, although, the interactional contribution is still not clear enough.

There exist other cognitive theories that might suggest the interactional strand in classroom communication. The Distributed Cognition Approach (DCA henceforth) developed by Hutchins (1991), for example, looks for explanations about:

the complex interdependencies between people and artifacts in their work activities, of which an important part is identifying the problems, breakdowns and the distributed problem-solving processes that emerge to deal with them (Hutchins & Klausen, 1996: 19).

Hutchins and Klausen (1996) state that problems can be solved through processes, which might relate to my thesis in which patterns of micro-strategies helps understanding. However, interaction should be among people, and not only

between people and artifacts. Nonetheless, while a book can be considered an artefact in a language classroom and has an important role, spoken interaction is still the main means of communication and understanding and so my study will focus on interactional strands among people. Nonetheless, what I find relevant in the DCA is the fact that breakdowns can be identified. In other words, an interface between cognition and interaction must exist in order to observe the breakdown, and the way we can observe them is throughout talk-in-interaction. In this sense, Schegloff (1991) is one of the researcher that supports the idea of structures or patterns that operate in order to organise talk-in-interaction, which represents a basic characteristic of my analytic framework for research question 1 (see 5.6.1).

One major characteristic of SLA and cognitive theories in general is that their research outcomes are emerged from experimental techniques most of the time. For example, Gorjian and Habibi (2015) carried out a study about classroom interaction in which they tested the explicit teaching of communication strategies. 120 Iranian students at tertiary level were the participants. They found that explicit teaching could enhance communication among students in the experimental group, differently to those students in the controlled group. This proved that interaction between teachers and students are the major point for enhancing learning in any classroom. Therefore, the authors suggest the incursion of training courses for teachers that help to use conversation strategies as well as to prepare and distribute instructional materials which includes such strategies.

While controlled environments are valuable to observe how human beings' minds work, it is limited to specific controlled situations in which researchers should take care of all variables around the subject of study. Results are valid and reliable most of the time due to control, i.e. contrasting interactions among experimental groups with a control group. However, from a social view, this limits naturally occurring reactions. In other words, the same study might differ if researchers collect classroom interactions in their natural settings, as has been done in discourse analysis research (e.g. Kramsch 1981, Ritchie *et al.* 2014).

It is important to notice, though, the fact that there are other views about cognition that are linked to social issues (Schegloff 1991). For example, Wetch and Tulviste's (1990) cognitive development in social context studies focused on social and cultural phenomena between adult-child and child-child in problem solving settings. Nonetheless, again, outcomes were obtained from experimental

interaction among individuals, which limits natural occurrence interaction. In this sense, a social educational environment implies natural occurring interaction, and is able to happen in various directions: teacher student, student teacher, student student (Harmer 2007, Tsui 2001), teacher to external person or *viceversa* (e.g. Smit 2010).

Tenenberg and Knobelsdorf's (2014) overview about sociocultural cognition states clearly that cognitivism refers to 'primarily mind in isolation, context-free problem solving and mental representations and reasoning' (p. 1) and that when talking about sociocultural cognition theory, their views turn to look at 'minds as cultural products, biologically evolved to be extended by tools, social interaction and embodied interaction in the world' (Ibíd). Therefore, there is still a need to study communicative breakdowns from another perspective.

To carry out an in-depth analysis of all branches of cognitivism and the various ways to study language (e.g. distributed cognition, sociocultural cognition, etc.) is beyond the scope of this thesis. However, two major strands in cognition theory are the situated and the sociocultural views, which have been commented on above. In this sense, I acknowledge the existence of cognitive theory that has contributed with important research outcome to learning and communication. However, it is also clear that none of them alone fulfil my aim that seeks for an explanation about how understanding is reached within classroom interaction. From my point of view, there is a need to turn to other fields that could provide more insights to the understanding of communication breakdowns. This could be done through exploring communication theory, emphasizing those theories on spoken language that have emerged from various research fields.

### **1.3.2 Spoken communication**

Communication theories include a large body of fields. Among these, discourse patterns –written and/or spoken– have been the subject of investigation for, at least, 30 years under interactionist approaches (Mackey, Abbuhl & Gass 2012). Moreover, through the years, 'interaction' has been characterised in various forms. In a recent study of various journals related to interaction and applied linguistics, Skukauskaite, Rangei, García Rodríguez and Ramón (2015) found various domains for interaction in the classroom: teacher-student interaction, instruction, student interaction, linguistic use, method, and study of phenomena

(p. 52). Evidently, all these domains are relevant and contribute to communication theory.

In this regard, the present thesis has considered research outcomes from various fields due to the interdisciplinary characteristic of classroom interaction. In addition, the present study aims to describe and understand the various micro interactional strategies that are immersed in talk-in-interaction in the language classroom. Micro-strategies are evidenced in literature about interaction analysis (e.g. Larsen-Freeman 2012). They are observed in examples of interaction taken from various contexts such as classrooms and business. Studies, in this sense, have to do with Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (e.g. Larsen-Freeman 2012, Pica 1993), Classroom Interaction (CI) (e.g. Walsh 2011), and/or English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (e.g. Cogo & Dewey 2012, Ehrenreich 2010), among many study fields. In addition, when studies focus on specific micro-strategies (e.g. repetition), other micro-strategies (e.g. code-switching) play a role in order to support understanding. Therefore, it is important to recognise the perspectives in various research fields that tackle communication and, most importantly, to identify their common means of approach to work in order to enhance understanding in communication.

Following from this multidisciplinary approach to communication and due to the complexity of classroom discourse no single theory can account for classroom communication. Thus, the fields considered in this thesis include Pragmatics in English Language Teaching, Classroom Interaction, and English as Lingua Franca. The emphasis among these is on communication strategies at micro level. Other similar studies (e.g. Dalton-Puffer 2007, Eggins & Slade 1997) have also used a range of theoretical and methodological approaches in order to provide description in depth of classroom communication. Such pluralism provides rich descriptions regarding how to reach mutual understanding within the language classroom from an interactional perspective, and helps to comprehend the natural ways in which spoken interaction takes place among speakers. Such a list of study fields is commented on and discussed in detail in the next chapter (chapter 2) because they provide the basis of the proposed framework in this thesis. Those studies help, then, to realize and observe a myriad of micro-strategies that are immersed in discourses, and they underline the starting point of understanding interactants' uses of micro-strategy patterns to solve communication breakdowns in order to continue the conversation (see Chapter 3). The next section provides a brief description of the structure of the thesis.

## 1.4 Structure of the thesis

The present thesis consists of eight chapters. Chapter 1 includes the introduction in which I comment on my personal motivation to carry out this investigation, a brief description of my aim and research questions, and a brief account of Communication Theory. Chapter 2 presents my theoretical framework, which was based on different studies from different fields but that contribute to a study on interactional pragmatic strategies. Three main fields are included: pragmatics in English Language Teaching, Classroom Interaction studies and Repair Theory, and English as a Lingua Franca. Chapter 3 expands on interactional pragmatic strategies individually as it is the way current literature has explored them. Accordingly, there are sections regarding repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching that include examples of current interactional phenomena. Therefore, exploration of their main functions related to successful communication –namely understanding– is introduced. Chapter 4 integrates studies about perceptions highlighting those related to interactional pragmatic strategies as well as language and communication in general. Chapter 5 introduces my methodology and contextual framework for the study. There, a detailed analytical framework has been suggested in terms of classroom interaction research and IPSs. Chapter 6 presents the first set of findings and discussion regarding classroom interaction. There, a myriad of patterns is evidenced to solve communication breaks. Such patterns have helped to explain the complex interconnection of strategies that work together in order for interlocutors to reach understanding, emphasising situations when speakers face communication breakdowns within classroom interaction. Chapter 7, on the other hand, includes findings and discussion regarding perceptions of interactional pragmatic strategies as well as English language. Finally, Chapter 8 includes IPSs main contributions, IPSs main implications, limitations and further studies, and conclusions. With this thesis, I would like to contribute to new outcomes for classroom interaction both methodologically and theoretically.

## 1.5 Summary

This chapter presents a brief introduction of the research. It included personal motivation regarding the study of interactional pragmatic strategies, a brief introduction to my aim and research questions, a description of communication

theory, and ends with the structure of the thesis. Now we turn to my theoretical framework including literature about pragmatics from three study fields: English Language Teaching, Classroom Interaction, and English as a Lingua Franca. Although these three belong to different research fields, as explained in 1.3.2, each one of them contributes to an understanding of interactional pragmatic strategies.

## Chapter 2: Pragmatics in English Language Teaching, Classroom Interaction and English as a Lingua Franca

The study of pragmatics in the language classroom is vast (Taguchi 2011). It ranges from instructed pragmatics where the aim is to teach pragmatic competence (explicitly or implicitly, see Taguchi 2015 for a recent review on this topic) to more interactional-based research that focuses on strategic communication (e.g. the Classroom Interactional Competence by Seedhouse and Walsh 2010, Walsh 2011). *The present study focuses on the pragmatics that is strategic for communication within classroom interaction; more specifically, into how communication problems –namely breakdowns– are overcome in order to reach understanding.* In this chapter, therefore, three main concepts such as pragmatics, strategies and interaction are characterised together with the three theories that support what I call Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (see 2.4 below): Pragmatics in English Language Teaching, Classroom Interaction, and English as a Lingua Franca. Such a varied list of study fields is considered in this chapter because all of them have focused on how understanding is achieved in communication (see 1.3). They will provide the basis to support my aim to investigate interactional pragmatic strategies within classroom interaction.

### 2.1 Pragmatics in English Language Teaching

English Language Teaching (ELT henceforth) research includes two main strands that concern the present project: pragmatics and communication strategies. Pragmatics has been studied, at least, since Morris's semiotics in the 1930s, but it was not until Austin (1962), Searle (1965) and Grice's (1967) speech act theory in 1960s when pragmatics was considered as 'the study of the meaning and use of words and expressions' (Nerlich and Clarke 1996: 5). This early conceptualisation refers to the main function of pragmatics: the study of meaning. However, there is a difference between studying the direct meanings of words (semantics) and contextual meaning of words (pragmatics) (Harmer 2007). This brings another key feature to pragmatics: context. This is reflected in some other descriptions within the ELT field:

- Pragmatics is the study of ‘speaker meaning’ and ‘contextual meaning’ as well as ‘how more gets communicated than is said’, and ‘the expression of relative distance’ between/among interactants (Yule 1996: 3).
- The study of how people typically convey meaning in context (Carter and Nunan 2001: 225).
- Conventions for conveying and interpreting the meaning of linguistics strings within their contexts and settings (Brown 2007: 388).

These definitions represent only a few examples of how ELT has considered pragmatics in its arena. We can see that ELT pragmatics *per se* seems to have very little relationship with classroom strategies. In fact, the breach between these two has been well marked in the Communicative Competence theory (Hymes 1972, Canale and Swain 1980) that is necessary to discuss next due to the influence it has gotten for language teaching.

### 2.1.1 Communicative Competence

Communicative Competence denotes both knowledge (competence) and skills (performance) required for communication (Hymes 1972, Canale and Swain 1980, Canale 1983). This consists of various components that have evolved through the years. Table 1 illustrates some of these.

The differences within the various models for Communicative Competence in Table 1 follow the authors’ desire to contribute specific elements that need to be considered within language teaching and learning. Despite those changes, some components remain the same in essence. For instance, the Grammatical Competence refers to the ‘mastery of the language code (verbal or nonverbal), thus concerned with such features as lexical items and rules of sentence formation, pronunciation, and literal meaning’ (Canale 1984: 112). In simpler words, it refers to language usage –knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology/graphology– (Bachman 1990), similar to Hedge’s (2000) Linguistic Competence description although she adopted more ELT-oriented terms: ‘the knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure, and linguistic semantics’ (p.47).

**Table 1. Communicative Competence Evolution**

<b>Communicative Competence</b> Canale and Swain (1980)	<b>Communicative Competence</b> Canale (1983, 1984)	<b>Language Competence</b> Bachman (1990)	<b>Communicative Language Ability</b> Hedge (2000)
Grammatical Competence	Grammatical Competence	Organizational Competence:	Linguistic Competence
Sociolinguistic Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence	- Grammatical Competence	Pragmatic Competence
Strategic Competence	Discourse Competence	- Textual Competence	Discourse Competence
	Strategic Competence	Pragmatic Competence:	Strategic Competence
		- Illocutory Competence	Fluency
		- Sociolinguistic Competence	

In addition, Hedge (2000) have adopted and adapted the model to integrate more language elements such as pragmatics (as a main category) and fluency. The competencies that concern this investigation are Pragmatic Competence and Strategic Competence; the former due to its focus on meaning under a social and contextual orientation while the latter due to its embracement of communication strategies in which ‘achievement strategies’ (Canale and Swain 1980, Canale 1983, 1984, Hedge 2000) are connected to interactional devices (e.g. repetition, code-switching, etc.). These are of great relevance to my theoretical and methodological contribution to exploring ‘understanding’.

### 2.1.1.1 Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence in ELT has been under debate for a long time, when researchers started the discussion about including it in the language classroom (Cohen 2008, Félix-Brasdefer 2008). Due to the inherent complex nature of pragmatics in which ‘forms, functions, contexts, social relationships, cultural conventions, and norms’ (Taguchi 2011: 305) intervene, pragmatics has represented a challenge for language teaching settings.

Nevertheless, there is a long path in which pragmatics has been studied under various theories (see Kasper and Rose 2002 for a review of theories) and researchers have suggested various ways on how to teach pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds 1991, Taguchi 2011). For example, pragmatics studies have researched both explicit and implicit teaching (Tateyama 2001) and deductive and inductive teaching (Rose and Kwai-fun 2001) among others. The main focus of such studies is to find the best ways to develop learner's pragmatic competence.

Nevertheless, pragmatic competence, from this framework, is limited to the relationship between 'language users and the context of communication' (Bachman 1990), putting aside some individuals' characteristics that affect communicative development such as speakers' background (e.g. culture, first languages, etc.). Although pragmatic competence has considered two key elements: illocutionary competence (knowing how to use language) and sociolinguistic competence (social knowledge that shapes language use depending on the setting, people's role and status or, in other words, the context) (Hedge 2000), it seems that the former is the one with more emphasis in the language classroom. The way in which pragmatic competence has been incorporated into language teaching is mostly through speech events and acts (Cohen and Ishihara 2013) such as offering, refusing, requesting and so on, that are achieved formally or informally, politely or impolitely, or in any other particular way depending on the context in which they are used (Johnstone 1989). However, most of the time, speech event models in textbooks are not close to real interaction as they follow 'homogeneous native speaker norms' (Taguchi 2011: 303). Thus, there is a need to bring not only real encounters models into the language classroom, but also diverse kinds of interactions, including native (e.g. among British), non-native (e.g. ELF), and mixed native and non-native (e.g. ELF) interactions, that help students gain awareness towards the various features (e.g. culture, traditions, meanings, etc.) immersed in such conversational models.

Moving back to pragmatics definitions in 2.1, they refer to meaning that is gained in context. In order to look for meaning, it is necessary to make use of strategies, but what are they? When addressing 'strategy', ELT approaches this from various directions in its literature. For instance, in both acquisition studies (e.g. learning strategies) and classroom language (e.g. communication strategies, etc.), 'strategy' presents various conceptual definitions. One of

these relates to classroom language studies in which strategy commonly refers to communication strategies, namely 'to the employment of verbal and non-verbal mechanisms for the production communication of information' (Brown 2007: 137) that implies conscious planning to solve problems or to achieve communication. Something worth noticing here is that one main function for communication strategies in ELT studies is to solve communicative problems. From here my interest is to explore how strategies are related to pragmatics, as both terms –pragmatics and strategies– are relevant to my thesis. While pragmatic competence is certainly an important element for the teaching and learning of language –and communication–, pragmatic competence literature still does not refer to strategies to overcome communicative problems but Strategic Competence does. It might be consistent with the fact that Pragmatic Competence focuses on meaning (Taguchi 2011), but not with interactional devices (e.g. repetition) that help communication directly like in Strategic Competence. This is discussed next.

#### 2.1.1.2 Strategic Competence

In the more general sense, Strategic Competence refers to communicative strategies, which are employed to overcome communicative problems, often related to lack of proficiency. These include both achievement strategies (e.g. paraphrasing) and reduction strategies (e.g. avoidance). Both kinds of strategies not only compensate for breakdowns during communication but also enhance effective communication between interactants (Canale 1983). Under the ELT framework, both have been observed in exploratory and experimental studies that have suggested that reduction strategies seemed not to be substantial enough for language learning. By contrast, achievement strategies have received more positive acceptance in ELT settings due to the strategic use of interactional devices such as paraphrasing, repetition and repair, among others. Such interactional devices are considered a fundamental part of communication strategies to the point of being advised to teach them in the language classroom (Hedge 2000). However, this is something that happens rarely in practice and could hardly be observed in the list contents from the studied module programmes in this research (see 5.4).

Looking at the interrelation between pragmatic and strategic competencies, they seem to be different matters, although both share language itself. It is

language that gives them –and the rest of the competencies– their importance. Accordingly, both pragmatics and strategic competencies are relevant to consider when studying the functional aspects of classroom interaction. In other words, while pragmatics provides a panorama about how language is used in terms of speech events and acts that are interpreted in one way (e.g. polite or impolite) depending on the context they occur (Cohen and Ishihara 2013), strategic competencies tackles interactional tactics that are used in those speech events and acts. This made me search more on interactional competence literature.

A recent contribution in terms of competence theory is the Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC henceforth) by Walsh (2011). CIC aims to gain a better understanding of classroom discourse and how it impacts learning. It is a more interactional view that, from my point of view, expands on Strategic Competencies due to its inherent study of ‘the ability to communicate intended meaning and to establish joint understandings’ (p. 160) throughout interactional devices. Therefore, Walsh’s view in terms of competence differs from Canale and Swain’s in that communication is something that involves two rather than one individual (see 2.2). This complements recent outcomes about interaction in which speakers’ features (e.g. cultural backgrounds) are also enacted in conversations (see Baker 2015, Jenkins 2015).

Notably, Communicative Competence is different to Classroom Interactional Competence. In other words, Communicative Competence helps to constitute language in order to be part of language teaching contents (e.g. it is the target for communicative language teaching), whereas CIC is more related to classroom interaction studies. In other words, classroom interaction can be considered an area that studies the processes of language learning and teaching through discourse analysis, so aims to provide descriptions of teaching and learning processes through interaction. This distinction is quite important at this point because both are relevant to my study. Communicative Competence provides foundations regarding how pragmatic and strategic competencies are considered in ELT, or what students need to learn about language; and, CIC provides alternative viewpoints regarding classroom language use in order to understand learning from language itself. Both are providing different understanding of how to interpret and understand communication within language classrooms. From my viewpoint, both are complementary when there is an aim to teach a certain part of language

(communicative competencies) and it is done through language itself (CIC). An example of this is the teaching of English idioms applied to certain contexts (pragmatics) but using communicative interactional strategies such as repetition or paraphrasing in order to make students understand such meanings in context. From here we can see the complexity that surrounds the study of language; therefore, I aim to clarify both Communicative Competence and Communicative Interactional Competence in this chapter. So far, we have reviewed Communicative Competence. The next sections expand on issues that are immersed within classroom interaction and CIC.

## 2.2 Classroom Interaction

Teaching (ELT especially) and classroom interaction research are closely related. Classroom language includes studies in interactional strategies that focus on ‘language use by the teachers and learners, the interaction generated, and their effect on L2 learning’ as well as ‘the underlying factors (e.g. beliefs, culture, etc.) which shape interaction in the classroom’ (Tsui 2001: 120). As with any other interaction, classroom discourse is a complex matter. It is complex because it has diverse functions related not only to language and interaction but also to teaching and learning (Seedhouse and Walsh 2010, Walsh 2011), in which patterns of communication are studied (Davies and Pearse 2000). Language and interaction, therefore, support everything in the classroom: lesson organisation, task compliance, terms clarification, language repair and so on. It is from here that the importance of interaction studies comes. On this matter, Walsh (2011) has suggested that:

Crucially, in a classroom, it is through language in interaction that we access new knowledge, acquire and develop new skills, identify problems of understanding, deal with ‘breakdowns’ in the communication, establish and maintain relationships and so on (p. 2).

While there are multiple *foci* to study through language in interaction, one that may support teaching and learning is to deal with communication breakdowns. This is because breakdowns represent a problem that affects not only the course of the conversation but also understanding, necessary for learning to take place. In addition, there is little known about how to deal with communication breakdowns in classroom interaction; and research on it might contribute to what

happens in terms of overcoming communication breaks in the educational context, allowing us to see which interactional strategies are involved. This may bring support to teaching practices as well.

While researchers have gone to great lengths to describe the interactional processes of the language classroom, few have used this knowledge to help teachers improve their practices (Walsh 2011: 3).

Therefore, there is a need to contribute through interactional classroom research. Some of the contributions in this respect include sequence models such as IRF that stands for Initiation, Response, and Feedback suggested by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Varonis and Gass's (1985) negotiation of meaning, and Repair Theory (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks 1977), among others, that aim to understand classroom interaction. Various interactional devices are envisaged in those models that work together for the same purpose: communication. To get a better picture of the elements that these sequence models support, it is necessary to outline some key concepts. Therefore, we move now to the nature of classroom interaction, or in other words, its features.

### 2.2.1 Interaction-related concepts

Classroom discourse has its own features, which are important to be considered when analysing language interaction. These features include input-output, flooring control, speech modification, communication breakdown and patterns among others. *Input* and *output* are terms that relate to the interaction emitted by speakers in a classroom. Interaction takes place when input –teacher's language (Tsui 2001) or all what learners hear or read (Davies and Pearse 2000)– interrelates with output, namely learners' production of language (Tsui 2001). They both generally behave according to teachers' control of the interaction, or *flooring control* (Walsh 2011). In this way, the teacher –who is considered the 'authority'– is the one in charge of organising turns, deciding the topic, and so on; while learners are the ones who are learning from that control. In this way, teachers and learners have asymmetric roles in the classroom (Walsh 2011, Dalton-Puffer 2007). This control allows the teacher to use *speech modification*, actions in speech that are done in order to facilitate understanding and therefore, learning. In classroom interaction studies, modifications are observed mainly in teachers who slow down speech deliberately, or speak up, make pauses or

emphasis, among others (Walsh 2011). The idea of adapting the teachers' speech to gain understanding resembles Shepard, Giles and Le Poire's (2001) accommodation strategies in which speakers show a level of flexibility in terms of adapting their speech to their interlocutors (e.g. convergence techniques). Some other adaptation techniques are more paralinguistic in which body language and gestures, among others, are used. Walsh (2011) suggests that speech modification reasons are threefold: learners must understand teachers to learn; teachers need to speak with appropriate pronunciation, intonation, sentence and word stress among others; and, teachers need to be sure their learners are following them in their explanations. In this way, teachers can use speech adaptation accordingly.

Sometimes, despite the efforts of teachers (and students) to make themselves understood, problems happen while communicating, such as when communication breaks for any reason (e.g. interruption, word forgotten, etc.). In this regard, *communication breakdown* is understood as 'trouble occurring in interactive language use' (Seedhouse 2004: 143). The causes of breakdowns –or breaks– vary, and could be described from being a mere linguistic problem (e.g. grammar trouble) to a more pedagogical problem (e.g. instruction trouble, see 5.6.1); the way a break is overcome is what the present research aims to investigate through patterns that build communication.

Therefore, *patterns* are used to describe what is happening through interaction, and a number of diverse patterns have emerged from classroom interaction studies. They can range from describing speakers' interaction –for instance teacher (very) active–students only/mainly receptive, teacher and students fairly equally active, or students (very) active–teacher only/mainly receptive (Ur 1996)–, to how utterances behave such as the well-known IRF and the T-I-R-RR models. IRF stands for Initiation, Response, and Feedback (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975). It is a triadic structure that reflects the most basic turn sequence in classroom interaction (Walsh 2011). It is also known as IRE as Initiation, Response, and Evaluation because some practitioners have thought that Feedback represents Evaluation as well. In fact, 'teachers are constantly assessing the correctness of an utterance and giving feedback to learners' (p. 17). Furthermore, T-I-R-RR refers to Trigger, Indicator, Response, and Reaction to Response accordingly. It is a sequence model that Varonis and Gass proposed in 1985 as a pattern observed for *negotiation of meaning*. As its name suggests, meaning is the central point that is observed through diverse turns, and how interactants manage to negotiate

through interaction to reach meaning (see 5.6.1). In both patterns, it is possible to observe pedagogical functions through interactional strategies (e.g. paraphrasing, see Tsui 2001). Here we turn to two major theories within the classroom interaction framework: classroom interactional competence and repair theory.

### 2.2.2 Classroom Interactional Competence

At a social level, learning is seen 'as a complex, dynamic system that is locally managed by interactants in response to emerging communicative needs' (Walsh 2011: 62). In this sense, the emerging communicative needs are the trigger points that detonate the desire to know, clarify, or confirm knowledge. Therefore, instead of conceptualising learning as something we can possess, learning is conceptualised as something that can be done (Walsh 2011, Larsen-Freeman 2012), namely to construct meanings together so communication can take place. However, English language teaching contents has focused more on developing grammatical competence within the classroom, leaving little or no space for strategic competence (Friedrich 2005: 39) in which interactional devices are important for communication. Moreover, the nature of Communicative Competence elements focuses on individuals, or what is desired that a student learns/acquires in the lesson, putting aside the fact that learning a language implies two speakers or more rather than just individuals (Kramsch 1981); in fact, that is how communication exists, with a speaker and a recipient. Walsh (2011) has proposed moving forward from traditional Communicative Competence that is mainly centred in individual language development, into a more 'collaborative enterprise' in which language is aimed to be developed through interaction. In other words, how interactants manage communication is central to interactional competence.

Therefore, a Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC henceforth) has been suggested by Walsh (2011), which aims to establish a better understanding of classroom discourse and its impact on learning. CIC, in other words, is 'the ability to communicate intended meaning and to establish joint understandings' (p. 160). As the author suggests, the main purpose of CIC lies in the idea that learners would be able to manage interaction. For that purpose, it is necessary that:

Speakers of an L2 must be able to do far more than produce correct strings of utterances. They need to be able to pay attention to the local context, to listen and show that they have understood, to clarify meanings, *to repair breakdowns* and so on. (Walsh 2011: 159, *my emphasis*)

Something to highlight here is the fact that learning a language would not be complete if its focus is on accuracy and fluency only. While they are important for communication, interaction implies contextual issues concerning setting, task type, and even speakers' roles that let understanding emerge; to know or be aware of these features would help to overcome breakdowns, for example. Due to its contextual nature, there are various aspects that need to be studied. Walsh (2011), for example, has suggested:

Given the context dependency of interactional competence, we are attempting here to identify some of the features of *classroom* interactional competence (CIC). How are meanings co-constructed in the unfolding interaction? What do participants do to ensure that understandings are reached? **How do they deal with repair and breakdown?** More importantly, how does CIC influence learning? (p. 166, *author's emphasis, my emphasis*)

Two main questions from the above that directly concern my research are: 'what do participants do to ensure that understandings are reached? How do they deal with breakdowns?' Those are the main questions that motivate the present research (see aims and research questions in Chapter 1), as a way to contribute by exploring *how* understanding is reached in classroom talk. In this sense, communication breakdowns are inherent to a certain problem related to understanding. For example, Chiang (2009) carried out a study about communication problems between assistants and students in an American college. His focus was on problematic understanding and the procedures speakers used in order to overcome it. Chiang (2009) suggests that problematic understanding could be attributed to grammar and socio-cultural issues. Then, through analysing interaction between participants, Chiang (2009) evidenced two procedures: corrective and preventive in which speakers could manage to reach mutual understanding. Speakers were considered as problem solvers by using strategies such as repetition, repair, reformulation (namely rephrasing), confirmation requests, clarification requests, comprehension check, and so on. In this way, they were able to choose communicative tactics strategically –or what I call Interactional Pragmatic Strategies– in order to understand each other. Chiang

(2009) concludes that ‘there are communicative procedures for correcting and preventing problematic understanding when it occurs due to some linguistic and cultural differences’ (Chiang 2009: 475). However, Smit’s (2010) detailed review widened this perspective and suggests not only linguistic repairables (namely problems) but other possibilities such as interactional and factual problems (see 5.6.1) can also happen in educational settings.

In addition to problematic understanding, some other studies have evidenced problems regarding the use of L1 in classroom settings. Such studies have suggested how learners’ first language (L1 henceforth) impacts in the communication that takes place in language educational contexts, and how several interactional strategies play a role to solve communicative problems. For instance, Mussin (2010) carried out a study about code-switching in the language classroom. There, code-switching was considered to be linked to repair, and repair was closely related to repetition and rephrasing –although the author calls this reformulation. It is here when awareness about how interactional pragmatic strategies interface may emerge. The problems mentioned in Mussin’s (2010) study include speaking, hearing, and understanding; which relates to my own study in terms of the various tasks analysed about speaking, communication breaks, and how to overcome them to reach understanding. In a more recent study, Hall and Cook (2012) have investigated the use of L1 in the language classroom too. Similarly, these authors suggested that code-switching seems to support problems such as lack of vocabulary; so they use L1 in order to overcome problems and scaffold understanding and learning. A second theory that relates to classroom interaction too, refers to repair.

### **2.2.3 Repair Theory**

While breakdown overcoming is what is to be investigated in the present thesis, it leads to the idea that language fixing or repairing is needed with such an action. That is why Repair theory is commented on here, because the term repair may be defined as the treatment of trouble occurring (Seedhouse 2004) in interactive language use, in which communicative problems appear in the course of interaction and need to be solved to reach understanding and let conversation continue. Repair studies’ major contribution in early research includes its sequential organisation first studied by Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977), and also mentioned in Markee (2000) among other authors:

- *Self-initiated self-repair*: The repair is initiated and carried out by the speaker of the trouble source.
- *Other-initiated self-repair*: The repair is carried out by the speaker of the trouble source but initiated by the interlocutor.
- *Self-initiated other-repair*: The speaker of a trouble source may try his or her interlocutor to repair the trouble.
- *Other-initiated other-repair*: The speaker of a trouble-source turn both initiates and carries out the repair.

The model target is clear in Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977), repair in order to know who initiates and who does the repair. While initial repair studies were done with daily talk, it permeated the classrooms in which other contributions to pedagogy were done, i.e. repeat the original question or initiation as a nonevaluatory strategy to repair (Seedhouse 2004: 165). The relevant features of this theory to my research are explained in Chapter 3, because while all cases analysed in detail fall into Repair Theory, a second definition for repair has been considered. In that, repair is considered a mere strategy within other strategies that help to overcome communication breakdowns (see 2.3) in the course of interaction.

Repair research has reached not only interactions between native speakers, but also classroom interaction and interaction between native and non-native speakers, as well as non-native and non-native speakers talking in English. Similar features have been observed in those types of interaction. For instance, where breaks are observed in the classroom as 'errors', Walsh (2011) has suggested four basic ways to deal with them:

- ignore the error completely;
- indicate that an error has been made and correct it;
- indicate that an error has been made and get the learner who made it to correct it;
- indicate that an error has been made and get other learners to correct it (p.14).

Walsh (2011) suggests that repair actions are similar to conversation analysts' (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974) findings in naturally occurring conversation. For example, the second bullet point above might refer to 'other-initiated other repair' if the teacher is the one who is indicating the error and correcting it. Another example is bullet point number three, which might be relating to 'other-

initiated self repair'. Repair, then, is discussed more in Chapter 3. The focus is not only on considering repair as a theoretical feature in classroom discourse, but also as an important strategy in interaction that helps to overcome communication breakdowns.

Both CIC and Repair theory are considered of high support to this thesis because while CIC suggests the various phenomena that can be studied within classroom interaction –and one of them is how to overcome breakdowns (Walsh 2011)– from interactants' strategical language tactics, repair theory has provided a complete and consistent framework about how interactants manage repair (Cameron 2001, Markee 2000, Seedhouse 2004, Smit 2010). In this sense, we can say that the action of overcoming communication breakdowns are also actions of repair. However, the quadruple schema (self-/other- initiated self-/other- repair) does not help to describe the micro strategies that interactants use to overcome the breaks. While I am aware that breakdowns are repaired, I cannot use the same term for my analytical framework (see Chapter 5.6.1), but consider repair as one of the micro-strategies that work together with others (e.g. repetition and rephrasing) in the goal of reaching understanding.

Problems that repair helps to solve are diverse. Although repair has been studied from different fields, there is one strand that focuses on studying repair –and other strategies– among groups with none or very few native speakers of English. In that case, English is used as a *Lingua Franca*. Related to this, most students in Mexico are Spanish speakers and the education system aims to prepare students for the globalised market, similar to other Spanish settings such as Argentina (Friedrich 2005). This suggests that learners are prone to use the learnt foreign language not only to communicate with native English speakers of English, but with non-native speakers as well. This kind of interaction reflects English as a *Lingua Franca* that is discussed in the next section, with its own framework of pragmatic strategies.

### 2.3 English as a Lingua Franca

The launch of English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF henceforth) studies took place around 2000 with the publishing of a phonological study (Jenkins 2000) observed in both the language classroom and social English interaction, from a quite different perspective to Second Language Acquisition (SLA henceforth) theory that

includes notions regarding ‘correct’ English performance. Contrarily, English, under the ELF paradigm, was considered in terms of communicativeness where ‘incorrect’ performance did not impede mutual understanding amongst interactants (Jenkins 2006). Another study that marked the start of ELF investigation was the reflection about how English had started to be used more in the global era and how it had been still taught in language classrooms (Seidlhofer 2001). There, Seidlhofer (2001) made a clear description of the differences between these two paradigms –ELF and SLA–, and suggested that English used as Lingua Franca needed more exploration. According to Mauranen (2012), these are the beginning of ELF research and mark a new paradigm; moreover, an increase of ELF research has been witnessed in fairly recent years (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey 2012), and it includes interactional studies.

ELF interactions have attracted researchers who, in turn, have suggested more attributions to ELF. Jenkins (2007) for instance, has discussed ELF in a meticulous way. She explains, first, that the Latin words *Lingua Franca* are a clear suggestion that language is a contact language that speakers –with different first languages (L1) – use as a second language (L2) for communicating (p.1). However, she argues that this is not the aim of English as a Lingua Franca *per se* because, sometimes, ELF interaction includes native speakers (namely L1 users) as well as non-native speakers of English (that use English as L2). The latter is compatible with a second ELF definition provided by the same author where she suggests that ELF ‘...is a means of communication between people who come from different first language background’ (Jenkins 2012: 486), which widens the spectrum of ELF speaker characteristics. Similar ELF definitions are suggested by Seidlhofer (2011) who places ELF as ‘...any use of English among speakers of different first languages whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option’ (p. 7); and Mauranen’s (2012) definition where she argues against considering ELF as a ‘target language’ –in academic settings, for instance– because ELF is ‘a vehicular language itself, an instrument for achieving communication’ (p. 6). Summing up, such authors refer to the English of ELF as a useful instrument for communication.

### 2.3.1 Who speaks ELF?

Most definitions include a straightforward characteristic regarding ELF performers: an ELF group is formed by people with ‘different first language

backgrounds' (Jenkins 2009, 2012, Seidlhofer 2011). Jenkins (2012) adds to this idea that native speakers of English are included in ELF groups as well, but suggesting that these might need a level of adjustment or accommodation to ELF interaction (p. 487) due to its linguamulticulturality. Although most ELF studies fulfill this characteristic –a variety of languages and cultures–, it would be good to think about what would happen when ELF research is carried out in a same-nationality community where people can choose between their first language and English –as their second or foreign language– as means of communication, but they adopt English (as, for instance, in Latin American countries where Spanish is spoken but in some settings –e.g. bilingual schools– English is used). Accordingly, it seems possible that communication in English among only-one first language speakers to be considered ELF. This reflection might seem to direct to a different idea about who ELF speakers might be. However, Seidlhofer (2011) suggests another feature for ELF, in which it includes not only characteristics about the kind of English and speakers involved in ELF, but also the issue of the language 'medium of choice' (p. 7) where English is 'often' the choice.

In other words, it may be possible that speakers in a group have the chance to opt for using English instead of other language(s), even when that other language is shared in the group as well. What seems to be important in those cases is the intention or purpose in which English is going to be used. For instance, in an academic reunion of native Spanish speakers in Latin America whose job is related to English Language Teaching, the whole group shares both Spanish and English languages, but they decide to communicate in English in the meeting. Here, this interaction could be considered an ELF situation. This raises a number of issues which concern the rationale for using English instead of Spanish –for instance, English could be used as mere practice, or English could be a compulsory choice as it may be the local policy to conduct such working meetings in English– and whether this can be considered an ELF setting. Under Seidlhofer's (2011) view of 'medium of choice', a group of speakers with these characteristics can be considered as ELF interaction. This is in addition to traditionally conceptualised groups that include various first languages, but who communicate in English; after all, they are using English to communicate despite their L1s. In this case, the kind of English spoken by such Latino-American teachers might be associated with parallel interaction. This leads to another example –more ELT oriented – that considers 'parallel language use' (Bolton and Kuteeva 2012: 432) when teacher-student classroom interactions are in English despite all of them sharing the same L1.

It seems, then, that bilingual groups speaking in English and sharing L1s might be considered ELF talk from Seidlhofer's (2011) view; however, this would reduce the multicultural richness that ELF groups possess; a relevant feature to be aware of when speaking in any multilingual settings. Moreover, the fact that parallel interaction exists in a language classroom –or staff meetings, or any other settings– does not affect the ultimate goal of any conversation that is to communicate. Therefore, for the purpose of this thesis both terms, ELF interaction and parallel interaction, are adopted. The former, under Jenkins's (2012) definition where ELF is placed as the 'means of communication between people who come from different first language backgrounds' (p. 486), and the latter, that refers to the communication that takes place between people with two same shared languages (Bolton and Kuteeva 2012). This is consistent with the fact that both kinds of groups –bilingual (English and Spanish) and multilingual (English and other languages)– are likely to be found in the Mexican context where this study was carried out (see contextual framework in Chapter 5). Therefore, it is possible that teaching would be able to adopt ELF oriented characteristics sometimes, however this will be discussed further (see 3.6.2). We turn now to ELF communication strategies.

### **2.3.2 ELF Communication Strategies**

Communication strategies have been studied widely under at least two major research branches in ELF studies. The first refers to the (non)understanding and misunderstanding studies (Bührig and ten Thije 2006) in which there are specific occasions when trouble in communication may happen and (might not) need to be solved. A second branch refers to those studies under the Communicative Accommodation Theory (Shepard, Giles and Le Poire 2001) where a series of strategies help interactants to 'negotiate social distance' (p. 34) strategically. For instance, when speakers converge, they adapt to each other –similar to speech modification– in the course of the conversation in order to achieve communication.

#### **2.3.2.1 Understanding Strategies**

It seems that understanding and non-understanding studies come from a great variety of communication studies; one of them refers to intercultural

communication research as plenty of the literature referring to non-understanding and misunderstanding (Bührig & ten Thije 2006, Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey 2012) studies are included in this field. Such a set of understanding studies includes pragmatic strategies too as tactics that help ELF speakers succeeding in their conversation in order to enhance communication. However, first it is important to conceptualise what understanding is, how it differs from non-understanding, and consider whether a misunderstanding plays a role between them.

Broadly defined, understanding refers to a process that is constructed by interactants as a way of 'building common ground and joint knowledge' (Cogo and Dewey 2012: 115) in a conversational environment. Contrarily, non-understanding can be defined as the instance in conversation when an interlocutor realises that what is said is not comprehended by his/her interactants. In other words, non-understanding refers to those instances in the conversation when 'the listener does not know what is said' (Deterding 2013: 13). Both understanding and non-understanding are considered natural extremes (Pitzl 2005).

Moving on to misunderstanding, this refers to those occasions when 'the listener thinks they know what is said but gets it wrong' (Deterding 2013: 13). In other words, speakers can confuse the intended meaning and a major breakdown in communication may happen. It is here where the importance of misunderstanding studies lies. For instance, Mauranen (2006) carried out an investigation about ELF misunderstanding where she found different ways about how ELF speakers signal (with questions, repetition, indirect signals) and prevent (through confirmation checks or repair) misunderstanding. In addition, she suggests various kinds of misunderstanding related to linguistic categories (e.g. lexical, grammatical, etc.), cultural issues and grasping matters of propositional content. These play some primary and, generally, overlapped functions such as making meaning clearer, or interaction smoother, and gaining more planning time. It is from these kinds of studies that my interest lies: to observe how ELF pragmatic strategies (e.g. repetition, repair, code-switching, among others) contribute to how breaks are overcome in the course of a conversation, mainly because they might constitute key elements that support other strategies such as meaning negotiation and accommodation amongst others, and together these act upon communication. The next section portrays this last notion at the same time as showing the link between accommodation and understanding studies.

### 2.3.2.2 Accommodation studies

Accommodation, our second communication strategy, has got a wide body of research as well. Accommodation studies might have arisen in a more linguistic approach where Communicative Accommodation Theory was suggested in the literature. However, through time, this view expanded to a sociolinguistic perspective, in which not only face-to-face interaction was the object of study, but also other socio-related issues such as beliefs and attitudes (Giles, Coupland and Coupland 1991, Shepard, Giles and Le Poire 2001), which will be reviewed in Chapter 4.

Accommodation studies have investigated how speakers display solidarity or disassociation in the course of their interaction (Shepard, Giles and Le Poire 2001). Based on this, accommodation has been observed to serve various functions to ELF speakers in order to facilitate communication. Among these: the solving or preventing of misunderstanding by acknowledging understanding (Cogo 2009, Cogo and Dewey 2012) and by improving clarity (Cogo and Dewey 2006, 2012, Kaur 2009, 2011a, 2011b, Seidlhofer 2011), maximising explicitness (Cogo and Dewey 2006, 2012, Seidlhofer 2011), or avoiding, pre-empting or repairing some possible communication troubles by showing cooperation and support during the interaction (Kaur 2009, 2011a, 2011b, Mauranen 2012). An example of how these functions work can be observed throughout the repetition and/or rephrasing of previous utterances (Lichtkoppler 2007, Mauranen 2012). Such functions, on the whole, help to both overcome communicative problems (e.g. communication breakdowns) and to enhance communication (e.g. to prevent problems).

### 2.3.2.3 ELF Pragmatics Strategies

ELF literature contributions to the understanding of pragmatic strategies are two-fold: those related to business settings and those that happen in academic settings. Both strands are important to this project in terms of interactional strategies that help to overcome communication problems, despite the fact that the study of pragmatic strategies in ELF is not yet clearly defined in current literature. So far, no-ELF paper has suggested a definition for this term. Moreover, while some ELF authors refer to phenomena such as repetition, rephrasing,

repair, code-switching or any other interactional strategic devices as mere pragmatic strategies (Cogo 2009), other researchers use the wider term 'communication strategies' (Mauranen 2012). From my point of view, both terms refer to strategic use of tactics that support communication. In Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey's (2012) state-of-the-art article, ELF pragmatics includes phenomena such as repetition, paraphrasing and code-switching amongst others that seek to study 'miscommunication and the negotiation and resolution of non-understanding' (p. 293) that, in part, is signaled through breakdowns in the course of interaction; such phenomena will be reviewed in the following chapter. Now, we turn to ELF that is studied in business settings. This is relevant to my study because my participants belong to the English for Business module.

### 2.3.3 Business English

One aspect of great relevance in workplaces is communication. Through daily spoken and written language, duties are carried out in companies, institutions and other organisations. Therefore, to transmit one's ideas, comments, opinions and any other abstract thoughts effectively are important to achieve communication. In the world of business, for instance, communication skills are essential in order to carry out a negotiation, attend or coordinate a meeting, present a product, or even for socialising. Such skills generally overlap pragmatic strategies that naturally occur in spoken interaction and are a good subject to investigate for its possible pedagogical application. From here the research will look at the relevance how businessmen and businesswomen perceive communication in their current business settings, as a way to realise about the English or Englishes that are appropriate to teach in language modules. As Widdowson notes:

The only English that can be appropriate for them (students) is that which relates to their reality, their purposes and their contexts.  
(Widdowson 2012: 11)

Therefore, business context outcomes might bring insights regarding the possible missing skills or contents a syllabus of English for business modules might need. This reflects that not only business skills are needed in business academic preparation, but communicative skills as well, where interactional pragmatic strategies play a role. In more ESP oriented research, English has been

studied in business as well. Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta (2011), for instance, have suggested a model for global communicative competence (GCC), in which various layers are considered. Derived from survey studies among business professionals of five companies, they propose that GCC should include multicultural competence, competence in English as Business Lingua Franca (BELF) and the communicator's business know-how (p. 244). Taking into consideration that the business world encompasses more international interaction nowadays, it is good to have a look at these kinds of research that indicate needs in terms of global communication to be considered in the educational language field for specific purposes. The following review includes business empirical studies regarding communication in workplaces with ELF characteristics.

### 2.3.3.1 Business ELF

Amongst Business's various branches of study, a very important element for this research is the communication strategies that are used in international settings, where English is likely to be the lingua franca of interaction. In 2005 Louhiala-Salminen, Charles and Kankaanranta introduced the term Business English Lingua Franca or BELF in order to refer to their studies about the English language immersed in the Business domain from a communicative perspective. That is to say, they focused their attention on observing communication in workplace settings such as meetings and e-mails that gave rise to discursive similarities and dissimilarities. Later, a recent re-definition was stated. So, now,

BELF is a neutral code that is shared among the members of the international business community for the function of working in multinational companies and doing business (Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta 2012: 264).

This orientation to business matters has changed the ways in which BELF originally stood for and it refers now to English as Business Lingua Franca (Ibid.). This distinction is accompanied with some interesting associations. The 'B' of BELF refers to the business context, the 'E' to the English language, and the 'LF' to the multilingual and cultural backgrounds of ELF speakers, which are also BELF speakers (Ibid.). These associations go, in general, along with what BELF means in business. Nevertheless, the slender thread that represents English in BELF still needs to be linked to pedagogical applications. In other words, it seems that BELF

belongs to business completely, but there is still a need to build a bridge between what BELF studies have found regarding communication (and pragmatic) strategies and the formal preparation of future business professionals, such as participants in this investigation (see 5.4.2). Bearing this in mind, a brief overview of BELF communication studies deserves attention, especially because strategies focus more on general pragmatics, rather than interactional devices that help understanding.

Authors such as Chang and Haugh (2011), for example, carried out a study about strategic embarrassment and face threatening in business interactions, where they highlight the importance of researching interactional achievement of communication. By analysing naturally occurring interactions they observed that, sometimes, speakers in business settings use 'strategic embarrassment' while doing business. 'Strategic embarrassment' is when one speaker tries to make his/her addressee embarrassed about what he/she plans or wants to do. Going further, this strategy might be considered as a way to do a 'mind reproach or complaint' (p.2948), and it is closely linked to face threat where politeness and impoliteness have been studied under pragmatics for decades. Despite such a paper included pragmatics in the general sense, nothing about specific ELF pragmatic strategies such as repetition, code-switching or others of these kinds were mentioned in this study.

Going back to Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen's study (2010), this suggests a series of characteristics in business communication such as smooth talk when the topic is shared, rare occurrences of misunderstanding, use of accommodation practices (e.g. avoidance of complicated structures or idioms/slang) and that grammar is not as important as communicating your message clearly, directly and politely. These features are closely related to communication strategies that are supported by an umbrella of pragmatic strategies; unfortunately, once more, such pragmatic strategies were not the focus of study, which indicates that there is still a need to explore them. Like Chang and Haugh's (2011) study and Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen's study (2010), most BELF studies have been directed to know more about how business people think or perceive communication and communication strategies in their companies or corporations, which illustrates the various needs for effective communication.

Charles and Marschan-Piekkari (2002), for instance, suggest that communication is generally viewed as a tool for international operations; therefore, they suggest companies need to pay attention to how communication is actually carried out

vertically (e.g. internal, from operational areas to management) and horizontally (e.g. pairs within companies, manager to manager), taking into account the increasing use of English. The latter reveals –together with other BELF researchers– the importance that more and more international and/or transnational companies place on English. That is why even though perception studies are providing a substantial number of findings to identify and cope with communication pitfalls, research should look at other features such as pragmatic strategies that can help future business professionals to cope with language as well. This relates to the study of effective communication and the interactional strategies to be used for such a goal, and finding a way to insert a set of outcomes to future business professionals' formation. BELF perceptions studies are plenty; to mention some are Ranta (2010), Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010), and Trinder and Herles (2013) among others, but they are reviewed in Chapter 4.

Section 2.3 has provided an overview of how ELF study field focuses not only on workplace interaction, but also academia interaction. This is significant to my thesis because while it is focus on interactional issues within classroom discourse, it is necessary to realize about workplace discourse too. In other words, plenty of studies has suggested that there is a breach between what is taught in the classroom and what is used in workplaces (e.g. Chan 2017), not only in terms of disciplinary topics but also in terms of language use (e.g. Bjørge 2012). It is worth noticing at this point that there are coincidences in terms of overcoming breaks within classroom and workplace discourses. Therefore, now we turn to the 'meeting points' between the various theories revised in this and previous sections.

## **2.4 Theoretical approximations of interactional strategies in ELT, Classroom Interaction and ELF**

As discussed above, pragmatic competence relates to knowing how to use language in a particular context based on social knowledge. Harmer (2007) –an ELT author– suggests that there are six variables that govern our choice when communicating something to someone. These are: setting, participants, gender, channel (e.g. face-to-face, microphone, etc.), topic and tone (e.g. formality, politeness, etc.) (p. 28). These are very similar to some pragmatic elements seen

in ELF studies where, for instance, setting and context play an important role when interaction takes place. While it is true that pragmatic studies –in ELT– focuses on the illocutionary and sociolinguistic competencies, these do not show a direct link to what is called ‘pragmatic strategies’ in the ELF paradigm.

One of the major research lines of ELF pragmatic strategies is the study of those devices that help interlocutors to communicate successfully. Among those devices, there is paraphrasing, code-switching, repetition, repair, and so on (see chapter 3). Therefore, it seems there is little direct connection between what is called pragmatic competence in ELT and pragmatic strategies in ELF.

Nevertheless, there is a relationship between ELT and ELF despite this non-correspondent terminology: strategic competence.

Strategic competence aims to achieve successful communication despite interlocutors facing problems to get their meaning across (Dörnyei and Thurrel 1991) ‘either because they cannot immediately recall an appropriate expression or because they have not encountered one up to that point’ (Johnstone 1989: 70) in the conversation. Therefore, strategic competence includes two sub-strategies: achievement and reduction strategies. Although such strategies have been commented on in 2.1.1.2, the one that concerns achievement strategies needs more exploration in the search of its proximity to ELF pragmatic strategies. Studies of achievement strategies have included phenomena such as paraphrasing and code-switching, among others that aid communication.

Achievement strategies or expansion strategies (Corder 1981) might be cooperative or not depending on how they are presented in the interaction. They are cooperative when there is a direct request from a speaker to convey an utterance (e.g. how do you say *hola* in English?) and non-cooperative when the speaker looks to explain what he/she means by paraphrasing, approximating or looking for a close term to the intended one. They do this with paralinguistic communication (e.g. body language), or by borrowing words or inventing words (Dörnyei and Thurrel 1991), which could be related to a form of code-switching. Both achievement strategies include interactional tactics such as paraphrasing or code-switching among others, that might represent the meeting point between ELT, ELF and classroom interactions study fields (see table 2).

**Table 2.** Interactional strategies approximation among study fields

ELT	Classroom Interaction		ELF
Pragmatic and Strategic Competencies (Hedge 2000)	Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2011)	Repair theory (Seedhouse 2004)	Pragmatic strategies (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey 2012)
<p><i>Pragmatic competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Illocutory competence (how to use language)</li> <li>- Sociolinguistic competence (social and contextual knowledge)</li> </ul> <p><i>Strategic competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Achievement strategies that include <b><u>paraphrasing</u></b>, <b><u>translation</u></b>, <b><u>code-switching</u></b>, etc.; and other communication strategies</li> <li>- Reduction strategies</li> </ul>	<p><i>Strategies to assure meaning understanding</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Confirmation checks that serve teachers to be sure about learner's understanding</li> <li>- Comprehension checks that serve teachers to be sure of understanding learners</li> <li>- <b><u>Repetition</u></b></li> <li>- Clarification request</li> <li>- Reformulation or <b><u>rephrasing</u></b> what heard</li> <li>- Utterance completion (or turn completion)</li> <li>- Backtracking</li> </ul>	<p><i>Nonevaluatory <b><u>repair</u></b> strategies</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Use a next-turn <b><u>repair</u></b> initiator to indicate (indirectly) that there is an error which the learner should <b><u>repair</u></b>.</li> <li>- <b><u>Repeat</u></b> the word or phrase or part of a word which the learner used immediately prior of the error.</li> <li>- <b><u>Repeat</u></b> the original question or initiation.</li> <li>- <b><u>Repeat</u></b> the learner's erroneous utterance with a rising intonation.</li> <li>- Supply a correct version of the linguistic forms.</li> <li>- Provide an explanation why the answer is incorrect without explicitly stating that is it is</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Non-understanding</li> <li>Misunderstanding</li> <li><b><u>Repetition</u></b></li> <li>Clarification</li> <li><b><u>Repair</u></b></li> <li><b><u>Paraphrasing or Rephrasing</u></b></li> <li><b><u>Code-switching</u></b></li> <li>Let-it-pass</li> <li>Negotiation strategies</li> <li>Turn-taking, etc.</li> </ul>

		incorrect. - Accept the incorrect forms and then supply the correct forms. - <i>Invite other learners to <u>repair</u></i>	
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*Note: Interactional tactics are underlined in Table 2. They represent the meeting point among study fields.*

Something to notice in table 2 is the fact that while pragmatic competence and strategic competence are well defined in the ELT framework, only the strategic competence is the one that seems to link within ELF pragmatic phenomena when talking about interactional resources for overcoming breakdowns in conversation. The meeting points –or common interactional tactics in study fields– observed in table 2 reflects this. Nevertheless, phenomena such as repetition and rephrasing are strategies that are also shared in classroom interaction research and repair theory. In this sense, the overcoming of communication pitfalls to ensure successful communication is one of the main purposes for strategies to exist. Therefore, as part of the aim of this investigation is related to observing strategies that are used in pragmatics within interaction, outcomes from the three theories –ELT, ELF, and classroom interaction– have been considered, because micro-strategies happen in any kind of interaction (e.g. academic, work, etc.); moreover, they seem to interconnect in order to reach understanding.

At this point, an explanation about pragmatics immersion in strategies is needed due to the various ways in which they are referred to in different fields. For example, strategies such as repetition, rephrasing/paraphrasing, repair, and code-switching are mentioned in the various fields, but they receive different denominations. For instance, both ELT and ELF communicative devices are included under the umbrella of communication strategies (Hedge 2000, Mauranen 2006, 2012); and ELF also names them as pragmatic strategies (Cogo 2009). In addition, ELT manages pragmatic and strategic competencies. As for classroom interaction, these are referred under the general term of strategies (Walsh 2011, Seedhouse 2004). What all of them have in common is one main goal: to solve a problem in communication. Therefore, to avoid confusion with terminology in the various fields, and because this research is oriented towards

interaction, I suggest the term *Interactional Pragmatic Strategies*. More precisely, when I allude to *strategies* in the analysis chapters, I will be referring on one hand to the strategies themselves identified throughout the interaction (e.g. repetition, rephrasing, etc.), especially when interlocutors overcome understanding problems; and, on the other hand, to contextual features, namely *pragmatics*, when interpretation of phenomena takes place at a functional level (e.g. how they work within a certain context to solve the problem). Furthermore, due to the setting from which these have been studied, they receive the *interactional* adjective as well, as it is precisely in interaction where they –pragmatics and strategies– co-exist in order to reach communication. The next chapter will expand on what I then call Interactional Pragmatic Strategies.

## 2.5 Summary

This chapter has explained and offered a revision on the terms ‘pragmatics’, ‘strategy’ and ‘interaction’. These make clear strategies such as rephrasing/paraphrasing, repair, and code-switching form part of the study of communication strategies under the Communicative Competence theory (Canale and Swain 1980), specifically regarding Strategic Competence (Canale 1983, 1984). In addition, approximations of diverse strategic tactics (e.g. repetitions, rephrasing, and others) were observed as well between ELT and ELF literature. For example, achievement strategies such as repetition, rephrasing, and code-switching, have two main functions in the classroom in respect to oral production (namely speaking). This is in order to cope with a problem when communicating, which implies a need to express/to hear something clearly; and to make oneself understood in order to clarify through a negotiation of meaning (Hedge 2000), which links to the wider functions in ELF pragmatic studies of mis- and non-understanding problem solving as well as clarification. In addition, phenomena such as repetition, repair, and rephrasing are also part of Classroom Interaction theory.

Therefore, due to the diversity in which such a set of strategies –together with code-switching– have been studied from different fields, it was necessary to adopt a posture, and suggest a new term that integrates the three components (pragmatics, strategies and interaction) that are the focus of this research: interactional pragmatic strategies. They also comprise understanding; in other

words, how language works strategically in interaction in order to achieve successful communication and overcome communication troubles. Findings in this aspect may contribute not only to know more about language itself, but also may derive from possible pedagogical implications (see 8.3 and 8.4). For that reason, it is important to look closer at some interactional pragmatic strategies such as repetition (see 3.1), rephrasing (see 3.2), rephrasing (see 3.3.), and code-switching (see 3.4.). This is done in the next chapter.

## Chapter 3: Interactional Pragmatic Strategies

As seen in Chapter 2, my interest lies in interactional pragmatic strategies that help to overcome breakdowns in conversation, because such strategies are important within the language classroom as potential linguistic resources that students could exploit when they use language. Therefore, pragmatics teaching is also reviewed (see 3.6). Previous chapters have already looked at how English language teaching (ELT henceforth), English used as *Lingua Franca* (ELF henceforth) and classroom interaction research have provided significant contributions to the study of English interaction among groups from diverse nature (e.g. monolingual, multilingual, etc.). While it is evident that ELF theoretical contributions arise from different kinds of interaction (e.g. workplace talk), and even though they differ in nature from classroom discourse, they are connected by the way in which speakers use strategies to overcome communicative problems. It is here where there is a resemblance between classroom and ELF talk.

In other words, speakers can overcome communication breakdowns whatever language they speak, as the strategies used to do so are not language-specific. For instance, in ELT studies, learning strategies refer to input –‘to processing, storage, and retrieval, that is, to taking in messages from others’ (Brown 2007: 132)–, which suggests metacognitive (e.g. planning), cognitive (e.g. rehearsal) and social/affective strategies (e.g. cooperation) (O’Malley and Chamot 1990: 44-45). The most salient strategy that approximates in name to ELF pragmatic strategies is ‘rehearsal’ as it entails repetition by its name, which similarly refers to the function of remembering items or objects. In fact, repetition is one of the strategies that have been suggested to teach within early stages of learning, namely beginner’s level. For example, it is related to ‘ways of asking for repetition, asking someone to speak slowly, or requesting clarification, in order to get more comprehensible input; ways of checking that someone has understood [...] and ways of keeping a conversation going’ (Hedge 2000: 271) among others. This aligns with some of the functions of ELF pragmatic strategies, which are also part of the wider umbrella of communication strategies such as meaning negotiation (Varonis and Gass 1985).

Other authors like Dörnyei and Scott (1997) did an extensive revision of communication strategies, which includes an inventory of various strategies used from both teachers and students as well as taxonomies that have been developed

(see appendix A). Repetition, rephrasing, repair and other strategies figure in such a list. This represents an indicator to realise how such phenomena have been approached in language teaching and learning.

Therefore, based on the commonalities observed through ELT, ELF and classroom interaction literature, a review of the more salient strategies is presented in this chapter. Although the literature in chapter 2 has suggested various strategies, the present review centres on a list of four strategies which were the more recurrent during my data analysis (therefore, their status is not a comprehensive one). These include repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching. The following paragraphs attempt to describe such an array of phenomena despite the challenge of being able to separate them individually as they are closely interconnected to each other during conversation (see Chapter 6), a common feature of interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs henceforth) that characterises them as nondiscrete categories. Section 3.5 tackles IPSs approximations within study fields; moreover, it lists the communication strategy levels that characterise IPSs in this study, and their relation to the various theories reviewed in Chapter 2.

### **3.1 Repetition strategy**

Repetition in its most basic definition for spoken language refers to the action of saying an utterance twice or more in the course of a conversation (Mauranen 2012). Despite its frequent presence in interaction, repetition has been seen as something negative (Lichtkoppler 2007). For instance, when a person repeats utterances constantly in order to make himself clear, he might be falling into what is known as over-accommodation –when there is excessive concern for clarity or amplitude, therefore, repetition or rephrasing (Giles, Coupland and Coupland 1991, Shepard, Giles and Le Poire 2001)– which, far from helping, might cause a drawback in communication. In ELT, repetition has not always been seen as something positive either.

Another example in which repetition is not welcome is related to learning processes. It seems that language learners who make use of repetition of utterances might show ‘dysfluency and lack of competence’ (Mauranen 2012: 205) in the learnt language, especially when such a language preparation is exam-oriented, where certain standards of native-like fluidity are expected. However, it seems that repetition has been upgraded little by little through time

in ELT. From being a mere drill that serves for memorising purposes, it has advanced a step forward by functioning as a thinking process of a certain utterance (word, phrase or sentence) in the lesson. That is to say, '[...] the more [students] come across this language –the more repeated encounters they have with it– the better chance they have of remembering (and *being able to use*) it' (Harmer 2007: 56, my emphasis). This resembles the idea of language recycling in a lesson with the purpose of learning. Other studies support this idea of frequent repetition in class, as the action of repeating can also be considered as a way to let interlocutors adapt to what they are hearing according to the new context or situation (see complexity theory in Larsen-Freeman 2012); such process of adaptation resembles ELF speakers' accommodation skills (see 2.3.2.2 in previous chapter).

A publication about repetition in classroom discourse referred to the use of repetition as a way of reasoning, expressing disagreement, or as a persuasive technique (Gilabert, Garcia-Mila, and Felton 2013: 2860), in which the authors pointed out that disagreement repetition may serve as a way to emphasise a point, to reorient a topic in interaction, to gain the floor or to have one's voice heard (Scott 2002). Later, Gilabert, Garcia-Mila, and Felton (2013) carried out an experimental intervention of eight 50-minute lessons, where students had to debate and achieve a consensus on certain topics. They found that the group in persuasion repeated structures more as well as the same idea while the group in consensus did not repeat structures as much as in persuasion but when they did, they provided more ideas. Although this study was experimental, it provided a general picture of how repetition works with a purpose. A more theoretical perspective comes from Bazzanella (2011) who suggests that repetition can be used for alignment of the preceding utterance or to make interlocutors correct their utterance, namely repair.

Under a more interactional view, repetition functions as a device that lets students have time (Dörnyei and Scott 1997) to think of what they want to say. This function is similar to ELF interaction where repetition serves to not lose the floor while thinking of what to say next (Mauranen 2012). Within classroom interaction studies, two types of repetition (namely echo or when teachers repeat their own or students' contributions utterances) have been observed. These are: teacher-learner echo and teacher-teacher echo. The former when the teacher repeats a student's utterance, and the latter when the teacher repeats his or her own utterance (Walsh 2011) that serves for clarification purposes most of the

time, or for more pedagogical reasons such as carrying out with nonevaluatory repair (Seedhouse 2004). See the following example taken (and edited) from Walsh (2011: 167):

#### Extract 3.1

- 1 T: what was the funniest thing that happened to you at school (1) Tang?  
 2 S1: funniest thing?  
 3 T: the funniest  
 4 S1: the funniest thing I think out of school was go to picnic

Extract 3.1 illustrates how repetition has served for confirmation purposes. That is to say, the teacher placed a direct question to a student in line 1. The student might have not heard the word ‘funniest’ well and wanted to confirm what heard. Therefore, the student replies with a question by repeating the problematic phrase (line 2). The teacher repeated himself again with the intended phrase (line 3), so S1 was able to understand it. S1 signalled such an understanding with another repetition of the same word (line 4). While this is an example within classroom interaction, similar cases occur also in ELF interactions.

ELF studies also see repetition as a way to clarify or avoid misunderstandings (Mauranen 2006). In other words, repetition aims to allow the interlocutor to receive the intended meaning (Björkman 2011, Kaur 2009, Lichtkoppler 2007, Seidlhofer 2011) as a way of cooperativeness that may signal ‘agreement, listenership and engagement in the conversation’ and ‘alignment and solidarity’ (Cogo 2009: 259-261), as well as to enhance intelligibility when it interplays together with repair (Mauranen 2006, Watterson 2008). These characteristics provide repetition a multifunctional facet that can be observed in its multiple forms (e.g. false starts, repeats, etc.).

One of the main exponents on ELF repetition is Lichtkoppler (2007) whose study on repetition aims to look for repetition forms, functions, and its significance for successful ELF conversations. She did an analysis of unplanned discourse among office staff –advisers– and students in an Austrian organisation. Therefore,

interactions she analysed were relatively short, and their main purpose was to exchange information in order to solve students' problems. By using a bottom-up methodological framework with conversation analysis, she found some repetition patterns that made her suggest various micro-functions of repetitions: time gaining, utterance developing, prominence-providing (for emphasis), ensuring accuracy, showing listenership, and cohesion and borrowing; that support her three suggested macro-functions: 1) production-oriented repetitions that facilitate accomplishment of utterances; 2) comprehension-oriented repetitions that help to achieve mutual understanding; and 3) interaction-oriented repetitions that assist with showing participation, solidarity, or attitude (*op.cit.* p. 48). Lichtkoppler (2007) also contributed the forms in which repetition can be observed in interaction. These regard to three main issues in interaction: scale of fixity (e.g. exact, with variation, and paraphrased), temporal scale (immediate or delayed), and participant (self-repetition or other-repetition). She concludes suggesting that repetition –micro and macro– functions tend to overlap and are difficult to separate. Nevertheless, repetition is considered a key strategy that facilitates the production and comprehension of language.

Mauranen (2006, 2012) carried out another academic investigation about repetition. Based on an analysis of two corpuses, MICASE (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English) that includes more L1 talk and ELFA (English as Lingua Franca in Academic settings) with more L2 interactions, she observed both monologue and dialogue discourse in academia. Her major findings were that repetition is a way to signal misunderstanding (2006); and, by contrasting monologue and interactional speech in her study in 2012, she found that self-repetition can function to buy time while having the floor in the conversation, and this action is normally intentional and not random. As for interactional speech, other-repetition or 'echoing' was suggested to serve purposes of 1) the searching of content –where meaning negotiation has an important role–; 2) the searching of form to provide linguistic support; and 3) as a relational practice where paralinguistic devices such as laughter contribute to affiliation in the course of a conversation. What she highlights in both studies is that her findings suggest that it is possible that negotiation of meaning is less seen in ELF talk rather than native-like talk. The following is an example of 'echoing' in ELF talks. It was taken (and adapted to conventions used in this thesis) from Mauranen (2012: 115, *author's emphasis*):

## Extract 3.2

S1 and did you (got) some mhm research idea *from this paper*

S4 *from this paper* well i've now...

Extract 3.2 shows a phrase that is echoed. This might represent a simple action while talking; however, it helps to signal understanding to previous utterances, specifically to the main conversational point in course. The fact that an interlocutor repeats a previous phrase exactly indicates mutual alignment in the conversation.

Repetition in this thesis, therefore, is conceptualised as the action of re-saying a previous utterance in spoken interaction. From studies discussed above, some suggestions on the different forms in which repetition can be studied show a broad umbrella in which this interactional pragmatic strategy can be explored. From Lichtkoppler's (2007) scale of fixity to Mauranen's (2012) classification, repetition has displayed various characteristics. A major distinction to be considered in this research refers to who is performing the repetition; therefore, self- or other-repetition types are going to be indicated in my data descriptions. As for the various forms repetition takes, I will adopt the most basic form of repetition: exact utterance or verbatim repetition. This decision follows the desire to avoid confusion with rephrasing, which is discussed below.

### 3.2 Rephrasing strategy

Rephrasing represents an alternative way for speakers to express or restructure preceding or proceeding ideas in the course of a conversation in order to provide clarity and comprehensibility (Bazzanella 2011, Mauranen 2012, Kaur 2011b). Like rephrasing, another term that this pragmatic strategy receives is paraphrasing. As a matter of fact, paraphrasing is a synonym of rephrasing which makes no difference at all in its primary meaning. For that reason, through this thesis I use both terms interchangeably as both will convey their main essence: clarifying through rewording and to 'address potential problems of understanding' (Kaur, 2009: 110), and/or helping to modify complex questions in a lesson (Tsui 2001). The following extract is an example of clarifying:

## Extract 3.3

- 1 <S1> **So how about your feeling about the last trip trip to the waste water plant**<NAME OF PLACE></S1>
- 2 PLACE></S1>
- 3 <S4>Sorry</S4>
- 4 <S1>**I mean we have already visited waster water plant of**<NAME OF PLACE>**and how do you think it I mean do you have any feeling?**</S1>
- 5
- 6 <S4>I don't know she didn't show us sediment picture I can't understand what this plant for
- 7 and what (xx) only (that) there's some types</S4>
- 8 <S1>Oh I think it's a rather huge project that built under under ground maybe in other
- 9 countries the waste water plant always near</S1>
- 10 <S4>And there's so few people to manage it it's so big so huge plant can't imagine only
- 11 thirty people manage this plant</S4>

(Björkman 2014: 132, **author's emphasis**)

Extract 3.3 shows how speaker 1 (S1) rephrased his ideas in order to make them clear. His/her main purpose is to reach understanding with his/her interlocutors. In this case, S1 expanded a little his/her request (lines 4 and 5), which he did in line 1 because his/her interlocutors answered back with 'sorry' (line 3), a word that signalled non-understanding.

Then, simplifying or expanding the main idea are strategies that help to gain clarity. By doing so, a range of linguistic actions can be displayed in the conversation such as making a careful choice of words, following simple patterns in utterances, looking for semantic relations, and so on; all these as part of paraphrasing and repetition (Seidlhofer 2011). In this regard, rephrasing is also linked to repair (Mauranen 2006).

The link rephrasing has with repetition and repair is overlapped most of the time, thus, difficult to split. Despite this, the next paragraphs are an attempt to separate these out, in order to provide an expanded idea of rephrasing.

In ELT, rephrasing is much understood as ‘lexical substitution’ or ‘circumlocution’ (Harmer 2007, Johnstone 1989; Dörnyei and Scott 1997). It is closely linked to repetition, as it implies the repetition of the same idea but by using other words. One major purpose of rephrasing refers to the way in which this can be used in classroom interaction. That is to say, Walsh (2011) suggests that paraphrasing – together with other strategies such as scaffolding and reiterating– entails teachers being able to *shape* learner contributions. Such a process, therefore, helps learners to immerse themselves in a more meaningful interaction and appropriate their language. In this sense, Walsh (2011) defines appropriation as ‘a kind of paraphrasing that serves the dual function of checking meaning and moving the discourse forward’ (p. 172) in the classroom.

Moving to other interactional features, rephrasing can be distinguished as self-rephrasing and other-rephrasing, which play various functions in the classroom. For example, rephrasing supports the functions of providing appealed help or assistance (Dörnyei and Scott 1997, Tarone and Yule 1987) to someone who did not understand a word, phrase or even a whole idea; and providing clarification (O’Malley and Chamot 1990) of something that was not completely understood in the class. These functions resemble those in ELF encounters related to solving communication breakdowns. Mauranen (2012), for instance, observed that English Native Language (ENL) speakers use more rephrasing than ELF speakers; and, when rephrasing happens in ELF, minor adjustments are made. This brings a possible contribution to ‘explain the common intuitive perception that people have of L2 speakers correcting themselves more’ (Mauranen 2012: 218), which feeds the idea about how an individual can be influenced by their own perception *of* and *through* the interaction. An example of oral speech adjustment is the following extract taken from Mauranen (2012:218, author’s emphasis):

#### Extract 3.4

*i don't think that it's in not for a i don't have this feeling that...* (ELFA)

Extract 3.4 illustrates an adjustment of the same idea that, in this case, is a reporting clause marked in italics by Mauranen (2012). That is to say, the speaker self rephrased his/her starting utterance with another phrase, which attempted to re-establish what the speaker was trying to say. A more ELT-oriented term for this perception might be monitoring, or when learners are aware of their own language production and are able to self-repair, for example. However, coming back to Mauranen's (2012) findings, the author also found that there is no evidence that ELF rephrases change meaning or the main idea of the previous utterance, but that its form (e.g. morphology, syntax, etc., all levels) differs slightly to ENL interaction. Nevertheless, she emphasises that this last finding needs further research due to its limited amount of samples in her data. Another interactional pragmatic strategy that links to repetition and paraphrasing is repair.

### 3.3 Repair strategy

Repair has been studied in various ways within ELT and represents a key term in classroom interaction theory as seen in chapter 2. The repair sequence model observed in daily talk, which shows how repair behaves in terms of who does repair and who initiates it –self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated self-repair, other-initiated other-repair (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks 1977)– has been useful to understand corrective features in the classroom (Cameron 2001, Markee 2000).

In this sense, Walsh (2011) suggests some resemblances like when teachers 'indicate an error has been made and get the learner who made it to correct it' (p. 14), which can be associated to other-initiated self-repair. Other examples are self-initiated self-repair as a way for a learner's own monitoring process to evaluate their oral language production and other-initiated other-repair, when teachers are playing their assessment roles towards learners' oral production. In addition, in order to confirm comprehension, self-initiated other-repair and other-initiated self-repair are used as means of clarification checks where paraphrase may bring support when one of the interlocutors provide an interpretation of what they heard previously. See the following example from Kaur (2011b: 2707):

## Extract 3.5

- (1) S:        yes for-for you know for infrastructure also building something you know cemong- er cement and you know . . .(0.8) steel
- (2) A:        so what about- eh you have any:: for example like us we have identification card . . .(0.8) you guys have identifision-identification?=  
=
- (3) L:        okay let- let me chick- check the article huh?

Extract 3.5 shows an example of self-initiated self-repair in turn (1). The speaker 'S' self corrected the word 'cement' which was mispronounced. Similarly, the speaker 'L' self-initiated self-repaired the word 'check' in turn (3).

In terms of speaking activities, Harmer (2007) suggests that learners should be able 'to speak in a range of different genres and situations, and they will have to be able to use a range of conversational and conversational repair strategies' (p. 343). Such repair strategies are considered also as a way to survive in any conversation. They consist of repetition and paraphrase, among other strategies, in order for learners to be successful in face-to-face conversation. The term 'repair' in this case is similar to Deterding (2013) –who studied ELF interaction– as it interconnects with other interactional pragmatic strategies such as repetition and rephrasing.

Other ELT repair functions can be observed in classroom strategies such as own-accuracy check (Dörnyei and Scott 1997), when one is self-monitoring or checking one's comprehension or production –namely listening and speaking accordingly– (O'Malley and Chamot 1990), in order to make amendments or to clarify the intended meaning in the conversation. Under classroom interaction studies, pedagogical suggestions have been made regarding repair but combined mainly with repetition. For example, Seedhouse (2004) has suggested various strategies for utterance repairing through repetition; for example: 'repeat the word or phrase or part of a word which the learner used immediately prior to the error' and 'repeat the original question or initiation' (p. 167).

Moving to ELF research, repair has also been a target of study. Here, repair together with other interactional pragmatic strategies (e.g. repetition, rephrasing, and so on), are conceived to serve increasing comprehensibility and prevent

misunderstanding (Kaur 2011a, 2011b) that are translated into language support that help speakers to achieve and/or maintain conversation. An ELF researcher that has devoted investigation to repair is Kaur. She studied the nature and functions of ELF talk by using her 15 hours of data of naturally occurring interaction. Her findings show that repair can play four different functions: modeling a standard pronunciation to address grammatical troubles, replacing lexical choices and as sentence completion (Kaur 2011a). Take for example the following extract taken from Kaur 2011b: 2707):

#### Extract 3.6

(2) A: so what about- eh you have any:: for example like us we have identi-  
ididentification card . . .(0.8) you guys have identifision-  
identification?=  
=

Extract 3.6 shows self-repair of mispronunciation. The speaker, despite having used the word 'identification' after some hesitations -which might signal he/she was not sure about the term since the beginning-, mispronounced the word later, and showed uncertainty about the term 'identification' at the end of the utterance marked with a question mark, as if appealing for assistance. Unfortunately, extract 3.6 was used to show a pronunciation-repair finding, and there were no follow-up turns that help to observe how other possible repairs might have overcome the lexical trouble too.

As noted above, all these functions are linked to the various linguistic levels of language which, from my point of view, are more form-related rather than content- or meaning-related. She concludes that ELF repair provides support and, in some way, assistance to the interlocutor speaking, which means that repair does not necessarily happen for amendment purposes only, but as a way to co-construct language and foster learning in the case of classroom interaction. A second paper by Kaur (2011b) focuses on self-repair in ELF interaction. It shows repair differences when it plays either a 'correcting' function or a 'raising explicitness' function. By 'correcting' repairs she suggests these are closely linked to lexical, morphological, and/or syntactical troubles, similar to her previous paper. By contrast, the 'raising explicitness' function implies that breakdowns can be avoided, where its purpose of being in the conversation is to

provide an alternative reference of what has been said before, or to add more information. That is to say, repair can interplay as ‘a modification or confirmation of a previous contribution’ (Hynninen 2011: 967) in conversation. From this ELF perspective, Kaur concludes that repair (and more specifically self-repair) is a powerful tool that helps speakers to enhance clarity. In the case of self-repair, Mauranen (2006) mentions that it is quite difficult to determine self-repair functions ‘since their primary motive could be either making meaning clearer, or interaction smoother, but also gaining more planning time’ (p. 147).

Nevertheless, Smit’s (2010) analysis of classroom interaction of English Medium Instruction modules of a Hotel Management Programme in Austria suggests a set of repairable problems –namely the language problems or troubles (Seedhouse 2004) that are solved in the classroom– organized into three main blocks: 1) linguistic that comprises pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary problems; 2) interactional that includes mishearing, reference or referential meaning, and discourse problems; and 3) regulative that attends instructional problems that refers to lesson contents and regulative problems that are related to the organisation of the lesson.

This framework has served as my starting point to develop my analytical framework (see Chapter 5). In the case of this research, repair has been studied under its interactional strategic functions as a way to overcome conversation breakdowns, as a means to look for communication achievement that can come up in both ways: self-repair or other-repair. My decision, in this case, to adopt only who does repair –and excluding who initiates it– conforms to the aim of this research, which looks for an understanding about how interactional pragmatic strategies converge in order to solve communicative problems within classroom interaction; and, from this perspective, repair is considered as a strategy similar to repetition and rephrasing; in other words, as a micro interactional strategy (see 2.2.3). A fourth strategy that has been considered to help fulfill the purpose of mutual understanding is code-switching.

### **3.4 Code-switching strategy**

Code-switching has been broadly defined as ‘the alternation of language choices in conversation’ (Li Wei 2002: 164). This phenomenon has got a robust literature that comprises an array of terms e.g. crossing (Rampton 1998), translanguaging

(Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012, García and Li Wei 2014), language shifting (Bullock and Toribio 2009), etc, depending on the approach (e.g. linguistic, social, educational, etc.) from which that is studied. For example, translanguaging is a current term that is used in bilingualism and bilingual education that refers to the dynamic and functional use of two (or more) languages in order to understand, to speak, or to learn, among other target actions (Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012). Another example is the term language shifting that refers to bilingual behaviors that individuals adopt in certain contexts (e.g. home) where they do not exclusively speak in one language only (Bullock and Toribio 2009). Like these examples, there are more characterisations of code-switching in the literature; nevertheless, the term code-switching will be kept simple in this thesis for consistency, and will be conceptualised as those instances of language alternation in the course of interaction.

In ELT, code-switching has been conceptualised as the use of the first language (L1 henceforth) in the foreign/second language classroom (L2 henceforth). Although code-switching was perceived as error or an interfering factor in L2 oral production in early ELT literature, this perception has evolved to receive a more positive acceptance in later times, and consider code-switching as a facilitator to overcoming limitations in speaking and writing (Brown 2007). Some functions of code-switching in the classroom include the fact that it is useful to notice differences between their L1 in respect to their L2 (Harmer 2007) for example, when explaining difficult grammar points (Littlewood and Yu 2011). In addition, it is useful for students 'to notice differences between their L1 and the target language' and 'to keep a social atmosphere of the class in good repair' (Harmer 2007: 133-134). More interactional functions view code-switching as a form of support for asking for clarification/confirmation or appealing for help/assistance (Dörnyei and Scott 1997, Tarone and Yule 1987) in cases where interlocutors share the same L1s.

ELT recent studies about code-switching have suggested a fair number of functions in classroom use. For instance, Copland and Neokleous (2010) identified various functions of code-switching in approximately 6 hours of classroom interaction in a Cypriot private language institution. These included logistics (organising), explaining/revising language skills and systems, instructions, question and answer, reprimands, jokes, praise, translating, markers, providing hints and giving options (p. 272). They observed that the

amount of code-switching use in the classroom depended more on teachers' decisions rather than problematic events in communication.

Another study from Sampson (2012) suggests another set of functions. In his research of classroom talk carried out in two monolingual Spanish groups in Colombia with adult learners studying general English, he found various functions such as equivalence, in which there is an absence of a lexical item, similar to translation (Copland and Neokleos 2010). Other functions include: metalanguage, to refer to discussions around the tasks such as procedural regulative issues; flooring holding, when the speaker wants to continue talking without being interrupted, so L1 is fast to be retrieved within the English discourse; reiteration, 'when messages have already been expressed in L2, yet are highlighted or clarified in L1, particularly in cases where they are perceived to have not been understood' (Sampson 2012: 298); socialising, which offers a strategy for coping with mistakes such as through jokes; and L2 avoidance that is observed in learners that appear to know the language to express something yet they do it in their L1 instead. Both Copland and Neokleos (2010) and Sampson (2012) studies agree that some functions derived from code-switching overlap. Take for example the following extract taken from Sampson (2012: 296, *author's emphasis*):

#### Extract 3.7

T: For example Yopal, where is it? In Cundinamarca?

F: Er no, it's in Meta.

C: *Sí, Yopal está en Meta.* [Yes, Yopal is in Meta.]

T: Okay, so here's a map. C's

Extract 3.7 illustrates a reiteration of previous information. Participant C did code-switching into Spanish in order to confirm participant F's answer; such code-switching implied understanding among speakers at the same time as he/she was repeating the answer; notice that both code-switching and repetition worked together along interaction. Therefore, it is important to take into account that interactional pragmatic strategies do not work alone most of the time and this needed to be considered in my own analysis. While the functions above refer to

mainly pedagogical issues, there are other perspectives in which code-switching has been studied as well.

In ELF studies, for example, Klimpfinger (2009) is one of the ELF researchers who carried out a study on code-switching in ELF interaction where she analysed 12 hours of naturally occurring conversation in form of eight speech events. She found that there were 104 instances of code-switching in her data that had a form of single words, short phrases or longer chunks. Regarding its function, this author suggests that code-switching contributes to the achievement of understanding among ELF participants through different functions such as specifying an addressee in order to integrate a person into the conversation; introducing another idea, especially if the group considers starting its discussion in their L1; appealing for assistance in order to reach communicative goals; and signaling culture in form of L1's exclamation, pause fillers or others that provide 'a linguistic emblem of this culture' (Klimpfinger 2009: 352) or through L1 switches that serve as conceptual associations of a 'specific culture' (Ibid.). Klimpfinger (2009) concludes that code-switching can be considered as an extra tool for communication because it is an intrinsic element in ELF interaction so it is an integral part of the ELF discourse.

Another paper refers to Cogo's (2009) code-switching research that follows an accommodation framework. Derived from her 10-hour data analysis, she suggests that 'language carries significant symbolic meaning, values and identities and the switch from one language to another would index certain views, values and identities' (p. 264) from a macro-perspective. However, she advises that code-switching can be viewed under a micro perspective (Mauranen 2012) as well, where 'a link between languages and social values and functions' (Cogo 2009: 264) are to be displayed in various ways; similar to Li Wei's (1998) suggestion of the 'bringing along meaning' symbols that are associated with codes to provide values and the 'bringing about meaning' symbols that refer to negotiation of meaning, but with a more sociolinguistic orientation. In this vein, she found that code-switching functions are threefold: as 'meaning making and greater nuances of expression' (p. 268), as 'intercultural communication to ensure understanding' (p. 268) and 'as a strategy for signaling solidarity and membership into the same community' (p. 269). Accordingly, she concludes suggesting that communication strategies such as code-switching are very important in ELF interaction, especially because of its particular characteristic of multiculturalism, in which individuals should gain awareness, appreciation and acceptance of diversity (p. 270).

Such multicultural values that interactants bring to their repertoires represent another feature that, if managed consciously, could transform into a powerful interactional pragmatic strategy. Here, a parenthesis is needed because it seems that speakers use code-switching (as well as repetition, rephrasing, and repair) without realising they are doing so in the course of a conversation, or as Klimpfinger (2009) notes, code-switching is done unintentionally most of the time. An example of this can be seen in the following extract. It was taken and edited from Klimpfinger (2009: 360, author's emphasis):

#### Extract 3.8

S4: er s- i say (.) er is a little thing my dean says {whispered parallel conversation starts} that the best way to learn a language is to have a boy g- er er friend or <4><un> xx </un> @ </4> @@@

S3: <4> er <L1 fr> **oui oui** {yes yes} </L1 fr> </4>

SS: <4> @@@@ </4>

Extract 3.8 shows participant S3 using code-switching as a way to react to the previous utterance. It is clear S3 did understand S4's comment and expressed his/her agreement immediately by using his/her L1, perhaps unintentionally. Such a reaction signaled S3's L1 –French– background. From a more interactional perspective, repetition can be observed as well, which indicates once more that interactional pragmatic strategies overlap sometimes. In this way, they interrelate and/or interface one another most of the time in order to fulfill the array of functions reviewed in the various sections in this chapter. So, IPSs approximation is discussed next.

### 3.5 IPSs approximation

Interactional pragmatic strategies comprise a set of related phenomena that are separated for analytical convenience including repetition, paraphrasing, repair and code-switching, because these were the most common micro-strategies found in my data. Each of them has displayed various functions to serve communication in ELT, classroom interaction and ELF studies. Such a functional perspective may help learners (potential L2 users) to produce language in a

strategic form. We have seen that some interactional-oriented functions are related to ELF talk, such as to gain time, to negotiate meaning, to make the discourse easy or discourse smoothing, for cohesion to earlier discourse or to catch up and to get and keep the floor (Larsen-Freeman 2012), among others. For example, Mauranen's (2012) contributions exemplify repetition as a way for gaining time in order to maintain the floor in a conversation. Therefore, it is clear that although interaction might differ slightly in its nature (e.g. setting, purpose, interactants' roles), they share one same purpose: to understand each other and to communicate. An example of this point can be observed in the following extracts that show interaction from different settings: classroom and business.

#### Extract 3.9

##### *Interaction in the classroom*

NS: are they facing one another?

NNS: Facing?

NS: **um are the chairs at opposite ends of the table or-**

NNS: yeah

(Pica 1993: 440, author' emphasis)

#### Extract 3.10

##### *(2) ELF interaction in business*

Joern (German) per'haps the 'site 'might 'have a 'short **comment** on 'that/[yes]..and.er. 'that 'might **help/** [yes] a **preface** or 'something like that/..

Karl (Dutch) ..I 'think.I 'think... 'sorry.. but you **mean/..**

Joern (German) ....you 'may 'have a 'short **comment/..** at the **beginning/**

(Pensions meeting) [yeah.so it is..]

(Rogerson-Revell 2008: 352, author's emphasis)

Both extracts aim to convey meaning. The first one, obtained from classroom interaction between two learners –a native speaker (NS) and a non-native speaker (NNS)– shows meaning negotiation of the word ‘facing’. This word was not clear for the NNS so it was paraphrased. The second extract was taken from BELF interaction. This was a meeting where interactants conveyed the meaning of ‘preface’ throughout a paraphrase as well. Therefore, the shared interactional pragmatic strategy was paraphrasing. From this example, interactions of any kind might include repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching, among other interactional pragmatic strategies because they are implicit in communication. Therefore, it is possible to observe how some functions overlap in ELT, classroom, and/or ELF interaction.

While my purpose to present these examples is to show the approximation of phenomena in different settings –classroom and business meetings–, these were discussed in their papers according to each authors’ research objectives. Pica (1993) suggests, for instance, that such negotiation of meaning signals how NNS learners are sensitive to particular segments of NS input. While this might be true in classrooms with both NS and NNS students, there is still more research to do in order to observe negotiation of meaning outcomes in classrooms where there is a very small amount of NS learners or none of them such as the ones in the present study (see participants in Chapter 5).

Similarly, when observing in the literature more examples about communicative strategies in ELT, pragmatic strategies in ELF, and interactional strategies in Classroom Interaction discourse, a singular phenomenon was observed: all of them had micro-strategies mentioned in their descriptions including repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching among others. So, a way to observe the various levels of strategies is suggested in the form of a framework that helps to distinguish interactional pragmatic strategies better from other strategies. Level 1 includes the macro strategies, namely those larger strategies that mention micro-strategies in their descriptions. Level 2, therefore, includes the micro strategies or IPSs (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 shows some meeting points among macro-strategies, IPSs and the various study fields. These are shown in the table because it is necessary to say that IPSs coincide in helping to explain phenomena in each one of the fields. Therefore, they are considered as the base of any description of macro-strategy

investigated in various fields of study. This links closely to the IPSs observed in theory (see Table 2.1 in Chapter 2) in which such micro-strategies are considered as part of descriptions.

**Table 3** Communication Strategy Levels

<i>Level 1</i> <b>Macro-strategies</b>	<i>Level 2</i> <b>Micro-strategies / IPSs</b>			
	<b>RPT</b>	<b>RPHR</b>	<b>RPR</b>	<b>CS</b>
<b>Accommodation</b> (Shepard et. al. 2001, Cogo & Dewey 2012)	CI, ELF	CI, ELF	CI, ELF	CI, ELF
<b>Clarification</b> (O'Malley and Chamot 1990, Hedge 2000, Markee 2000, Mauranen 2012)	ELT, CI, RT, ELF	ELT, CI, RT, ELF	ELT, CI, RT, ELF	ELT, CI, ELF
<b>Negotiation of Meaning</b> (Pica 1993, Varonis & Gass 1985, Rogerson-Revell 2008)	ELT, CI, ELF	ELT, CI, ELF	ELT, CI, ELF	ELT, CI, ELF
<b>Rectification</b> (Harmer 2007, Cameron 2001, Walsh 2011, Deterding 2013)	ELT, RT, CI, ELF	ELT, RT, CI, ELF	ELT, RT, CI, ELF	ELT, RT, CI, ELF
<b>Gaining time</b> (get and keep the floor) (Dörnyei & Scott 1997, Scott	ELT, CI, ELF	ELT	ELT, CI	ELT

2000, Hedge 2000, Cogo 2009)				
<b>Pre-empting</b>  (Kaur 2011a, 2011b, Mauranen 2012)	ELT, ELF	ELT, ELF	ELT, ELF	ELT, ELF

*Key: RPT= Repetition, RPHR= Rephrasing, RPR= Repair, CS= Code-switching, ELT= English Language Teaching, CI= Classroom Interaction, RT= Repair Theory, ELF= English as a Lingua Franca*

Then, Table 3.1 shows links among levels of strategies and study fields. The macro-strategy of Clarification, for instance, has been mentioned in ELT, Classroom Interaction, Repair Theory and ELF literature by referring one or more IPSs in their descriptions. This is potentially useful to my eclectic approach because it shows:

1. that IPSs are not discrete in terms of belonging to a specific field of study. As long as communication takes place, interlocutors are prone to use IPSs at some point in the course of their interaction despite their contextual domain.
2. empirical data examples, which provide a panorama of IPSs resources usage in terms of solving communication breaks.
3. interactional descriptions that illustrate the interconnectivity among IPSs, despite examples are generally emphasized to one specific IPS due to the author's focus of study.
4. micro-strategies considered in my analytical framework (see chapter 5) are not comprehensive because I only focused on the most frequent ones observed in my data (see chapter 6).

Such a transversal view of IPSs in the various fields helped me to understand better and realise about the various levels of communication strategies, but more importantly, that communication breakdowns is not a particular phenomenon, but a shared phenomenon in which ultimate goal is to reach mutual understanding. For example, see the following extract taken from an analysis of code-switching in ELT made by Sampson (2012).

**Extract 3.11**

**T:** For example Yopal, where is it? In Cundinamarca?

**F:** Er no, it's in Meta.

**C:** *Sí, Yopal está en Meta.* [Yes, Yopal is in Meta.]

**T:** Okay, so here's a map. C's

(Sampson, 2012, p. 296, *author's emphasis*)

Although the emphasis is on code-switching phenomenon, other micro-strategies play a role too in order to reach understanding. That is to say, while speaker C uses code-switching to enhance his own understanding and learning, he/she is also using repetition of the place (Meta). In addition, participant F is using repair. Noticing that while the main focus remains on Code-switching for Sampson (2012), from an alternative perspective, more IPSs are immersed in reaching understanding. Like this one, there is a myriad of examples in the literature in which IPSs can be evidenced working together to overcome breakdowns and enhance understanding. This singular feature of interconnectivity among IPSs is the base of my methodology framework (see Chapter 5).

Therefore, it is highly important in this research is to observe how interactional pragmatic strategies work to overcome communicative breaks that may cause problems for understanding in the teaching-learning process. In the communicative sense, IPSs not only help to transmit one's own ideas, but they also help to double check what is heard; therefore, both speaking production and listening comprehension may take advantage of IPSs. For example, although we may have a high amount of vocabulary, it is necessary to get used to hearing/listening different types of pronunciation, namely English accents and varieties, especially the ones students are prone to hear when working; but this will be discussed in the next chapter.

### **3.6 Summary**

This chapter has focused on revising interactional pragmatic strategies. These included a review of the functions that repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-

switching entail in different settings. This leads to observing there exist levels of communicative strategies that are immersed in various study fields such as ELT, Classroom Interaction and ELF. However, due to the different characteristics that each study field owns, a question about whether strategies should be part of what is taught in current language modules emerges. This is something that only research can answer based on empirical studies. Moreover, this links to the idea of what is needed or appropriate to be taught in the language classroom, which makes the English language curriculum more relevant to learners:

[...] it (English) has to relate to the context of the learners, to the *local* context of what they know of the language, but also to their attitudes, values, how they see the world –in short, their reality. So the English of the subject has to be something they can *engage* with and make real for themselves. In this sense, appropriate English is English that they can *appropriate* (Widdowson 2012: 12, author's emphasis).

Widdowson (2012) and his experience in language and linguistics studies have referred to the 'appropriateness' characteristic of the kind of English that students need to learn: the one related to students' realities, purposes and context. A way to look at such elements is through learner's local context and attitudes. This lead us not to limit our thought about mere linguistic-problem solving strategies to be taught in the classroom, but to go beyond and find out about their users' perceptions. In the case of this research, learner's perceptions regarding the English they need or desire to learn to be used in future working settings is important. It seems that to a great extent perceptions shape interaction that can happen in the classroom (Trinder and Herles 2013), not only to develop the class, but also to the attempt to prepare students for future linguistic encounters. The next chapter reviews perceptions.

## **Chapter 4: Perceptions and IPSs: classroom and workplace**

This chapter focuses on language learners' perceptions towards English, with special attention towards interactional pragmatic strategies. Therefore, this chapter will review perceptions in two aspects. First, it reviews perceptions regarding communication and interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs henceforth) in the language classroom and, second, it examines perceptions both in general English and work-oriented business English. Both perspectives are important at this point because although participants in my study are students now, they will become workers who might need to face oral business situations in their work places in the near future, and make use of IPSs to overcome any possible communication breakdown in the course of their interactions. In addition, understanding what teachers think about overcoming communicative problems is equally relevant because interaction is what 'lies at the very heart of teaching, learning, and professional development' (Li and Walsh 2011: 42). Firstly, perceptions are conceptualised to clarify the uses of this term. This is discussed next.

### **4.1 Perceptions conceptualised**

Perception is a term that has been used extensively in literature depending on the study fields (e.g. neuro-linguistics); also, there are differences in how to approach perception within the same field. For example, a branch in the field of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF henceforth) includes research about perceptions. However, these have been presented as attitudes (Jenkins 2007) and, at other times, as perceptions (Cogo 2010). Whether it is true that both attitudes and perceptions might be interrelated, for the sake of the present research it is important to revise these concepts briefly. Broadly defined, perception refers to the capacity to understand something based on an idea, a belief, an image, an opinion, an expectation, a need, a value, or even a conflict; while an attitude is related to behaviour shaped by feelings, thoughts, opinions, and emotions (Cambridge 2013; Merriam-Webster 2013; Oxford 2011). Some prestigious dictionaries, then, may distinguish them with perception referring to the ability to comprehend while, an attitude, to behavioural patterns. Despite this difference, there is a fine

line that links both perception and attitudes that is the person himself/herself. In other words, both perceptions and attitudes originate from people's inner thoughts of reflection towards other people (e.g. lifestyles, behavior, etc.), or to an object (e.g. English language, ELF, etc.). However, this distinction is not clear-cut.

More scholarly-oriented texts provide an umbrella of possibilities for a definition of perceptions. That is to say, perceptions are defined or conceptualised depending on the way they are studied, and it is easily interchangeable with other terms such as attitudes or beliefs (for a review of these terms see Wesely 2012). For example, in acquisition studies it is common to use the term beliefs to refer to 'opinions and ideas that learners (and teachers) have about the task of learning a second/foreign language' (Kalaja and Barcelos 2003: 1). Furthermore, under a social view, attitude suggests 'an evaluative orientation to a social object of some sort' (Garret 2010: 20) that can be cognitive, affective or behavioral (Garret, Coupland and Williams 2003). Cognitive attitudes refer, in a general sense, to those beliefs that individuals have about the world (e.g. there are people that think that if they learn English they would get a good job). Affective attitudes are more related to feelings (e.g. a positive or negative perception towards a certain variety of English). Behavioural attitudes deal with certain predispositions that make people act in a specific way (e.g. the idea that British English sounds more 'well-spoken' or 'posh' compared to American English). Or, if we move to the study of attitudes in second/foreign language learning/acquisition, attitudes are more likely to be termed beliefs. Under such beliefs, various approaches provide their own definition: the normative approach, for example, sees beliefs 'as indicators of students' future behaviour as autonomous and good learners' (Barcelos 2003: 11); in the metacognitive approach, students 'reflect on what they are doing to develop potential for learning' (Ibid. 16); and, the contextual approach sees beliefs as a constructed action in everyday practice 'and how they may change and take shape in the social context of learning (Ibid. 17).

Despite these terminological differences, both definitions –attitudes and beliefs– seek to provide individual's views (namely opinions, ideas, orientations, or even evaluation) on a certain object or subject, in other words, an individual's perceptions. Perception, therefore, will be considered as a general term in which attitudes and beliefs are immersed, meaning those thoughts, ideas or opinions. This suits the present research well because one of its aims is to look for an understanding of students' and teachers' perceptions regarding interactional

pragmatic strategies used in the language classroom and their own view about how to overcome some communicative pitfalls in order to achieve mutual understanding. In this sense, although there's vast literature on language perceptions, teaching strategies, learning strategies and individual communicative strategies, e.g. repetition, there is still not much about how teachers and students think of interactional pragmatic strategies as a whole machine that lets communication happen. Perceptions of this kind might provide a basis in which a series of teacher training sessions, for instance, can be planned in order to raise awareness of how English has evolved in this globalised era in terms of who the speakers of English are nowadays –not only native, but non-native– as well as how it works in terms of strategic behaviour in different contexts.

## 4.2 Perceptions in the English language teaching field

As seen in 4.1, perceptions are complex to explore due to their different ways – approaches, purposes, settings, and other characteristics– in which they can possibly be studied, and the language education field is not the exception. Most of the time, 'our attitudes to the language, and to the way it is taught, reflect cultural biases and beliefs about how we should communicate and how we should educate each other' (Harmer 2007: 77), which brings another aspect to perceptions that refers to speakers' socio-cultural backgrounds. Their socio-cultural backgrounds also shape perceptions and possible meaning that interlocutors aim to communicate. Attitudes, then, are reflected through utterances that evidence 'the speaker's attitudes, social roles, the type of situation, attitudes, etc.' (Archer, Aijmer and Wichmann 2012: 7).

Despite its extensive research and contributions to teaching-learning settings, there is still criticism in respect to some dichotomies that are worth paying attention to while investigating perceptions. For instance, the 'chicken-egg causality dilemma' in which there is a remaining question about whether perceptions are created due to experiences, or whether experiences shape perceptions. If we transfer this into a teaching-learning context, this dichotomy might be translated as whether the teacher's practices shape learners' perceptions or, the other way round, whether what learners perceive outlines teachers' practices. From my point of view, this resembles a cycle in which both

ways happen at some point during the teaching-learning process; in which perceptions and experiences are strictly linked and influence each other. Another dichotomy refers to participants' nature; that is to say, perceptions may vary in respect to a student whose major is in English language teaching in comparison with a student studying business. Their studies are different; therefore, their beliefs might be too. That is why the following section will attempt to review language teachers' and learners' perceptions derived from both general English and business English, the latter because the research took place in the English for Business module.

#### 4.2.1 Perceptions about communicative strategies in interaction

One of the fields in which language perception has been researched extensively is English language teaching. In ELT, perceptions are conceived as an important feature in learners. Language learners' success may depend on what they think or believe about the language class or learning context:

Learner beliefs are nowadays considered a critical influence on what students do (or refuse to do) in and out of the classroom (Trinder and Herles 2013: 220).

Thus, being considered as a 'critical influence', perceptions –namely either beliefs or attitudes– have received considerable amount of research, which covers different aspects of this phenomenon such as individuals' beliefs (e.g. Lasagabaster and Sierra 2010), motivations (e.g. Dörnyei 2000) and learning centered teaching (e.g. Jarvis and Szymczyk 2010), to mention a few. In terms of language education, Garret (2010) points out that attitudes are important to receive or produce language. In other words, he states that 'language attitudes and the socio-cultural norms that they relate to are an integral part of our communicative competence' [...] (p. 21). This is relevant to my study as the focus is on, precisely, communicative strategies that entail the use or development of pragmatics within interaction. Moving to teachers' perceptions, Ishihara (2010) suggests that:

Teacher beliefs tend to be largely influenced by experience from their own learning, professional training, and teaching experiences. Teacher beliefs are also likely to affect teachers' perceptions, thinking process, and decision-making in the classroom (p. 25).

Therefore, pre-conceived beliefs also have implications for teaching and learning processes. In Mexico, a fresh area of investigation in the field of ELT is perceptions. Some publications have focussed on topics of teachers' perception based on their role in the classroom (Narváez Trejo and Heffington 2010) as well as perception of strategies of various kinds: learning strategies (Murrieta Loyo, Reyes Cruz and Hernández Méndez 2009), socio-affective strategies (Rodríguez Hernández and Rodríguez Bulnes 2009) and beliefs under a normative approach (Rojas Dorta and Reyes Cruz 2009). Only one paper has been found which looked at perceptions in the area of communicative strategies by Domínguez Aguilar and Moreno Gloggner (2009).

Domínguez Aguilar and Moreno Gloggner (2009) gathered teachers and students' perceptions about communication strategies to be able to identify these in some control-shaped speaking tasks. Findings on perceptions were contradictory among teachers and students. While teachers believed they provided frequent explicit suggestion on how to overcome speaking troubles, students thought they did not receive suggestions from teachers frequently but from time to time. In addition, while teachers perceived they frequently discussed (or reflected on) the uses of strategies with students, most of students mentioned such an action happened rarely. Although teachers' and students' perceptions differ greatly, teachers' comments regarding students' use of strategies included code-switching, paraphrasing and repetition (of information and choral repetition), among others. Having these contradictory results, the authors decided to move forward to a second phase of the research in which they identified communicative strategies within students' interaction. What they found was that paraphrasing and self-repetition, among other strategies, were used more frequently when students encountered troubles communicating. Domínguez Aguilar and Moreno Gloggner (2009) conclude that students have a limited knowledge of communicative strategies and make use of them rarely in order to solve problems in English communication.

A more recent study about learners' perceptions is Petek's (2013), who used a questionnaire and interviews to study contrasting beliefs and practices. His findings indicate a contradiction between the two. Here, the author suggests that IPSs could help the language classroom. He considered repetition and rephrasing (among other strategies) as part of negotiation of meaning; and suggested that code-switching (namely L1 use in the classroom) should be balanced and flexible depending on the nature of tasks (e.g. a grammar task is different from a

listening task), or depending on the teacher's culture. In other words, when the teacher shares the same nationality as a student's, code-switching use may vary from teacher-student non-shared backgrounds. Petek (2013), then, carried out explorative research about beliefs and practices of native and non-native English teachers regarding classroom interaction. Two of the research questions focused on observing: 1) strategies in negotiation of meaning, and 2) the frequency of mother tongue use. Participants were two teachers, one native (NS) and the other a non-native English speaker (NNS), teaching students at elementary level. Four lessons in two groups were audio recorded and transcribed, in addition to semi-structured interviews. Under a content analysis method, results showed that the NNS teacher who shared the same L1 with students used repetition, rephrasing and code-switching more than the NS teacher. In this sense, the author concludes that the teacher used repetition (and other strategies) because it was the quickest way 'to check understanding and keep the communication going' (p. 1198). Furthermore, one should not overuse repetition because it 'may end up with students' imitating the teacher (Ibid.). In the case of code-switching, it was accepted as long it is used in a balanced way, only when necessary.

Other classroom perceptions refer to textbooks and discussion topics. Wolf (2013), for example, carried out a study about language learners' perceptions regarding textbooks and self-selected topics, in which meaning negotiation strategies were discussed. Through a questionnaire he found that learners' perceptions towards topic development fall more on how students consider the topics important and difficult rather than being interesting or to gain knowledge. In addition, Wolf (2013) suggests that meaning negotiation strategies focus more on linguistic forms rather than meaning. In this sense, it could be that most problems in understanding are triggered by lexicon; however, most of the time vocabulary is attached to meaning in learners' L1s -implying that code-switching takes place at some point- as well as causing other related problems besides the communicative breakdown. For example, giving instructions in a class could be blurred if not all students understand certain terms (see a list of problems in Chapter 6).

From a more pragmatic view, Bjørge (2012) studied the disagreement speech event. She aimed to observe how business disagreement was addressed in a business English module from both materials and practices. So she audio recorded 25 simulated negotiations (6:38 hr/min) and reviewed 20 textbooks. By triangulating such data, she found that textbooks and oral practices mostly

included mitigation strategies. These strategies were considered laudable for helping to forge a positive environment in a meeting. In addition, these may possibly reduce *face-threatening* during the interaction. Nevertheless, she advises that there is a need to include practices for developing skills such as ‘getting the message across’ –by balancing between indirect and direct speech– and ‘stating one’s position’ in the negotiation. Both skills might be supported with the use of interactional pragmatic strategies, but there is no sign that these have been studied as a central topic so far. That represents a gap in the literature that needs to be investigated.

Since communication in English is what drives the present research, it is necessary to find out teachers’ and learners’ perceptions regarding English relevance and importance. Therefore, a review not only about IPSs perceptions is needed, but also about English in general so that a better picture of English communication shaped by teachers and learners is established.

#### 4.2.2 English language perceptions

Ranta (2010) carried out an investigation where she asked both Finnish students and teachers about their views of English by using surveys. One part of her findings, related to students’ expectations of English, suggests that a large amount of students had a clear idea about their future English encounters. They said these encounters might be more likely with non-native speakers rather than native speakers, which coincides with businessmen’s perceptions (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen 2010, Rogerson-Revell 2008). Nevertheless, there is still a fair amount of students that showed they are still uncertain about such encounters; from my point of view, these are the students that might need a lecture regarding international communication with examples of real interactions, namely native-native or ELF. Despite such uncertainty, the author suggests that most of those learners have an awareness about how English will be used in their future, in real life, something which differs from the English they are receiving at school (e.g. where there is an emphasis on grammar).

Moving to teachers’ views, they perceived English as an instrument that their students will use for purposes of education, work, travelling and media, amongst others. A point to highlight here is that teachers also showed an awareness of possible NNS interactions that their students may face. Nevertheless, teachers

still regarded NS models as the most appropriate for students to learn in order to achieve communication. This represents a contradiction in the sense that they are aware of the kind of interaction learners are more prone to –NNS– however, for some reason, they may have to teach native-like models. From here, another gap can be observed between English that is taught in ‘school’ and the ‘real’ or current English that is spoken in the workplace. These may differ in several features such as the use of grammar, pronunciation and others, including pragmatics.

Another paper that supports this idea is Pan and Block’s (2011) study of English beliefs. Perceptions of English were investigated both in general and later with a focus on their relevance to teachers’ and students’ motivations, exploring their subsequent impact on teaching and learning in language classrooms. Based on a questionnaire sent to 53 university teachers and 637 students from various subjects in China including humanities, social science, science and engineering; as well as some interviews, results from the questionnaire suggested that both teachers and students consider English as a global language that, in turn, implied great importance for development in China. In addition, from the qualitative interviews, student participants expressed that they see English as a way to get more opportunities in their professional careers as well, giving them ‘a window to the world’ (p. 396). Some others suggested that English could improve their status, that they would be considered more modern and international. Nevertheless, while these beliefs refer to social contact, teachers suggested that teaching and learning are mainly examination oriented, with focus on grammar. This raises again the issue of language materials that guide language lessons, which barely include interactions from real contexts.

From another perspective, Young and Walsh (2010) carried out a study to explore 26 teachers’ beliefs from different countries about the English model they learnt, the English model they actually teach and the English model they would teach if they had the choice. Then, through focus groups and interviews they found that none of their participants were aware about the English model they learnt. Their general idea was that they learnt ‘local’ English in the beginning to, later at college, learning a ‘standard’ form of American English focusing on native-like norms. Regarding the English model they were teaching, teachers expressed they were not sure about which variety they were currently teaching. Nevertheless, a few commented they desire to teach any form of ‘standard’ English oriented towards native-like norms, similarly to Ranta (2010) teachers’ perceptions. From

here, we can observe that there is a lack of awareness of the new outcomes that research has contributed regarding the extent to which English has spread in the globe, such as its varieties (e.g. Indian) as well as other interactional models like Lingua Franca encounters. Contrarily, in another paper about pragmatics and beliefs carried out by Cogo (2010), teenagers at secondary school and Erasmus students were asked about how they perceived ELF through interviews and focus groups. Findings showed that ELF communication was regarded as something positive –in general– in which communication skills received major attention. This aligns with Young and Walsh (2010) teacher perceptions in that teachers are more concerned about focussing on ‘clarity and utility’ (p. 136), purposes that interactional pragmatic strategies may support.

Being a contact language, ELF has also been investigated from attitudinal studies. Jenkins (2007), for example, designed and administrated a questionnaire in order to search for teacher’s perceptions regarding ELF accents in relation to native-like English accents. The 326 respondents –300 NNS and 26 NS– from different countries perceived that British English was ‘correct’, US English was acceptable, British English sounds pleasant and US English was familiar; these results were taken from the first option in a rank ordering of NNS preferences. She concludes that teachers prefer native-like accents, especially UK and US accents as are used in international communication; and it seemed that NNS accents (e.g. Chinese English accent) were commented on in terms of English used in lingua franca contexts. Therefore, once more, we find evidence of the lack of awareness of ELF interaction.

So far we have focused on teachers and learners’ perceptions towards English, but are we yet to look at issues related to teachers’ and learners’ uses of IPSs. Nevertheless, the reported perceptions have given a general idea of English orientations and awareness that might be complemented with a revision of business learners’ perceptions of English. In this sense, ‘whatever activity English language teachers introduce in their classroom is based on ideas and assumptions about language and learning’ (Widdowson 2012: 3), something that may influence the pedagogical process along the language module.

### 4.2.3 Perceptions of business English

The studies above had general English language modules as their base. Nevertheless, students studying English for specific purposes such as business may have other perceptions. In the case of this research, a major interest is oriented towards interactional pragmatic strategies and how these may help to overcome communication breakdowns, even in expected workplaces. So, the following paragraphs will attempt to review such aspects on business teachers' and learners' beliefs.

Business learners' perceptions regarding the English language have been largely studied in the form of English for Specific Purposes (ESP henceforth). Under the English Language Teaching framework, job specifics (e.g. technical vocabulary) are the focus of attention in the language classroom; that is to say, English is directly linked with tourism, business, engineering, or any other working field. In the case of business, two research trends have recently appeared. Those are contextualised communication and language strategies that are interconnected, and with only one purpose: to communicate successfully (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen 2010). 'Successfully', broadly defined, refers to an individual's favorable outcomes. Therefore, if someone gets to communicate something to another person, it means he or she succeeded in communication. Now, let's move to how business learners studying English perceive communication and interactional pragmatic strategies.

A study by Trinder and Herles (2013) regarding students' and teachers' perceptions about effective business English teaching, reveals that despite students having enough awareness about possible interactions among individuals from different places (e.g. with different nationalities) communicating through English, namely ELF –similar to Ranta's (2010), Cogo's (2010), and Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen's (2010) participants–, most students still believe they need a native-like exposure to English. This is mainly because they consider that to speak as near as a native is to be competent, which is related to issues of image and prestige for their working careers. Teachers' ideals, on the contrary, seek to plant in students the importance of effective communication, and making students aware of local and global constraints; such as too much content and less practice at a local level, and less funding at a global level.

Another study by Trinder (2013) related to beliefs about effective language learning in business students at a University in Vienna, which highlighted the

belief that ‘oral communicative competence is perceived as the benchmark of language learning success’ (p. 7). In addition, she also found learners’ perceptions varied in terms of ‘correct’ English. Some learners’ perceptions suggest that they ‘pay more attention to meaning rather than form’ (namely grammar), whilst others were attached to the idea that correctness ‘conveyed expertise, status and professionalism’ (p. 8) which links to ‘prestige views’. Thus, Trinder and Herles (2013) and Trinder (2013) show a panorama in which the features about image and prestige in business settings is widely important for students; this may be due to the common belief that when someone says the word ‘international’, it might refer to NS interaction. This preconceived perception needs to be clarified in the classroom with the help of language teachers so that students may gain awareness about ELF encounters.

Based on current research, working in international settings does not necessarily mean that the worker will be interacting with NS all the time; on the contrary, more and more NNS interactions are happening in such settings (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen 2010, Ehrenreich 2010) where ELF issues need to be considered (e.g. sociocultural differences, see Rogerson-Revell 2008). Yet, still, so far there has not been a study about how teachers think their students will use English in their workplace, as a way to observe how aware they are of work place interaction. This last point represents another aspect that deserves to be studied in depth in further research. Now, we turn to workplace perceptions, as a way to foresee language and IPSs in working settings.

### **4.3 Workplace perceptions**

Contemporary changes in the English language have had an impact across the globe, especially in international settings where it is used extensively and is therefore of great importance. This is not only because international trading or negotiations are generally carried out in English, but also because the speakers in those settings are not necessarily native speakers of English anymore, but are non-native speakers:

As many have observed, however, English is used as an international business language by native, second and foreign language speakers in a wide variety of interactions, and, not only by British and American native speakers (Planken and Nickerson 2009:112).

This has meant that international communication which takes place in business communities, has got the characteristics of English as a lingua franca (ELF) most of the time. Such ELF orientation is known as Business ELF or BELF. Such BELF orientation has been scarcely researched, especially from the academic formation of business professionals and even less from the interactional perspective. Therefore, the following sections will focus on reviewing various perceptions (e.g. English vs other languages, communication success and competence, and workplace interaction among others) in workplace settings, as well as perceptions regarding interactional pragmatics strategies.

#### **4.3.1 Perceptions of English vs other languages**

By using a questionnaire administered to a large body of business people in more than 20 countries and 15 interviews to very experienced Finnish business people, Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010) found that participants seemed to agree in respect to the use of English *versus* other languages. That is to say, such business people perceive that it is necessary to know a first language (L1) plus English (L2) in the work place. Only a small proportion mentioned the need for a third language (L3). Nevertheless, workers are also conscious that they use their L1 slightly more than their L2 at work, suggesting that code-switching happens in work settings. What they perceive as a fact is that workers interact more with non-native speakers of English (NNS) rather than native speakers (NS). This finding was expanded in another paper by the same authors. There, Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta (2011) suggest that ELF encounters (e.g. in meetings) are three times more common than only NS encounters.

#### **4.3.2 Perceptions of communication success and competence**

Regarding communicative success, Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010) found that professionals think it is good to know the other party's specific context, including their national and corporate cultures. This might help both parts to be in the same channel which, at the same time, make them share job specifics, namely common ground topics. In addition, it seems that ELF speakers rarely have misunderstandings while communicating, maybe because of the shared specialised knowledge. However, this does not mean that the latent need

to communicate effectively disappears. On the contrary, research on perceptions also seeks to contribute to the development of interactional pragmatic strategies that help interactants to overcome communicative pitfalls. Griffith (2002), for example, developed a model for enhancing effective communication in international business. By interviewing 123 managers from different nationalities, he found some key elements such as communicative competencies that needed to be linked to the communicative environment. The way he classified competencies was very similar to some perceptions types (see Garret, Coupland and Williams 2003). That is to say, communication competencies comprised three types: *cognitive* that refers to the ability to ‘ascertain meaning’ (p. 258); *affective* which is related to communicative emotional tendencies; and *behavioral* that entitles ‘individual flexibility and resourcefulness in reacting to communication encounter’ (p. 260). These, from my point of view, are important findings to business ELF; however, these are limited to mere description.

Moving back to Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010), they also researched successful communication in terms of competencies. Their findings suggest that business people have a very pragmatic conceptualisation of ‘proficiency’ different to what any language assessment tool might allude (e.g. the Cambridge levels worldwide known as KET, PET, FCE, CAE, CPE<sup>12</sup>). In other words, in the business domain, proficiency refers to a three-fold branch: *business communication competence*, where not only knowing English is important but also how to use it as a resource for communication skills; *business competencies*, where professionals acquire the knowledge of the job they do; and *the business know-how*, where application of the previous two works together (see also Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta 2011). This seems to be a more business oriented way to see business main elements, in which the strategic communicative competence (see 2.1.1) plays an important role. However, talking about assessment, it requires guidelines; and recent research about most used guidelines for assessing English worldwide such as the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR henceforth) has suggested that ELF interactional characteristics and interactional features are not considered as something necessary to be evaluated when communicating (Hynninen 2014, Pitzl 2015). This situation places importance on various IPSs that could be introduced,

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<sup>2</sup> Cambridge English: Key (KET), Cambridge English: Preliminary (PET), Cambridge English: First (CFE), Cambridge English: Advanced (CAE), Cambridge English: Proficiency (CPE).

taught, and/or implemented in English spoken practices from the language classroom and have a positive impact in the language that will be used in the workplace. IPSs, therefore, have an implicit characteristic in communicative competence.

Returning to business-oriented competencies, among perceptions in *business communication competence*, authors found the following: 1) grammar is considered important, but not essential; 2) there are accommodation practices (see 2.3.2.2) among interactants; and 3) important features for effective business communication include clarity, perceived as of higher importance to directness and politeness. These perceptions were confirmed in a follow-up study where interviews and focus groups were done as well by the same authors (Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta 2012). We turn now to workplace interaction.

### 4.3.3 Perceptions of workplace interaction

Interaction in business includes a wide range of encounters with NS and NNS. Therefore, ELF perceptions on interactions in business encounters are important. One of these findings regarding interaction can be seen in Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010), where issues of inequality are perceived. That is to say, there is a perception about the inequality between doing business with a NS rather than with a NNS. It is said that while NS of English have the advantage of their mother tongue, they easily gain ‘the upper hand’ in business; by contrast, when communication is done amongst NNS, everybody is on ‘the same footing’ so business interaction is more balanced. Certainly, between NS and NNS, it is somehow natural that uneven interactions occur in any business situation. Nevertheless, from my point of view, it is not just a matter of knowing the language to maintain the floor when negotiating but also knowing individual communication skills. In other words, the level of proficiency of English might not be such a decisive issue in negotiation, but the communication skills –in which interactional pragmatic strategies play a role– can be used to support one’s position. For instance, by using a rephrase strategically in the course of the interaction, a NNS may understand what a NS has expressed through an idiom that may lead to a misunderstanding later, and which could hamper a negotiation if it had been misunderstood. What is important to take into consideration is that ‘learners should be encouraged to be aware of their own and their interactants’ discourse practices, conventions, and cultural preferences’ (Louhiala-Salminen,

Charles and Kankaanranta 2005: 419), which might help students to know how to react in case they encounter difficulties when speaking.

Another study by Charles and Marschan-Piekkari (2002) on multinational horizontal communication (namely interaction within different companies/corporations), where 110 interviews were done in various countries, including Mexico, suggests that understanding oral communication is a challenge. Among other findings, these authors mentioned that for some employees it is difficult to understand the various 'kinds of Englishes' (p. 17), namely accents; also, that some other employees perceive that British English is a bit more difficult to understand than other NNS. Thus, Charles and Marschan-Piekkari (2002) suggest, among other points, that language training for horizontal communication should include encouraging staff to understand and negotiate global Englishes and that NS should also attend training to learn how 'to limit the range of their technical and non-technical vocabulary, as well as their grammatical structures, to speak clearly and not too rapidly, and to avoid idiom and cultural allusion' (p. 25), in other words, to learn to accommodate (see Sweeney and Hua 2010 for NS accommodation).

#### **4.3.4 IPS perceptions in the workplace**

Previous research on perceptions of ELF findings have shown an extensive view of how English is being used and perceived in international (multinational) workplaces. Nevertheless, it has not put forth any pragmatic strategy that might serve for these communication pitfalls. Some other studies have shown such but scarcely. For instance, in another piece of research set in multinational companies by Ehrenreich (2010), she found that some pragmatic strategies have been developed by her interviewees, four director-level professionals. They revealed they have developed comprehension checks, asking for clarification and repetition strategies through time. Nevertheless, they have noticed that some of these practices (e.g. repetition) are regarded as a sign of weakness when interaction is carried out with a NS. This issue might be very important to consider when such a pragmatic strategy may be included or taught in the teaching syllabus of English for business students; although current trends are looking for ways to train NS with accommodation skills to NNS (Sweeney and Hua 2010). Another pragmatic strategy that Ehrenreich (2010) found was code-switching. This happened in meetings or phone conferences but very scarcely;

and when it occurs, the interactant needs to apologise first because of the language shift. It seems it is an alternative to improve communication and it is used when necessary. Thus, code-switching in the workplace has its advantages as well. Other perceptions, more related to ELF, referred to the importance of English in business international settings. Ehrenreich's (2010) participants maintained that English is a 'must' because it represents a mean tool and/or facilitator for doing the job. So, workers might not need to have it at top proficiency levels, but it certainly needs to function for 'transmitting information effectively and efficiently across language boundaries' (p. 418); therefore, it is not expected that speakers speak at a native-like proficiency level, similar to Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen's (2010) and Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta's (2012) findings. Summarising this, what is desirable is that speakers have well-developed communication skills.

These studies have shown how perceptions in the workplace are only a starting point to have a general idea of what is actually happening regarding communication in some international business settings. Besides such perceptions, it is also relevant to look at some other research that shows the issues that some multinational companies are facing in relation to communication, that might widen the view of what future professionals might need in terms of their professional preparation. For example, a study about meetings by Rogerson-Revell (2008) suggests other problems based on her participants' perceptions. By recording three meetings with a total length of 8 h 40 min of a European company together with a questionnaire, she found that there were a higher proportion of inactive NNS in the meetings, compared to NS ones. Such inactivity was perceived in various ways that went from polite manners and cultural issues to proficiency matters. NNS expressed that it seems very difficult for them to interrupt the course of other's speech, especially in a polite and diplomatic way and express a difference in opinion. So here, three points might need to receive attention at least in the English for business modules: politeness and diplomacy, interrupting, and differences of opinion. These three are interrelated in business meetings where sociocultural differences might influence them. That is to say, there are certain factors such as age differences and working styles that might shape our manners when interacting, in addition to individuals' cultural features. In this respect, intercultural communication models e.g. the intercultural communication awareness model or ICA (Baker 2011) might serve, from my point of view, as a guide to facilitate understanding regarding some cultural issues when interacting in multicultural groups.

Eventually, another reason for not participating actively in meetings pointed to a participant's perceptions regarding linguistic difficulties. Amongst others, participants mentioned difficulties processing speech (e.g. fast or slow spoken pace) and the various and varied accents. Some of them also suggested difficulties from their lack of vocabulary, a problem that NNS seem to experience from a lack of tuition in subject specific vocabulary (see perceptions in 7.1.1). Such a range of hurdles may reduce with the conscious use of pragmatic strategies in interaction. In this respect, Rogerson-Revell (2008) noticed the use of code-switching. Although very limited, occurrences of code-switching happened between some of her participants; unfortunately, these were only commented on but not studied in depth in the paper. Nevertheless, a characteristic she was able to notice amongst her participants was that they were sensitive to accommodate in order to reach understanding. Thus, the author advises that communication strategies (e.g. speech accommodation) are needed within business meetings.

Although workplace perceptions in the reviewed papers have suggested the need for communication strategies in business settings, these might need also to be considered as part of the syllabus of English for business modules because these have shown current critical issues that are taking place in international communication in our current times. Besides, as another point observed here, the very limited amount of interactional pragmatic strategies that were mentioned – which is comprehensible as these were not the target topic in those papers – depicts a gap in the literature of (business) communication that can be researched not only through language itself but also through perceptions. This last point may provide insight into the fine link between perceptions about interactional pragmatic strategies, and how these together are able to enact communication. As mentioned in previous chapters, part of the focus of this thesis is to study perceptions specifically related to interactional pragmatic practices such as repetition, rephrasing/paraphrasing, repair, and code-switching amongst others, which might help to have a better view about how these interrelate or interface each other to support communication. Such knowledge might help to update the view of pragmatics in both general English and business English interaction; and similar to students, teachers believe they influence their pedagogical practices (Li and Walsh 2011); therefore, both teachers' and students' beliefs are taken into account in this research.

## 4.4 Summary

The present chapter has reviewed perceptions in various directions: language learners' perceptions, business learners' perceptions and language users' (e.g. workers) perceptions of English regarding communication and IPSs. Reviewed studies reflect that European business contexts are more ELF oriented. This orientation still needs to be investigated in Mexican business contexts. For instance, the regions where international companies have their main offices for distribution, buying-selling affairs or services, workers certainly have to interact in English most of the time. For example, Cozumel –the city where this research is carried out– is a very touristic place (see Chapter 5 for contextual framework) and the large majority of business is carried out in English.

In terms of language education, although there is evidence in research of the positive views students have towards ELF and its use in future employment scenarios, it might be possible that such positivism is due to those participants' experiences of living and studying in an environment of language contact; that is to say, in a place where they have to speak with other students with diverse first languages (L1) and socio-cultural backgrounds (e.g. an international university). However, there is a remaining question about whether students' views might change if they are in their current formation of English language as a Foreign Language where they might not have had the opportunity to interact in a diverse group with ELF characteristics. It is probably that their orientation towards ELF might differ, so that is another point in which this research might contribute.

The reviewed perceptions have provided insight that highlights the scarce research regarding learners' expectancies on the potential use of English in their future workplaces. While perceptions are considered highly important in English teaching-learning environments, no studies of perceptions regarding learners' expectancies of language use in their future jobs have been carried out so far in the Mexican context, and very few refer to IPSs perceptions. That is why one of the aims of this study focuses on contributing to Mexican learners' perception of interactional pragmatic strategies. For that, it is necessary to know the contextual framework and the methodology of this research, outlined in the following chapter.

## Chapter 5: Methodological and Contextual frameworks

The present chapter focuses on outlining the methodology of this research, which takes a qualitative approach, permitting the study of certain phenomenon in its natural setting and context in order to understand it, not only by observing the phenomenon itself but also by observing it from participants' own perspectives (Richards 2003). This applies to my interest in observing pragmatic strategies not only as a mere linguistic phenomenon, but also as a social phenomenon shaped by teachers' and students' perceptions; interests that also shaped the methodology framework. The following paragraphs describe in detail the various elements of the methodology that guides this research, starting with a review of the qualitative theory that underpins my pilot study, aims and research questions; then, moving on to explain the context, participants and instrumentation for data collection and data analysis. It closes with issues regarding ethics, validity and limitations.

### 5.1 Qualitative approaches

Qualitative theory has served to go in depth to specific issues that are relevant to study in detail. Although difficult to define, it refers to an approach that helps 'to gain an understanding of the nature and form of phenomena, to unpack meanings, to develop explanations or to generate ideas, concepts and theories' (Ritchie, Lewis, McNaughton Nicholls and Ormston 2014: 116). In other words, qualitative research aims to approach the world in its natural environment in order to understand, describe and explain social phenomena from individuals' insides (Flick 2007). There is a myriad of methods, which fall under the umbrella of qualitative research. They vary according to the researcher's project so they are not straightforward to establish like in quantitative research (Dörnyei 2007). Qualitative research can focus on analysing experiences of individuals or groups, interactions and communication in the making -like this project-, and documents (Flick 2007) among others. Some characteristics of qualitative research include flexibility, looking for meanings, natural setting/context, and insiders' opinions to name a few.

Qualitative research is flexible because methods are generally adapted according to the project development. As a matter of fact, the methods to follow depend on the social field in question, and it is desirable that research designs are not established but open and fluid (Dörnyei 2007). This implies that the project reshaping should be according to emergent findings (Flick 2007), which would allow researchers to recognise and/or look for meanings of a certain phenomenon. This second characteristic is concerned with answering the 'what, 'why' and 'how' questions (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls and Ormston 2014). Therefore, meanings are varied due to the various perspectives when one single phenomenon is studied in its natural context.

Another characteristic refers to natural settings and/or contexts. This means there is not a prefigurate research design that includes controlled environments or treatments (Dörnyei 2007). Contrarily, it is aimed to capture phenomena in its natural state that lead to interpretation. In this aspect, qualitative research explores different individual's opinions, experiences, feelings, and perceptions, among others. This implies subjectivity in both research actors: participants and possibly, the researcher. So, it is important to recognise the researcher's role (see 5.7) in order to lessen bias.

According to Dörnyei (2007), the idea behind early characteristics in qualitative research was that researchers can start their projects as a 'tabula rasa'. However, this has been questioned by scholars who have suggested it is difficult for a researcher to have no idea of the phenomenon to be studied, because researchers come from a background that would influence the direction of possible findings. That was very much the situation in my case, as I had read about communication strategies in English Language Teaching (ELT henceforth), Classroom Interaction and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF henceforth) before my data collection and analysis, so I had an idea about how language behaves in terms of reaching successful communication (see Chapter 2). My study, then, has been designed using a qualitative approach because its purpose is to gain an understanding of how to reach successful communication when overcoming breakdowns through interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs henceforth) within classroom interaction (see research questions in Chapter 1 or 5.3 this chapter). It took a long time to reach that aim, because I started from a more specific idea in which one strategy, code-switching to be exact, was used commonly in a tertiary level communication. However, my pilot study led me in a slightly different direction. This is explained in the next section.

## 5.2 Pilot study

This project was originally looking for language alternation –or code-switching (Li Wei 2002, Bullock and Toribio 2009, Klimpfinger 2009)– that may occur in the academic environment outside of the formalities of classroom communication in Mexico. However, when the pilot study was carried out, interactions of natural speech among students showed that code-switching was not a prominent phenomenon. What I found in the three recordings of students’ interaction out of the classrooms –an hour and a half in total– was mainly:

- There were various crossing instances when referring to some funny experiences or joking, more often when students were communicating in Spanish. Crossing draws into ‘a sense of movement across quite sharply felt social or ethnic boundaries, and it raises issues of legitimacy that participants need to reckon [...]’ (Rampton 1998: 291). For example, crossing was appreciated more within students with an English major rather than the ones studying Tourism.
- There were Calques –‘importation of foreign patterns or meanings with the retention of native-language morphemes [...]’ (Bullock and Toribio 2009: 5)– that come directly from brands of clothing, food brands, shopping centres and social networks (e.g. iPhone, facebook, WhatsApp, Jeans, Burger King, Sam’s, etc.), when talking in Spanish.
- There were mixed languages, ‘contact varieties that derive components of their grammatical systems from diverse genetic sources [...]’ (Bullock and Toribio 2009: 6), especially by students studying the English language course when speaking in Spanish (e.g. befa, el tender, etc.).

As noted above, the common language used outside-of-class hours was predominantly Spanish, so my expectations of code-switching phenomena in English interaction, which took place in outside-of-class hours, would not be met by sufficient data. This lack of English interaction and code-switching phenomena made me re-assess my research focus and consider a slight change in direction. Therefore, I reoriented my aim and looked for something wider than code-switching. That is how I opened the spectrum and decided to include other pragmatic strategies such as repetition and rephrasing, among others to accompany code-switching; all of them as a means to support communication. In

addition, I reoriented the environment where this data should be collected. The environment needed to include more English interaction so I could observe interactional pragmatic strategies and how these could support communication. One of the settings where this could be captured was the language classroom. That is how I decided my data should be collected in language classrooms where students were receiving professional preparation for use in the workplace.

The next step, though, was to decide which of the language courses that are offered in the university might suit my research focus, and I started to analyse which of the courses refer to communication at work, because it is in those modules where speaking practices resemble more real workplace interaction, and focus more on communication rather than grammar like general English modules. The result was that there was one language module in the whole university that was oriented to the specific purpose of preparing students for business. Here, I realised that a niche for my research had emerged because such courses were likely to have a more communicative orientation. Now, I would be investigating interactional pragmatic strategies in English for Business modules and how such strategies might be useful to overcome communicative problems. With this in mind, my aim and research questions were revisited and are explained in the following section.

### **5.3 Aim and Research Questions**

Current research on interactional pragmatic strategies has focussed on one single strategy at a time. In other words, repair has received lots of research (e.g. Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks 1977, Markee 2000, Cameron 2001, Seedhouse 2004, Kaur 2011a, 2011b) similar to repetition and rephrasing (Li Wei 2002, Lichtkoppler 2007, Mauranen 2012), and the same with code-switching (Li Wei 2002, Bullock and Toribio 2009, Sampson 2012), but few have said how they work together in order to reach understanding when a break presents in conversations. This issue aligns with Walsh's (2011) suggestion regarding more research within interaction (see Chapter 2). That is the main reason this investigation aims to look at how interactional pragmatic strategies such as repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching help to overcome communication breakdowns within classroom interaction in order to foster communication, which is intrinsically related to teaching and learning processes

(Seedhouse and Walsh 2010). Therefore, the aim of the present research is *to know and interpret those instances of communication breakdown in natural conversation in educational settings from an interactional perspective with a focus on their pragmatic use; as well as to explore interlocutors' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies*; these aims attempt to look for an understanding of classroom interaction at tertiary language education; and, the research questions guiding this study are:

- RQ1. Which interactional pragmatic strategies support understanding in the business English language classroom of the University of Quintana Roo, in Mexico?
- a. To what extent were communication problems solved successfully through interactional pragmatic strategies? Which problems were solved? How? Were there problems unsolved?
  - b. Were there problems solved without using interactional pragmatic strategies?
- RQ2. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs)?
- a. What problems do participants suggest IPSs help to solve for communication?
  - b. How do participants perceive their own use of IPSs? How do perceptions coincide or differ from strategic language used in the classroom?
  - c. What are participants' English language perceptions? How do these perceptions have an impact in IPSs use?

## 5.4 Research context and participants

### 5.4.1 Business and languages in Mexico

Mexico, as with most other countries, has its business field at all levels –regional, national, and international– in which negotiations are done in various languages. Regionally, for instance, business can be carried out in the local ethnic language (e.g. Otomí, Náhuatl, Mayan, etc., see INEGI 2013). However, if we turn to national merchandising, Spanish will be used extensively. Spanish is also used for

international affairs with Hispanic-speaking countries; Nevertheless, when Spanish is not shared, usually, English is *the* language for communication.

Due to the active interchanging of products and services internationally, Mexico has been included in trade groups such as the North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA), the Free Trade Area of Americas (FAA), and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), where English plays an important role for communication. It is highly possible, therefore, that interactions adopt BELF characteristics (e.g. various first languages, different cultural backgrounds, etc.) as described in previous chapters; from there the importance of observing how BELF might have been inserted and play a role in the formal professional profiles of future Mexican businessmen.

Mexican international business activities include exporting and importing not only goods but services as well. Its main activities include agribusiness, automotive parts and supplies, the energy sector, environmental sector, franchising sector, health, agribusiness, housing and construction, IT services, production of polymer note, dairy products, furniture, handicraft, education and training services and tourism (Unger and Frankel 2002). Interaction in the workplace and in international settings might include telephone calls, face-to-face meetings and/or interaction across services, among other ways of communication which are more writing-oriented (e.g. emails). For instance, Ziegler, Dearden and Rollins (2012) conducted research about the tourism satisfaction in a region from Mexico where tourists go to swim with whale sharks. These authors have suggested the importance of communication among other issues (e.g. number of boats, variety of marine life, etc.). One dissatisfactory result referred to the 'lack of communication' that was found between some guides and tourists, suggesting this is 'partially due to language and cultural barriers' (p. 697). Such a finding reflects the importance for future professionals to be well-prepared not only with the core knowledge of their fields, namely business, tourism, or such like, but to know an additional language as a basic tool for their further working practices in international settings.

In Quintana Roo, the province where this research was carried out, a variety of economic activities is present. These include infrastructure, agribusiness, fishery, handicraft and the manufacturing industry, forestry, and tourism (QRoo 2013), the latter being the most prominent in the region due to its natural beauty as it is part of the Caribbean Sea. In addition, this province also adjoins Central America and the East coast of USA. Quintana Roo's strategic location in the Mexican

country has made it an active region for business. This economic characteristic has influenced the educational sector where various Bachelor programs related to business are offered, for instance, at the *Universidad de Quintana Roo*.

At the university, the *Commercial Systems* Bachelor is offered in two of its campuses along the Quintana Roo province: Campus I is in the north, while Campus II is in the south. This has meant that staff in each campus designed their syllabi differently depending on the needs of their local environment (e.g. Campus I has a more touristic landscape than Campus II. Campus II is next to Belize, an Anglo-speaker country). The classroom interaction from the English for Business module, offered in the Commercial Systems Bachelor, was my object of study in this thesis. Now we move to participants' descriptions.

#### 5.4.2 Participants

Participants were the academic staff teaching the English for business modules and their students. Each year, two or three groups are run in the various campus of the university. In 2014 (the year of data collection) there were three groups: two in Campus I (Group A and B) and one in Campus II (Group C). Table 4 shows the specific information of groups.

**Table 4** Students' general information

Group	N	Gender		Age		Nationalities	Languages	Degree Programme
		F	M	Mean	Range			
A	8	5	3	20.1	18-23	Mexican Chinese	Spanish English Chinese French	Commercial Systems English Language Spanish Philology Natural Resources
B	11	4	7	21.4	20-24	Mexican Taiwanese	Spanish English	Commercial Systems

						American Peruvian Belizean	Creole Maya Chinese Taiwanese Cantonese French	Economics and Finances English Language Networking Engineering
C	10	6	4	24.4	21-29	Mexican	Spanish English	Commercial Systems
TOTAL	29	15	14	22	18-29			

Various features among the three groups deserve to be highlighted here. For instance, Group A and B were the most diverse in terms of languages, whilst Group C was the most homogenous gathering by having all of its students speaking Spanish and English. Curiously, although Group C was offered in one of the most touristic areas of the province, all students were Mexican, which contrasts with Group B where there are a variety of nationalities. Despite group characteristics in terms of nationalities and languages involved, it is important to say that all English for Business modules –and all English language modules– are taught in English, although teachers and students make use of Spanish from time to time. So far, UQRoo has not assigned the category of English as Medium of Instruction (namely EMI) on these courses, due to the fact that they focus on language teaching and learning, and not necessary professional content for business (e.g. how to carry out marketing). Another point that is worth highlighting is that Group C, on the whole, has students primarily from the Commercial Systems programme, to which the English for Business module belongs. The rest of the programmes that appear in the table –in Groups A and B– do not offer this module as part of their main programmes. However, if they passed the module successfully, it will provide 6 credits to those students. Here a parenthesis is needed to explain the credit system of the university.

The university works on the premise of providing a universal education for all students. That is why its credit system has been designed in four main blocks:

*General Modules* that aim to provide students with an integral and multidisciplinary education independent of their professional field; *Divisional Modules* that aim to incorporate various views and focuses on disciplinary perspectives that complement students' business studies; *Professional Modules* that are focused on the acquisition of knowledge and abilities that are determinant for competence in professional work; and finally, *Elective Modules* that include areas on culture, sports, informatics, languages and so forth. The elective modules provide 2 credits per course (Sistemas Comerciales 2007: 8). Based on this credit organisation, the English for Business module belongs to the *Professional* block in the Commercial Systems Programme; Nevertheless, this might count as credits to fulfil their *Elective Modules* block for students in other programmes. Therefore, it is likely there are students that are not on the Commercial Systems programme because they wish to gain Elective credits faster as this subject is worth 6 credits. This issue results in atypical groups in which there are students studying various majors instead of business students only.

Regarding the staff, there were three teachers attending the modules, one per group. Table 5 includes some general information about teachers.

**Table 5** Teaching staff general information

Staff	Gender		Nationality	Languages	Education Profile			Working experience
	F	M			B.A. ELT	Master studies	Master	
1	X		Mexican	Spanish English French	X	X		Language Teaching
2	X		Mexican	Spanish English French	X			Tourism and Language Teaching
3		X	Mexican	Spanish English French	X	X		Tourism and Language Teaching

All of the teachers have an English Language degree with an ELT orientation. Two of them were currently studying their masters. Among their work experience, all of them have taught English. Some have experienced teaching at primary level, others in secondary school and all at university level. In addition to teaching experience, some have worked for tourism and in private companies as sellers or cashiers. This information was taken from their interviews, which I found useful to mention here in order to provide as detailed as possible teachers' features. This information might help to appreciate better their attitudes and pedagogical decisions in the classroom.

Consequently, this project comprises 32 participants in total. This was possibly thanks to some key contacts in the Campuses who opened doors for me to meet teachers and students I would not normally have contact with. Despite the fact that I have been working for the university for several years, I did not know every student and teacher. This represented a challenge as a researcher to gain my participants' acceptance in order to collect data. Therefore, I embraced some ethnographic techniques in order to carry out the research; from this perspective, it is relevant to include a description regarding the organization in which interaction took place among my participants. The next section provides an account on classroom interaction organization.

### **5.4.3 The organization of language classroom interaction**

The organization of classroom interaction has been studied from different perspectives in relation to the core goal of any language classroom that is to make possible the teaching and learning of a second/foreign language. Through the years, we have witnessed the way interaction has varied depending on the pedagogical development used in language classrooms. For example, the Grammar-Translation Method developed in 1845 in the United States of America (Kelly 1969), used to include interactions in both first language (L1) and second language (L2) due to his main pedagogic technique of teaching and learning that was translation. There, the medium of instruction was the student's native language (Richards & Rodgers 2001) and the class was teacher-centred. After more than a century, other kinds of pedagogy have been developed in which interaction features have also changed. Since its origins in the 1960s,

Communicative Language Teaching or CLT is one of the most common teaching methodologies that are still used nowadays. CLT is based under a communicative approach (Savignon 1983) in which there is a balance of interactions between teacher-student and student-student, mainly in L2. These pedagogical approaches represent the ideals of teacher and student interaction in the classroom. While they inform like manuals to the language classroom, they are sometimes challenged by empirical studies which outcomes suggest some other characteristics to classroom interaction such as interactional flexibility and turn-taking control (Walsh 2006) among others. In this thesis, both manuals and empirical studies are considered relevant in order to characterise classroom interaction.

The varied interactions that used to take place in the past and take place in current language classrooms have in common some features. Firstly, that in any language classroom the particular characteristic that language plays are two roles: 1) it is the medium of instructions and 2) it is the object of instruction (Long 1983) when the class is carried out in the second language (L2 henceforth). Secondly, according to Seedhouse (2004), classroom interaction also has the characteristic of being reflexive due to the inherent relation between interaction and pedagogy. In other words, there is a constant analysis of language while the teaching and learning happens through interaction, and acting upon it (e.g. using repetition to improve pronunciation, or repair). Finally, a third characteristic of classroom interaction refers to control of patterns of communication. Such a control is mainly on the teacher's side as he/she owns the control of both lesson topic and turn-taking (Walsh 2006), in which interaction takes place in various directions such as teacher-student and student-student interaction (Johnson 1995) or instructional registers such as whole class interaction, group or pair work and individual monologue (Dalton-Puffer 2007) among others.

As a way to inform the context in which classroom interaction was organised in the Business English modules, a brief description taken from observations are commented here. The interaction analysed in my data is closely connected to the characteristics explained above. We cannot deny the fact the three Business English modules object of study was the L2. However, all of them used both first language (L1 henceforth) and L2 in order to enhance understanding. The balance was not even, Group A used less L1 than Group B, and Group C used more L1 than the others. This phenomenon is referred to as code-switching (see Chapters 3 y 6). Also, teachers and students in the three groups were in charge of carrying

on a constant reflexive analysis (Seedhouse 2004) along their interaction in terms of what is being thought and what is being learnt. They evidenced this through repetition, rephrasing and repair within interactions, because every lesson pursued the objective of communication despite any breakdown presented among interactants.

Finally, it is undeniable that teachers control communication, and that happens in any kind of classroom, not only in language ones. So, teachers in groups A, B and C controlled both the lesson topic and the turn-taking in all the sessions. The interactional directions observed in the analysis included teacher-student interaction (e.g. teacher-led group work), student-student interaction (e.g. pair work), and teacher-external interaction. In addition, as part of their control, the teacher in group A, for example, balanced her teaching with students' practices. So, she provided the instruction at the beginning, made sure students understood the task, and let students do the activity (individually or in pairs) and, finally, they all discussed about their answers. Such a controlled pattern was similar in group B and C. In fact, as part of this contextual section, we can say that all language teachers in UQRoo have a lesson plan. This is sequential and follows Harmer's (2007) formal plan organisation: class description and timetable fit; lesson aims; activities, procedures and timing; and, problems and possibilities. In addition, we can say when the plan is put into action, three stages are observed clearly: a warm up that generally includes an ice-breaker and/or an activity related to a previous lesson; the main lesson that consists of an introductory activity, explanations and more activities regarding the new topic, and a wrap-up at the end of the class (Ibid.). However, in terms of interaction, the teacher in group B over-controlled students' participation and the lesson was more on teacher talking time (or teacher monologue, see Dalton-Puffer 2007) rather than students' oral practice. Students in group C did not participate a lot too, despite their teacher let them the necessary time to interact. These observations are reflected in my data extracts presented in Chapter 6. I mentioned these observations at this point because of the importance of having a general idea of the contextual characteristics regarding the organization of interaction. Having mentioned that, let's turn to research instruments.

## 5.5 Research instruments

This section introduces the research instruments that consisted of both primary and secondary instruments. The primary research instruments were the audio-recordings for natural academic interaction and an interview guide. Secondary instruments include the syllabus that guided the module, the materials that helped me to follow the lessons and interactions, my field notes derived from observations and a general data questionnaire in order to collect specific data from my participants (e.g. age, career, etc.). While the primary instruments have helped me to cope with my research questions directly, the secondary instruments have provided more detailed information about my participants and the nature of the lessons.

The following paragraphs contain details about the procedures I followed in order to collect data that helped to support answers for my research questions. First, the procedure to capture natural academic interaction in lessons is explained together with observations (one of my second instruments); second, the course of action for the interviews is rendered. Finally, a brief reflection about ethnographic features is explained as well as the questionnaire design and administration.

### 5.5.1 Observations and recording of naturally occurring classroom interaction

The first research question attempts to look for interactional pragmatic strategies observed within classroom interaction, especially those that help to overcome communication breakdowns. For this purpose, data collection was centred on observing the actual use or practice of interactional pragmatic strategies in the various oral tasks –namely speaking practices– that students had in order to carry out discussion on certain business topics, act out simulated situations (e.g. selling-buying representations or role-plays), presentations, etc.

Thus, 36 hours of classroom lessons were recorded, distributed in 12 hours per module (3 modules), from which stratified purposive sampling (Patton 2002) was taken. That is to say, a ‘hybrid approach’ (Ritchie, Lewis and Elam 2003: 79) was adopted as most tasks in class were directly related to speaking practice. Such oral tasks were audio recorded and transcribed in order to observe whether and how interactional pragmatic strategies were used in order to support

communication. That means that whole lessons were not the subject of transcription but only those parts in which oral practices were carried out. That is to say, writing, reading or other tasks that were not closely related to oral practices were not transcribed unless these displayed a certain interactional pragmatic strategy that the teacher tackled explicitly for future use in oral tasks. So, transcriptions of extracts took a form of what is called 'partial transcription' (Schleef and Meyerhoff 2010: 11). Despite this selection of speech events for detailed analysis of interactional pragmatic strategies, the whole class was recorded because it allowed me to grasp a better idea of the amount of time that this module focuses on oral practices and, more specifically, gave me a better idea of the teaching and practice of interactional pragmatic strategies (see research question 1).

Although classroom recording was the main instrument for data in this stage, other important instruments were the syllabus and the textbooks because they include explicit topic lessons related to oral communication, and have supported the organisation for analysis of the various purposive samples in the recordings. The implicit practice of interactional pragmatic strategies was identified through the recordings. In addition, my field notes are also important to mention as these provide general accounts of the classroom (e.g. setting, present students, teachers' out-of-lesson comments, etc.).

To summarise, the procedure for data collection to answer RQ1 consisted of several steps: 1) to revise the syllabus and textbook to find out explicit teaching-learning topics related to interactional pragmatic strategies; 2) to audio record the lessons of the English for Business modules and make notes of what observed in each class (appendix R); 3) purposively select those parts in which a business speech event had been practiced orally or any other oral task that reflects the practice of interactional pragmatic strategies and map all selected extracts (see example of map in appendix E); 4) to transcribe the selected speech events and tasks (see transcript examples in appendix F); and, 5) to carry out the data analysis.

### 5.5.2 Interviews

The second research question focuses on finding out participants' perceptions regarding the use of interactional pragmatic strategies. The main issue to look at

here is whether participants have an awareness of their pragmatic communication resources in classroom interaction. In order to answer the second question and reach to an understanding of how interactional pragmatic strategies might possibly serve for overcoming breakdowns, interviews (Kavale and Brinkmann 2009) were carried out. Although it seems to be natural to use a questionnaire or survey in the search for participants' perceptions, these were not considered because they might have limited the search of opinions regarding language use. With a questionnaire it might not be possible to observe where beliefs come from and why, or how this might have an effect in communication development (Woods 2003). Contrarily, for the purpose of this research, it was useful to know from participants themselves how they use interactional pragmatic strategies and more importantly, how they consider these were going to be used in their future interactions. Therefore, the main instrument consisted of two interview guides (Richards 2003) (see appendices G and H), one for the teachers and the other for students that consists of four main sections. The first three sections enquired about perceptions of English, expectancies for its use in the work place; about the material (e.g. textbook) that was used in the module; and the communication strategies they use in certain situations. Moreover, the last part included questions to some pragmatic strategies –such as repetition, rephrasing/paraphrasing, repair, and code-switching– that participants used in the classroom. These were played for them as a way to remember their conversation as well as to recast their opinions towards the strategy they used. This technique is referred in the literature as Stimulated Recall Interviews (Dempsy 2010). My purpose of using it in the last part of the interview follows my desire as a researcher to make participants realise they use such strategies and to be able to elicit their perception about the strategy. Therefore, this technique was used to prompt general thoughts and opinions (Gass and Mackey 2000) on specific strategies; therefore, its use was limited to one or two examples of strategic use of language in the interview. The interview guide for teachers was structured similarly; the only difference was an extra section that asks for their profiles and job experiences.

Special attention was put on the nature of the in-depth interview, as its aim was to be perceived as a form of conversation (Legard, Keegan and Ward 2003) or chat (Schleef and Meyerhoff 2010), so participants do not feel it is, in fact, an interview. This way, they felt –in my view– more comfortable and free to express their points of view regarding interactional pragmatic strategies and their potential use in jobs. In addition, to avoid threatening questioning, some

technical words were avoided during the conversation; for instance, instead of using the term 'pragmatic strategies' I referred more to terms such as 'repetition', 'rephrasing' and so on, words that might have a more semantic interpretation (direct meaning) for participants. In addition, some interviews were carried out in Spanish, the official language in Mexico, the language that most students and teachers (if not all) were able to speak. This last resource helped gain more insights about participants' ideals of English use in future business jobs.

Another characteristic of the in-depth interview is that these were semi-structured (Arthur and Nazroo 2003). This allowed space for any other possible information that was not expected but was worth having and reviewing in-depth. In addition, interviews were featured as follow-up (Richards 2003, Wesely 2012) under a stimulated recall technique (Dempsey 2010) as a way to show participants a brief recorded passage of his or her interaction, so they can remember and provide an opinion of the question. The follow-up stimulated-recall questions helped to build new understandings of the use of repetition, code-switching or other pragmatic strategies that participants brought up in their oral practice.

Regarding participants for the interviews, this was done through self-selection. Whilst most students in the three groups showed a willingness to be interviewed, at the time of carrying out the interviews, three accepted in group A, three in group B, and two in group C. Nevertheless, in order to obtain more or less the same amount of sampling in all groups, I managed to persuade another student in group C and I interviewed her. On the other hand, all teachers accepted the request to be interviewed graciously. So, data that supported answering research question two consisted of 12-recorded in-depth interviews that range between 45-55 minutes each. Some transcriptions are shown in appendix I.

To summarise, the procedure used for answering RQ2 included: 1) the design of two interview guides, one for students (appendix G) and another for teachers (appendix H); 2) to revise participant's self-selection for interview; 3) to set an agenda depending on participants' availability; 3) to carry out the interviews; 4) to transcribe the interviews (appendix I); and 5) to work on the data analysis.

### 5.5.3 Secondary research instruments

Although questionnaires were rejected from use as main instruments, these were used for other purposes, however. They were useful as a secondary instrument for collecting participants' general information such as age, gender, degree programme, etc. That data was used in Table 5.4.3 above. Another use for the questionnaire was to collect students' e-mails in case they would like to be interviewed. Therefore, the questionnaire was designed with closed and open items (Dörnyei 2003) (see appendix J) that served for practical purposes. Another secondary instrument comprises the set of official documents (appendix B, C, and D) as well as the textbooks and other additional materials that were used in the lessons. These secondary instruments helped to observe and understand the explicit/implicit teaching of interactional pragmatic strategies (see 5.4.2.1). As for the materials, these were also useful to follow the lessons, have my notes and give sense and context to the audio recordings whilst doing the transcriptions.

## 5.6 Data analysis procedures

Once data had been collected, this was organised in digital files to be transcribed and analysed. In order to organise the information digitally, two main folders were used to store it: first, the naturally occurring extracts and, second, the interviews. Transcription conventions (see appendix K) were taken from the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English 2.1 or VOICE 2.1 (2013) and Richards (2003), and were used when necessary in all transcripts. Such conventions help to understand the spoken interaction presented in a text-based way, as a manner of looking at phenomena in more detail, and with the handiness of checking and re-checking the interaction as many times as required, action that would be complicated to do with the recording itself. Alongside-transcription-doing phase, first analysis was done and inserted in a series of notes. These notes changed, expanded or reduced in the writing of the analysis chapter, but represented preliminary thoughts and findings.

Once transcriptions were done, two major procedures continued depending on the nature of the interaction to be analysed. The first one is Discourse Analysis that will serve to both identify interactional pragmatic strategies and to expand or create naturally occurring classroom interaction. The second is Content Analysis that will serve to analyse the interview transcriptions. Both methods share the

characteristic of being bottom-up approaches. However, my literature review has already provided certain knowledge on repetition, rephrasing, code-switching and other pragmatic strategies, because they are the focus of this investigation. The fact that I was already aware of such phenomena did not mean that my mind was not open to other related-pragmatic findings. In fact, other IPSs are commented on in the last chapter where further research has been suggested.

Regarding Discourse Analysis, various research techniques played a role. For instance, conversational analytic techniques (Markee 2000, Have 2007, Hutchby and Wooffitt 2008) such as the turn-by-turn transcription of natural occurring speech throughout the speaking tasks were used. Also, because the present research follows a linguistic approach, identification of the various interactional pragmatic strategies was done throughout interactant turns themselves. That is to say, in order to identify a paraphrase in the transcript, for example, it was necessary to look at the sequential development of the interaction to look for an utterance that suggests the same meaning as a previous one. As for the qualitative content analysis method, this was used to analyse transcriptions from the interviews by emitting a preliminary frame code (Schreier 2012) derived from my research questions and my interview guide. This was complemented later with new codifications (see 5.6.2.1) that emerge from the rationale of what I was reading line by line (Coffey and Atkinson 1996) along my transcripts, in case they were relevant. Codifications, therefore, served to organise perceptions in order to explain how teachers' and students' think in relation to IPSs perceptions. Data obtained from both discourse analysis and qualitative content analysis was supported with a third set of data obtained: my observations. The following section will expand on the analytical framework.

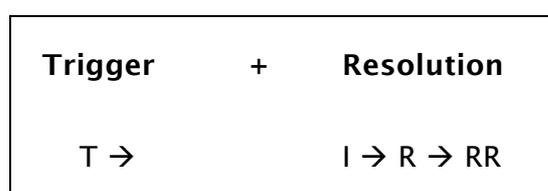
### **5.6.1 Analytical Framework for naturally occurring classroom interaction data**

Discourse Analysis (DA henceforth) is a widely known and used methodological tradition that subdivides into various analytical methods depending on the nature of the investigation. For example, it is said that DA concerns the way language is used in a specific discourse (e.g. law) and provide sense –namely meaning– to what is said in these kinds of discourse (Ritchie *et al* 2014). Another example is that sequential analysis under conversation analytic tools supports the examination of different ways in which a phenomenon is 'activated and enacted

by L2 speakers (Lee and Hellerman 2014: 780). Under this description, DA is well suited to my intention in answering RQ1 because pragmatic strategies might mean something in relation to their communicative function; such function(s) may also contribute to the understanding of how to overcome communication troubles. This was gained through the analysis of what was happening along classroom interaction that, in the case of this project, the focus was on the speaking troubles found in oral tasks. Therefore, in the most logical order, I needed to identify two important communicative instances along my data: first, the ‘trouble’ that had occurred within the interaction; and second, the pragmatic strategies that helped to overcome such a communicative pitfall together with their communicative functions. Both instances emerged from an existing model of understanding referred as negotiation of meaning by Varonis and Gass (1985). I opted to have these author’s model because when studying at other interactional models such as the Initiation, Response, Follow-up (IRF) discourse pattern by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) or Repair Theory (Markee 2000), for example, the first consisted of a scheme that helped to illustrate the components of a dialogue within classroom interaction (see *patterns* in 2.2.1), while the latter comprised a established set of four ways that help to characterise the repair (see 2.2.3). Contrarily, negotiation of meaning model, included a group of elements that helped me to understand better some major points that are the base for understanding from interaction itself. Of course, such a model was adapted in order to fit my goal of observing IPSs working to overcome communication breakdowns and reach understanding.

Varonis and Gass (1985) did a comparative study about conversational interactions and examined native-native interactions, non-native/native interactions, and non-native/non-native interactions. From these, they suggested a model “to account for the form of meaning negotiation in non-native discourse” (p. 72). Their model consisted of two parts: Trigger and Resolution (see Fig. 5.1).

**Figure 5.1** Proposed model for non-understandings (Varonis and Gass 1985)



The Trigger (T) refers to the utterance that provokes the non-understanding while the Resolution consists of various elements: Indicator (I) of the trouble, a Response (R) to that trouble, and a Reaction to the Response (RR). See extract 5.1.

**Extract 5.1** Negotiation of meaning model in interaction

140 J: And your what is your mm father's job?	
140 S: My father now is retire.	<b>T</b>
140 J: retire?	<b>I</b>
140 S: yes	<b>R</b>
140 J: oh yeah	<b>RR</b>

(Varonis & Gass 1985: 78)

Extract 5.1 was taken from two women studying English in an Institute in Michigan. One is a Spanish speaker and the other is Japanese. Both had different sociolinguistic and cultural backgrounds, communicating in English as a foreign language, namely ELF interaction. It is clear that the trouble Indicator is presented with J because of a word that she did not understand of the previous utterance, which represents the Trigger of the conversation. After, there is a Reaction to the trouble, that helps J to be able to be clear about the trouble expressing a positive utterance of understanding, and that is the Reaction to the Response. From my point of view, Varonis and Gass's (1985) model to represent negotiation of meaning is clear and indicates a path to reach understanding. However, there are other ways in which we make communication possible. One of them includes the various micro interactional strategies we use in conversation in order to communicate. As mentioned in the previous chapters, there is an umbrella of possibilities to analyse understanding, and while Varonis and Gass (1985) settled a precedent of such kind of studies, more can be done. That is the case of my model, which has its foundations in Varonis and Gass's (1985) model.

That is to say, there exist a myriad of strategies we use in order to reach understanding. Most of them have been studied in different fields and under

various methodologies. A list of such strategies includes from a simple micro strategy of repetition or ‘echo’, to larger ones such as negotiation of meaning. Therefore, a large list of all strategies can be witnessed in different fields. They characterise strategies in which sometime strategies are overlapped (e.g. repetition can be considered a repair at the same time), are sometimes considered the same phenomenon but with different names (e.g. verbatim repetition, echo, etc.), and some micro strategies are immersed in macro ones (e.g. we can observe code-switching in accommodation strategies).

When I started to study the various strategies in interaction, I decided to make a list as complete as possible including all strategies that authors mentioned in their analysis. That is to say, I started my ideas of Interactional Pragmatic Strategies using a comprehensive list of coding by considering all I could find in the literature (see Appendix A for example). Soon I could notice it was not possible to include such a list in my analysis because of two reasons: first, I observed the various characteristics of strategies as mentioned previously (e.g. overlapping, etc.); and, second, it would be a massive job beyond the scope of this study to identify all of them in my data. Therefore, I started to analyse my list in depth and I found that there were some strategies that were always present in the examples presented by authors even if they were not the focus of their analysis. In other words, I started to realize that some micro-strategies, namely IPSs, were always present in the various analyses I read (see extract 5.2).

**Extract 5.2** Sampson’s (2012) code-switching analysis in an ELT context

**T:** For example Yopal, where is it? In Cundinamarca?

**F:** Er no, it’s in Meta.

**C:** *Sí, Yopal está en Meta.* [Yes, Yopal is in Meta.] **Code-switching Strategy**

**T:** Okay, so here’s a map. C’s

(Sampson 2012: 296, *author’s emphasis*)

Extract 5.2 shows Sampson’s (2012) analysis of code-switching. Such a phenomenon is evidenced in the third line, when C signalled his/her reiteration of previous information “to ensure the message has been understood by everyone”

(p. 296). While this example is trying to show how code-switching is functioning in the conversation, there are other visible strategies immersed (see extract 5.3).

**Extract 5.3** Other strategies in Sampson's (2012) code-switching analysis

**T:** For example Yopal, where is it? In Cundinamarca?

**F:** Er no, it's in Meta.

**Repair strategy**

**C:** *Sí, Yopal está en Meta.* [Yes, Yopal is in Meta.]

**Repetition strategy**

**T:** Okay, so here's a map. C's

(Sampson 2012: 296, my emphasis)

If we look carefully at Sampson's (2012) again, we can observe that other strategies are playing a role in the conversation together with code-switching. There is repair in the second line, and there is repetition of the place *Meta* within the code-switched utterance. This is an example of classroom interaction. However, the same issue can be observed in other study fields. See extract 5.4.

**Example 5.4** Kaur's (2011) repair analysis in an ELF context

**A:** so what about- eh you have any:: for example like us we have identi-id-identification card ...(0.8) you guys have identifision- identification?

(Kaur 2011b: 2707, my emphasis)

In Extract 5.4, we can observe how Kaur's is suggesting an initiated repair due to mispronunciation troubles of the word 'identification', at the end of the utterance. However, if we look carefully, we can observe the rephrasing strategy as well, at the moment in which the speaker starts the question in the first line (you have) and, then, when the speakers try the question again in the second line (you guys have).

Similar examples such as 2 to 4 are plentiful in the literature. Although all of them were analysed in the light of the specific phenomenon studied by their

authors, they have other strategies that help to create understanding as well. The most common strategies observed within the literature on interactional examples included repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching. That is the main reason I expected to find them in my own data. Therefore, my first comprehensive list of strategies I mentioned above, changed and moulded to my needs in my analysis until becoming a list of four micro-strategies: repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching, which turned to be the most common used in my own data (see Chapter 6). But, there is still a question about how these strategies are related to my main motivation to study understanding in the classroom. So, we turn now to how my discrete list of strategies contributes to the understanding of communication breakdowns.

### 5.6.1.1 Interactional Pragmatic Strategies model (IPSS Model)

As mentioned in 5.6.1, I thought about Varonis and Gass's (1985) model for negotiation of meaning as my first motivation to study communication breaks because the  $T \rightarrow I, R, RR$  model would have provided a systematic way to analyse such breaks. However, by considering my list of strategies as part of my analysis, such a model could not be used in the same way, thus I had to find my own way to construct a model in which interactional pragmatic strategies could fit in the search to demonstrate a path for understanding. So, based on Varonis and Gass's (1985) model mine was designed (see Fig. 5.2).

**Figure 5.2** IPS model based on Negotiation of Meaning model

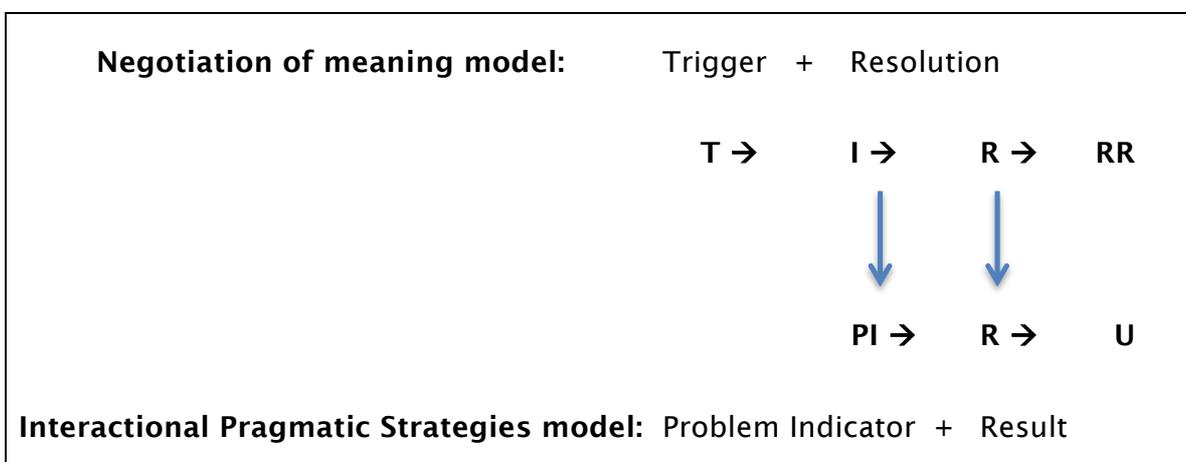


Figure 5.2 shows the two main elements of the IPS model: the Problem Indicator (PI) and the Result (R). The former was based on Varonis and Gass's (1985) Indicator (I) and the later, on the Response (R), as explained below.

The Indicator in Varonis and Gass (1985) refers to a way "in which one member of the conversational pair signals to another that something has gone wrong" (p. 76). Similarly, the Problem Indicator (PI henceforth) refers to an utterance or part of an utterance that reflects there is a problem within a conversation. PI can be identified through an utterance that signalled request with direct questions (e.g. What does it mean?) or indirect cues that indicated communicative troubles such interjections (e.g. Eeh?) or long periods of silence (e.g. 4 seconds or more). Utterances like these are signalled by interactants themselves during their interactions, and they are clearly identified because the fluidity of the conversation is cut evidently. These utterance forms were some foreseen examples, but a complete criterion of problem indicator (or PI) was developed after my systematic analysis and it is explained in my findings (see 6.1.3.1 and 6.1.3.2 in Chapter 6, the latter describes those cases that are considered False PI).

The second element is the Result that is denoted with R. This element is related to Varonis and Gass's (1985) Response. However, while they consider the speaker's Response as a follow-up utterance after the indicator that acknowledges the non-understanding, the Result in my model goes beyond this. In other words, Result is considered the utterance or utterances that acknowledge there is trouble in communication, in addition to evidence the interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs) that help to overcome the break and reach Understanding (denoted as U in Fig. 5.2). It is in Result where IPSs such as repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching were observed more in my data (see Chapter 6). Under the IPSs model repetition is understood as the action of re-saying a previous utterance exactly within spoken interaction (Larsen-Freeman 2012, Mauraanen 2012) whilst rephrasing, as the action to restructure (e.g. lexically, syntactically, etc.) proceeding ideas in the course of a conversation (Kaur 2009, 2011b). Repair refers to the act of rectifying –namely correcting– utterances or ideas (Deterding 2013; Smit 2010; Seedhouse 2010); and, code-switching is considered as the alternation of language choice –namely, use of the first language (or L1) in the foreign/second language classroom or L2 (Cook 2010). These definitions establish how each strategy might be distinguished in

their 'form' from each other despite their inherently overlapping nature (see Chapter 6 discussion).

Another point to consider in order to complete the description of IPSs phenomena related to who was doing the action. In this regard, there are certain frameworks already set in the literature that shows the action is done by self- or other- (e.g. in repetition, Björkman 2011), other frameworks go even further to indicate who initiates and who does the action (e.g. in repair, see Hutchby & Wooffitt 2008, Seedhouse 2004). In order to provide clarity about who does the action, I adopted the simplest distinction. In other words, I described the strategy as *self-* when the individual that emitted the utterance was the same doing the strategy (e.g. self-repetition), and *other-* when the strategy was not done by the same individual who emitted the utterance but another one (e.g. other-rephrasing). I acknowledge that other analytic frameworks like Repair Theory includes a description of who initiated, however, in order to avoid misunderstanding among models, the IPSs model will signal self- and other- only. We turn now to the third element.

The third element is Understanding (U), which refers to an utterance that evidences interlocutor's mutual understanding. Varonis and Gass's model (1985) might consider this utterance as Reaction to Response; however, that is a larger category that might or might not include evidence of understanding.

In order to analyse data under the IPSs model, turn-by-turn transcription was carried out. That is to say, speakers' turns let know when breaks took place and, from that moment on, to observe IPSs that were present in the course of overcoming a communication break (Lee and Hellerman 2014, Seedhouse 2010, Hutchby and Wooffitt 2008). In this sense, one characteristic of IPSs that was highlighted during the analysis was that it is possible to observe IPSs in the three elements PI + R → U. See the following example, extract 5.5, taken from my data.

#### **Extract 5.5** IPSs model analysis example

(D) 0 – TskA-U2L1 W5-B - (Transcription lines 248-251)

RPT= Repetition

- 1 T [i don't] like bullfights i'm against bullfights i know  
 2 people who get um harm how to say harm. harm? PI Self-RPT

3	S1	<u>harm</u>	R Other-RPT
4	T	<u>harm</u> ANimals but i used to (sell) and say	U Other-RPT
5		<imitating> oh this i	

Extract 5.5 shows an example of the IPSs model analysis. It starts with the teacher (T) who was commenting that she did not like bullfights and giving her reasons, but she had a doubt about the word 'harm' in line 2. She (self-) repeated her question about that word she was not sure of and repeated it like a question signalling there was trouble, so a break presented. Such a break is the Problem Indicator (PI) in line 2. Following, S1 other-repeated the word in line 3, as a way to confirm T that 'harm' is the appropriate word. Then, the teacher other-repeated the word in line 4, signalling Understanding and continued talking. Like this, 239 breaks were observed and analysed under the IPS model (see Chapter 6).

While this model represents an original contribution to linguistic studies because it is providing insights about the way speakers reach understanding throughout IPSs patterns, there is still room for explaining how such a set of IPSs function in the language classroom (e.g. kinds of problems they solve). For example, extract 5.5 presents an interesting situation of unsureness about a certain word that was solved in a non-traditional way. In other words, the teacher was in trouble and a student helped her, when it is usually the other way around. This leads to think of not only the linguistics around the breaks but also the social perspective together with pedagogic instruction. Therefore, it was necessary to widen the analysis to observe the functions IPSs have in classroom interaction.

### 5.6.1.2 Functional analysis framework of IPSs

The previous section focused on describing the IPSs model in the strictest turn-by-turn analysis. However, the analysis needs to go further and observe strategies' functional level within classroom interaction, in order to identify the cause or causes of breakdowns. Such causes would let us realize interactants' social and educational purposes within communication. That is to say, RQ1 implies not only the identification of phenomena in form, but also how strategies are functioning in relation to communicative problem solving (e.g. while teaching, practicing, etc.). In order to look at how strategies function I considered Smit's

(2010) categorisation for repair phenomena studies in which she found three categories (linguistic, interactional, and factual) of repairables –namely occurrences of repair– that are related to the language classroom. Although these categories refer to repair phenomena, they are likely to apply with repetition, rephrasing, and code-switching because all of them represent means to ‘give voice to their (participants’) problems in inferring meaning’ (Smit 2010: 153) so strategies are used as a means to establish understanding in spoken interaction. Although Smit’s (2010) framework was limited to repair, it was expanded to other pragmatic strategies that help the purpose of understanding. Smit’s (2010) categories are threefold: linguistic, interactional and factual.

The linguistic category includes the solving of problems regarding pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The interactional category includes mishearing (namely problems with intelligibility), reference (problems of referential specifications, and situated meaning) and discourse (problems of topic development and turn-taking). Finally, the factual category includes instructional solving problems like topic or those that are content-linked, as well as regulative solving problems such as lesson-organisational matters (Smit 2010: 183). It is important to highlight here that although this categorisation is well set in Smit’s (2010) studies, it served as a starting point for my analysis. That is to say, whilst I am aware of the existence of these possible outcomes, these did not limit my analysis. Moreover, in order to validate my findings, I observed which of the findings deserved major attention and went further in depth with them. Therefore, Smit’s (2010) categorisation varied along my own data analysis (see discussion in Chapter 6).

Summarising, the analytic procedure consisted of identifying the problem, observing which interactional pragmatic strategies help to overcome the problem, indicating who is using such resource –if self- or other– and, finally, to determine what kind of problem was solved (namely how IPSs functioned). So, the IPSs framework for analysis seeks to answer my Research Question 1 that includes knowing the extent, namely basic accounts of phenomena (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison 2011) that help to provide an idea of the amount of communication breakdowns analysed, in addition to knowing which and how problems were solved, evidenced with examples. The next stage of this investigation refers to more emic outcomes where participants’ themselves express their perceptions about interactional pragmatic strategies through another research instrument: interviews.

### 5.6.2 Analytical Framework for interviews data

Content Analysis is the method used in order to answer RQ2. It was applied to data collected in the interviews. Content Analysis, in the more general sense, refers to those documents that are analysed in terms of their content and context in which main themes are identified (Ritchie *et. al.* 2014, Silverman 2011). The process in which themes are identified is traditionally called ‘coding’ (Schreier 2012). This method has been used widely in the analysis of interviews and qualitative questionnaires. For example, Jenkins (2013) did use Content Analysis in order to present the findings of students’ perception about English and its use in an international university and policies. Another example is Galloway and Rose (2014) who used Content Analysis as well to analyse some interviews in their project about awareness of global Englishes in English Language Teaching. Although these are two examples of recent literature, a large body of research – both qualitative and quantitative (e.g. Brown 2014, Schleef and Meyerhoff 2010)– has been analysed under a Content Analysis framework. One of the advantages that this method brings is the understanding of a certain phenomenon from the participant’s inner thoughts.

Another advantage of this analytical method is that Content Analysis let researchers be flexible in the way coding can be done. Coding in this sense can be done both ways: concept-driven and data-driven (Schreier 2012). Concept-driven refers to the coding that is pre-fabricated based on the main theme in the data; therefore, whilst reading your data you select which parts belong to the already set coding. On the other hand, data-driven coding –namely open coding (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2011)– is the other way around, as these are the codes that are emerging from data itself. That is to say, whilst reading you are selecting the extracts that are relevant for your study and coding them in that moment.

In the case of my research, I started with a concept-driven coding, as it is undeniable that I have already read and reviewed papers whose authors have used interviews in order to capture participants’ perceptions about a certain topic related to successful communication. This fact has lead me to think about certain major categories (Rubin and Rubin 2012, Silverman 2011) related to interactional pragmatic strategies such as identification of participants’ perceptions about repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching when they are interacting in a

conversation. Of course, these were rough categories that varied as long as I went in depth with the second way of coding that is data-driven. Data-driven coding is when free coding emerges little by little whilst reading the interview transcription (Schreier 2012). Here, it was necessary to highlight and write clear descriptions of the coding one is creating. Such free coding descriptions helped to create higher categorisation that let understanding of two major queries that relate to the ‘what’ and ‘why’ of participants’ perceptions about interactional pragmatic strategies.

In that sense, although I have thought about major categories (e.g. perceptions about repair), new bottom-up categories emerged from my data as well. These provided responses for RQ2 concerning participants’ perceptions related to interactional problems and how they were solved, and if IPSs supported that action. The procedure for analysis involved three stages. The first stage consisted of a free coding; that is to say, I read, coded and annotated small extracts of the interviews and organised them in the Nvivo software. The second stage consisted of analysing those free codings in order to refine them and interconnect them to obtain preliminary categories. Finally, the third stage served to identify the central categories. This procedure was similar to those who have carried out Content Analysis in their research (e.g. Li and Walsh 2011, Jenkins 2013, Brown 2014). Findings that came out through this process are highly valid as there was no preconceived idea of the results, as these were emerging throughout the process. The way my coding was changing is explained in the next section.

### 5.6.2.1 Analytical Framework for interviews data

I designed a set of possible codes that may be used after doing the interview transcriptions. This first step was a top-bottom approach because RQ2 was clear enough in collecting participant’s perceptions regarding English interaction and working expectancies. Therefore, my first code-frame included the following main themes and coding, based on RQ2 before having revisited it:

Awareness of international English interaction

- Meaning of English
- Meaning of international(ly)
- Spoken encounters participants know
  - o English-native like (e.g. British, etc.)

- ELF
- BELF

#### English usefulness

- English language experiences (includes daily use, working places, strategies to overcome understanding problems or to enhance communication)
  - Past
  - Present

#### English applicability (use) in the future

- For daily communication
- In the workplace

#### English in the classroom (perceptions as teacher/learners)

- Desired to teach/ learn
- Materials (emphasis in content uses in future English encounters)
  - Textbook opinions
  - Contents future applications

#### English communication (perceptions as users)

- opinions about grammar
- solving problem strategies
  - Non-understanding
  - Mis-understanding
- enhancing communication (spoken tips)
- pragmatic strategies (based on examples from the interaction done in class)
  - Language alternation
  - Repetition
  - Rephrasing
  - Repair

Such codes represented a conscious thought about what might answer RQ2. However, once interview transcriptions were typed, such a frame changed. That is to say, some items were transformed or adapted into others, others were deleted, and new ones were created. These changes resulted in three main themes: problem, interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs henceforth), and language perceptions. The decision for these main themes was consistent with the re-orientation of RQ1 and RQ2 that focused more on overcoming communication breaks, but studied from participants' own perception; as well to keeping the part of perception regarding language in both the classroom and workplace.

This second coding stage was the result of having analysed the interview transcripts; in other words, it took a bottom-up approach. Then, modifications to

the original frame were done little by little as coding was emerging from my data. An example of code modification is as follows:

#### Awareness of international English interaction

- Meaning of English
- Meaning of international(ly)
- Spoken encounters participants know
  - o English-native like (e.g. British, etc.)
  - o ELF
  - o BELF

‘Awareness of interactional’ English interaction together with ‘meaning of English’ and ‘spoken encounters participants know’ transformed into ‘language perception’. ‘Meaning of international’ disappeared because it was implicit in answers related to international English interaction. One major change in the coding organisation was:

#### English communication (perceptions as users)

- opinions about grammar
- solving problem strategies
  - o Non-understanding
  - o Mis-understanding
- enhancing communication (spoken tips)
- pragmatic strategies (based on examples from the interaction done in class)
  - o Language alternation
  - o Repetition
  - o Rephrasing
  - o Repair

Here, ‘English communication’ disappeared. ‘Opinions about grammar’ and ‘spoken tips’ were inserted into ‘language perception’. ‘Non-understanding’ and ‘misunderstanding’ were gathered into ‘problem’; and ‘pragmatic strategies’ codes were transformed into individual codes such as ‘code-switching perception’, ‘repetition’ perception, ‘rephrasing’ perception, and ‘repair’ perception, which form part of IPSs theme. As said before, these changes were done little by little throughout the interview data coding. The interview data followed various revision steps.

The first step was the selection of extracts. Extracts were selected while reading the interview transcripts at the same time as listening to their audios. The second step was to categorise extracts under main labels such as ‘problem’ that included grammar, pronunciation, mishearing/discourse, referential (meaning), and vocabulary; ‘interactional pragmatic strategies’ or IPSs that included code-switching, repetition, repair, and rephrasing; and other related labels such as pedagogy, learning, English, and expectancies. A third set of labels including classroom material, context, multi-faculty classroom, motivations, accents, intercultural communication, content-related topics, and other communicative problems were gathered as possible further study. Most of these categories were the product of the RQ1 previous analysis in which Smit’s (2010) repair framework was adapted to the present study, plus the first coding framework explained above.

The third step was the coding of extracts. Due to length issues, only the most relevant extracts were coded. Therefore, coding was done to ‘problem’, ‘interactional pragmatic strategies’, ‘pedagogy’, and ‘English’. ‘Learning’ and ‘Expectancies’ were used if necessary when developing the finding chapter. Accordingly, the third set of labels was set aside as possible further study. 751 codes came out from the first round of extract analysis. As a third step, codes were gathered into main codes and themes, resulting in the final code framework:

<b>Theme 1: Break problem</b> Interruption occurrence during communicative interaction; interruption, in this case, might be caused due to lack of understanding (e.g. misunderstanding).		
<b>Code</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Example</b>
Problem	Interruption reason (e.g. non-understanding, misunderstanding, mispronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, mishearing, reference, etc.)	...my word choice is always my problem...  (BS1)
Break stage (overcoming)	IPSs order suggested by the interviewee in order to reach understanding (e.g. using repetition first, then rephrasing; using code-switching as the last option; etc.).	...se lo repito y si de plano no lo entienden pues si trato de buscar como que otra forma de expresarlo...  <i>...I repeat it but if they do not understand I try to look for another way to express it...</i>

		(CS12)
Understanding process	Process through which a break problem could be solved.	...they told me that in Spanish and then I processed that in English and that's better... (AS1)

<b>Theme 2: Strategies</b>		
A plan or method for achieving any specific goal (Word Reference, retrieved 27-07-15)		
<b>Code</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Example</b>
Interactional Pragmatic strategy (IPS)	<i>Repetition</i> : Speaker's thoughts, opinions, or points of view regarding repetition	...in the English corner um I I I think is not really important to avoid the repetitions... (AS6)
	<i>Repetition quantity</i> : number of repetitions suggested by the interviewee	...if the purpose is the other person to understand the message I would repeat um (even) it did- it implies I have to do it maybe two or three times... (AS2)
	<i>Rephrasing</i> : Speaker's thoughts, opinions, or points of view regarding rephrasing	...if I find what the problem is so I can say it in another way to so they can really understand it... (BS3)
	<i>Repair</i> : Speaker's thoughts, opinions, or points of view regarding repair	...sometimes I notice that they correct themselves... (TA)
	<i>Code-switching</i> : Speaker's thoughts, opinions, or points of view regarding code-switching	...code-switching is naturally you don't you don't um some like- you're never aware of it... (BS3)
Clarification strategy	When a speaker clarifies his or her previous idea through explanations and/or examples in which other (IPS) strategies may be used implicitly.	...well I would explain them what I am talking about maybe in other words... (BS3)
Accommodation strategy	When a speaker adapts his speech to his/her interlocutor; speech, in this case, includes all aspects of spoken communication such as pace (e.g. slow down or speak faster), vocabulary (use of simple words), etc. Discourse	...volvérsele a explicar pero con palabras menos esten difíciles sino algo más sencillo...  ...to explain again but with less difficult words with something simpler... (CS2)

	problems among others are related to this strategy.	
Teaching strategy	Strategies that include any kind of action that help teaching; these can overlap with any of the other of strategies.	...I usually try to explain it in other words... (TA)
	<i>Classroom perception:</i> speaker's thoughts, opinion, or points of view regarding classroom communication	...how um Mexican teach English is just like how Asians teach English... (BS2)
Learning strategy	Strategies that include any kind of action that help learning; these can overlap with any of the other of strategies.	...learning a language or something it just- you keep making mistake and keep correct the mistake that's how improve yourself... (BS2)
Other communication strategies	<i>Technology strategy:</i> includes any kind of information technology (IT) such as computers, online dictionaries, etc. that is used as means to reach understanding.	...what I find useful is to have um dictionaries so they can hear the um the pronunciation... (TA)
	<i>Visual strategy:</i> includes any kind of visual tool such as maps, documents, leaflets, etc. that is used as means to reach understanding.	...que me piden cómo llegar a algún lado saco el mapa...  ...they ask me how to get to a place and I show them a map... (CS3)
	<i>Body language strategy:</i> includes any kind of body language such as gestures, facial expressions, signs, etc. as means to reach understanding.	...si es un número que no puedo pronunciar y ya con mis manos le digo qué número es...  ...if it is a number I cannot pronounce I use my hands to say the number... (CS2)

**Theme 3: Language**

All related to language

Code	Description	Example
Language(s) perception	Speaker's thoughts, opinions, or points of view regarding any language or languages,	...el inglés es una herramienta lingüística muy importante...

	although the emphasis is on English (e.g. meaning of English, opinions about grammar, vocabulary, expectancies, etc.)	<i>...English is a very important linguistic tool ...</i>  (TC)
Work-related	speaker's thoughts, opinions, or points of view regarding workplace communication	<i>...todo trabajo te lo pide es casi casi obligatorio no sólo inglés ahora creo que te están pidiendo hasta francés...</i>  <i>... all jobs requirements include English almost compulsory, I think even French is a requirement...</i>  (CS2)
Culture-related	speaker's thoughts, opinions, or points of view regarding any cultural issue	<i>...I would try to to know um why is his or her cultural background so if I know that I can find a way to: express that in a in a proper way...</i>  (AS2)

From these resulting codes, I presented only those that were relevant to answering my RQ2 in Chapter 7. Some of the rest were commented on as further study in Chapter 8. I now turn to the various roles I played during my research.

## 5.7 Researcher's roles

I have played various roles throughout the development of this research. From being a designer of the research instruments, I have also been a negotiator in order to get access to the classrooms and record the lessons. Whilst I was recording and making notes, other kinds of roles have to be considered, especially if you see yourself as an 'intruder' in a specific community that is not accustomed to your presence. That is to say, in order to collect my data I had to be immersed in academic life at the university but with the challenge of wearing three caps: as a researcher, as a teacher, and as a student; sometimes, all of them at the same time. So my position during this stage of the research needs to be clarified.

Being an English teacher for a while in my home country together with my current formation as a researcher at the University of Southampton has made me aware

of the importance of being in a class, attending a lesson and living the experience of being a student again in order to observe closely how communication takes place in academic settings. In this way, I became a participant-observer in the community I was studying:

Through participant-observation, ethnographers are able to gain unique insights into why people choose to act in certain ways in various situations (Dempsey 2010: 349)

Although being in the class could give me in-depth insights on how pragmatic strategies play a role in the language classroom for business, I needed to be careful not to impose my presence as a researcher in the classroom as I wanted to gain my student participants' confidence and allow them to see me as one of them. This might have helped them and the teacher to act as they normally do in the classroom and not to act differently when knowing they are observed (Archer, Aijmer and Wichmann 2012). Therefore, I was able to record the classes in their every-day normality. During the first week, I joined classes in Group A and B. Although I had introduced myself to the teachers before –when I asked for their permission to be in their classes– I introduced myself again to students and I did it as a researcher and asked for their permission to be with them attending the class and they accepted. Nevertheless, I did not escape the 'observer's effect' (Blommaert and Jie 2010) as I observed from the very first class that students felt uncomfortable with me observing them. They were really aware of my presence (they made eye-contact with me when participating, and showed their nervousness while I was writing my notes).

Then, I decided to include myself in the lessons, so I asked teachers to include me in some tasks during the lesson and to treat me as another student from time to time, so students do not feel I was only taking notes about them. On the contrary, I wanted them to feel I was part of the class. I started to do this in the third class, and I noticed they behaved more naturally. Little by little, they got used to my presence and let me approach them for the interviews as well as to ask them for information related to their studies. I did the same when I was in Group C and it worked positively as well. That is how I gained the confidence of students and teachers. I have to say that this stage of the research –data collection– was quite challenging because during the lessons, in my role as a student I wanted to participate more; however, in my role as a researcher, I had to think about it twice because the reason I was there was to record them interacting more as a class and not me interacting more in the class. Then, I had to measure

my participation in class. Thankfully, teachers helped me do this. Other roles included that of data analyser and self-appraiser when my thesis was written up.

## 5.8 Ethics

Permission under the University of Southampton ethical framework was requested from all participants. All participants included in this research accepted voluntarily and signed the Consent Sheet as required. As the official language in Mexico is Spanish, ERGO forms were translated, administrated and explained when necessary in Spanish. Furthermore, interviews were carried out in either Spanish or English, based on participants' preferences. All information obtained followed three main aspects that Flicks (2007) has suggested for qualitative research: 1) quality in order to obtain ethically sound research; 2) reflection of ethical issue such as data protection and anonymity, not harming to participants; and 3) respect to participant's points of views, perspective and privacies. These aspects are comprised in the ERGO forms.

## 5.9 Validity

In the case of this research, method and data triangulation (Dörnyei 2007) was the strategy used for results validation as it 'has been traditionally seen as one of the most efficient ways of reducing the chance of systematic bias in a qualitative study' (p. 61). Triangulation (Hammersley and Atkinson 2007) –namely the use of several methods or theoretical approaches in which research questions are answered (Flick 2007)– was implemented as a means to validate the results derived from this study. An extended description of this validation strategy refers to systematic triangulation, when a combination of perspectives (e.g. explorative, descriptive, etc.) and methods (e.g. conversation analysis, etc.) takes place in the search for phenomena understanding (Flick 2007). This links to the main analytic methods –discourse analysis and content analysis– in which collected data was treated in order to answer the research questions. Accordingly, triangulation represents the means for providing multiple perspectives that added richness to my results. The fact that triangulation has been considered to validate my study relays in the notion of trustworthiness that, according to Loh (2013) drawing Lincoln and Guba's (1985) trustworthiness criteria, includes several qualitative

research techniques such as engagement, observations, triangulation, thick descriptions and overlap methods, among others (Loh 2013: 5) that encompass validity and reliability to qualitative research.

## 5.10 Limitations

Various limitations have been identified in my study. The first one refers to the limited amount of naturally occurring interaction for speaking tasks where simulated business situations were practised orally; but there were plenty of non-simulated spoken tasks that displayed how students actually use English to communicate not only to provide specific answers but their ideas, opinions, constructs, and so on. A second limitation relates to participants, as they were not always forming part of an ELF group in their practises, as most students were Mexican in the three modules, therefore, their communicative behaviour may differ in terms of IPSs use. However, this limitation may bring specific contributions on certain topics that may be suggested at the end of the thesis. A third limitation was that although efforts were made for students not to feel observed, the recording devices were physically there and may have influenced in some participants' speech. Finally, my focus on the study of interactional pragmatic strategies might limit results to that specific target topic. However, new outcomes that may derive from the study will be included in the suggestions and/or further investigation sections.

## 5.11 Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed account of the methodological framework that guides this research. It started by introducing some results of the pilot study as means to explain the revisited aim and research questions. Also, information about the business Mexican context and the Universidad de Quintana Roo was introduced in order to give a general idea of the setting where the English for Business modules are offered; descriptions included some characteristics taken from the official documents –secondary instruments– that guide such modules. In addition, some data analysis methods were discussed; these were discourse analysis that helped to find answers for research question 1, in which the IPSs model to analyse how communication breakdowns are overcome within

classroom interaction was proposed; and the content analysis method of which the focus was on answering research question 2, that also seeks to provide insights of IPSs but from interactants' perceptions. Finally, issues regarding researcher's roles, research validation, ethical concerns and limitations were discussed.



## Chapter 6: Classroom Interaction Findings

This chapter presents the findings of the classroom interaction data. Here, the focus is to answer Research question 1. First, a description of basic quantitative outcomes presented under a qualitative framework (Cohen et. al. 2011) is presented in order to provide a panorama of the extent of interactional pragmatic strategies (IPs henceforth) used to solve communication problems –namely breaks– in the search for understanding, to later illustrate through examples which problems were addressed and how IPs worked for that purpose. In addition, some unsuccessful cases are shown as well as some occurrences in which breaks were solved without IPs. The chapter ends with a discussion about IPs.

### 6.1 The extent of classroom interaction

#### 6.1.1 Speaking tasks

There were 64 speaking tasks within the 13 hours transcribed (see corpus examples in appendix F). Tasks were different in nature as some were used for discussion whilst others, to carry on presentations as mere practice and role-plays. Also, speaking tasks fulfilled the purpose of evaluation such as oral tests and presentations. There was only one task that was used as model practice; that is to say, a dialogue model that students had to repeat aloud. Table 6 shows the amounts of these tasks per group.

**Table 6.** Speaking tasks types

Groups	A	B	C	TOTAL
<b>(D) Discussion</b>	14	13	13	40
<b>(PE) Presentation for Evaluation</b>	2	5	0	7
<b>(RP) Role-play</b>	3	1	0	4

<b>(MP) Model practice</b>	0	1	0	1
<b>(OT) Oral test</b>	0	0	6	6
<b>(PP) Practise Presentations</b>	0	0	6	6
<b>TOTAL</b>				64

From this range of tasks, discussions were the most used in the three groups observed and recorded. The rest of tasks were covered differently within the groups. For example, the model practice was used once in Group B, but not in the others. Role-plays were used more in Group A, less in Group B, and none in Group C. Furthermore, practice presentations were done only in Group C. Although presentations were also done in Group A and B, these took another nature, the one of evaluation. Finally, oral tests were carried out only in Group C. Therefore, discussion tasks were considered the most representative data in the three groups to be analysed in depth.

### 6.1.2 Communication breakdown overcome in discussion tasks

The 40 discussion tasks were analysed under the procedure explained in the analytical framework (see 5.6.1). Having identified the Problem Indicator (PI henceforth), attention was directed to whether a break was overcome successfully or unsuccessfully regarding mutual understanding. While doing so, some False PI was identified. False PI refers to those utterances that might resemble a Problem Indicator –like causing a break in communication– but were considered False because the course of the conversation was kept fluid and, most importantly, there was mutual understanding among speakers (see 6.1.3.2). Other PIs had to be considered as Non Applicable (N/A) because they included students that did not accept to participate in the project and problems including me in my role as a student. Therefore, although they were counted as problems, they were not analysed. Finally, some problems were annulled because the recording was unintelligible or because the extract was repeated. Table 7 shows the amounts of break cases within analysed speaking tasks.

**Table 7.** Discussion break cases

<b>Groups</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
<b>Successful</b>	45	40	43	128
<b>Unsuccessful</b>	3	13	34	50
<b>False PI</b>	5	7	17	29
<b>Annulled</b>	2	3	2	7
<b>N/A Problem</b>	0	21	4	25
<b>TOTAL</b>				239

Successful cases were analysed in depth regarding Interactional Pragmatic Strategies (IPSs). Due to the great variety of IPSs patterns, successful case findings will be shown in 6.2. Regarding unsuccessful cases, they were caused by different reasons observed in the extracts. Reasons vary depending on whether the non-success was due to attitudinal issues (e.g. unwillingness to participate), pedagogic skills (e.g. interrupting students talk to gain the floor), or issues related to knowledge (e.g. language proficiency) among others. Such reasons are discussed in depth in 6.3. Moving to False PI cases, they were not explained in the analytical chapter because they were not expected to happen. However, various False PI were among the data. The following paragraphs present PI and False PI outcomes.

### **6.1.3 Problem Indicator (PI) and False PI**

#### **6.1.3.1 Problem Indicator**

As mentioned in the analytical framework (see 5.6.1.1), a Problem Indicator (PI) can be identified through a question, a cue, a pause or period of silence or a statement; all of them signalled by the speaker himself/herself within interaction. However, more types of PI were found. There were 188 PIs identified, in which

categories such as mispronunciation, overlapping and external interruption were included, as is presented in the following table.

**Table 8.** Problem Indicator usage extent per group in successful cases

Problem Indicator Type	Group			TOTAL
	A	B	C	
Question	25	22	22	69
Statement	26	15	12	53
Cue	11	7	11	29
Pause/Silence	1	-	1	2
Mispronunciation	5	4	4	13
Overlapping	2	12	7	21
External interruption	1	-	-	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>188</b>

Table 8 shows the amounts of the various kinds of PIs. The one used more often was a question (69), followed by statements (53). The largest amount of statements might be due to the nature of classroom task, in which there is room to interrupt any utterance in order to suggest improvement while producing it, namely correcting the spoken production that, in fact, learners are expecting (Walsh 2011). While these numbers show the active appearance of communication breaks in spoken tasks, other amounts are needed as well in order to have a better picture of the IPSs importance within classroom interaction. This refers to the extent in which IPSs were used in PIs. This issue has not been mentioned yet. PI sometimes included IPSs, a characteristic that was observed while carrying on the analysis. That is to say, IPSs are prone to be implicit in a PI. This could be

observed through the direct link of PIs to previous turns, namely the Trigger (Varonis and Gass 1985) turns. Table 9 presents the IPSs observed in PIs.

**Table 9.** IPSs usage in PI per group

Group	Repetition		Rephrasing		Repair		Code-Switching	TOTAL
	Self	Other	Self	Other	Self	Other		
A	2	8	1	1	-	-	8	20
B	3	6	-	2	1	-	4	16
C	3	1	1	-	-	-	13	18
<b>Total</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>54</b>

Overall, IPSs were used similarly among the groups in amount terms. Regarding IPSs, code-switching seems to be the most used to signal a problem while communicating. Groups C did use it more than any other IPSs. Whilst Group A used code-switching and other-repetition evenly, Group B resourced more on other-repetition. A second observation refers to the nature of IPSs in PIs as they varied as well. In other words, various IPSs could be observed in a PI. See the following extract for example:

**(D) 1 - TskA-U1L2 W2-B - (Transcript lines 169-170)**

1 S1 signals

2 T <Sp> cómo? </Sp> signs. signals. what you said? **PI**

Line 2 shows one of the PI of extract (D) 1. It includes various IPSs such as code-switching, other-rephrasing, and other-repetition, to end with a direct question. Code-switching may be attributed to the spontaneity in which discourse was taken place between two Spanish speakers. The same way English speakers say

*sorry?* or *pardon?* when they do not hear something clearly, it is the way that Spanish speakers react with *¿cómo?* This relates to participant's perception regarding the use of code-switching –and other IPSs– without noticing they are doing so (see Chapter 7 for perceptions). Then, the teacher uttered 'signs' as a way to other-rephrase what is heard in addition to other-repeat S1's utterances, both function as a way to find out again whether she heard correctly in the first place. Moreover, the teacher added a direct question that confirmed the non-understanding of the previous turn. This was only one example, but there were 188 PIs in which 54 IPSs were used, not in all but in some of them. Another aspect observed in PIs was that not all of them were real PIs; contrarily, they were false as explained in the next section.

### 6.1.3.2 False PI

Another feature observed in Problem Indicators (PIs) is that there are False PIs. False PIs are the utterances that might resemble a Problem Indicator –like causing a break in communication– but they are considered false because the course of the conversation stays fluid and, most importantly, there is not evidence that demonstrates that the interactant acknowledged the problem, and kept talking showing mutual understanding. Extract (D) 2 is an example of False PI in which other-repair was used followed by a marker that signalled understanding:

#### (D) 2 - Tsk1(1)-U3L7 W9-C1

(Transcription lines 24-30)

- |   |    |  |                 |
|---|----|--|-----------------|
| 1 | S4 | this relates (.) um (because) the /e'kɪpmənt/? | <b>False PI</b> |
| 2 | T  | the /i'kwɪpmənt/ ok                            |                 |
| 3 | S4 | for see (2) presentation                       |                 |
| 4 | T  | uhu  |                 |

In extract (D) 2, participant S4 was explaining his understanding of visual aids when he mispronounced the word 'equipment'. He was not sure about the

pronunciation because he pronounced it with a question intonation. The teacher seemed to other-repair S4's pronunciation in line 2, but S4 did not show he understood the correction as he continued talking in line 3. The fact there is no evidence after other-repair –in this case of pronunciation, in line 3– might be because the teacher said 'ok' after the repair in line 2, then, the student knew the teacher understood and considered repetition was not necessary. In other words, the teacher's 'ok' in line 2 marks the teacher's understanding of the word. Due to this understanding line 1 was considered a False PI.

Like this, there were other cases of other-repair –that is usually done by teachers– that is followed by utterances like 'ok', 'all right', 'uhu', 'right', etc., markers that signal understanding. Therefore, some other-repairs were ignored. This was an example of pronunciation but there were also cases of vocabulary and grammar like this. Other cases of False PI included answering with code-switching into Spanish with no reason to do it, (long) pauses because the teacher was writing on the board and so on (see the complete list of False PI in appendix L). Now let's move on to the successful cases.

## **6.2 Patterns: Successful cases in discussion tasks**

The three-round analysis on each of the 128 successful cases resulted in a large number of patterns. Such patterns were classified according to problems solved (Smit 2010), namely how they functioned (see 5.6.1.2), showing the extent of the ways in which IPSs are used in the classroom. As explained in the analytical framework, patterns start with the Problem Indicator (PI) followed by its Result (R) (see 5.6.1.1) that includes the used IPSs. The following sections will show some examples of how IPSs were used to reach understanding (U) within the speaking tasks; the whole set of patterns are in appendix M. The next section starts with a discussion regarding the extent to which IPSs have worked successfully to, then, present examples. Such findings may provide an idea of the impact IPSs have for classroom interaction and for learning and teaching accordingly.

### 6.2.1 IPSs used in discussion tasks

There was a myriad of patterns in which IPSs help to overcome communication problems. Table 10 summaries the amount of IPSs used in the result –meaning that IPSs from the main PIs are excluded in this counting– of each of the successful cases.

**Table 10.** IPSs used in Discussion tasks (in Result patterns)

Group	Repetition		Rephrasing		Repair		Code-Switching	TOTAL
	Self	Other	Self	Other	Self	Other		
<b>A</b>	26	26	13	17	4	33	9	128
<b>B</b>	26	18	6	4	2	20	0	76
<b>C</b>	22	26	1	1	1	29	11	91
<b>Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>295</b>

Table 10 shows that the most used IPSs were other-repair followed by self- and other-repetition; and the least used were self-repair. This might be expected due to the nature of interaction that takes place in the classroom, in which speakers' roles are asymmetric (Dalton-Puffer 2007) clearly: the teachers job is to provide understanding through support and guidance when language is not pronounced well, for example. In addition, the role that students have in the classroom is as learners, which lets them be overt to any teacher's suggestion or correction regarding their language production (Walsh 2011). Repair and repetition, then, bonded well in order to reach understanding (see 6.2.2 and further discussion in 6.6.3). Regarding the groups, group A made use of IPSs more extensively than groups B and C. Group C used the least number of IPSs, but still a good quantity that suggests how IPSs are important to reach understanding (see Table 11). Turning to the problems solved through IPSs, table 11 present the amounts under Smit's (2010) repairables framework (see 3.3 and 5.6.1.2).

**Table 11.** IPSs amounts per group per problem (for Result only)

Problem(No.)	Repetition		Rephrasing		Repair		Code-Switching	TOTAL
	Self	Other	Self	Other	Self	Other		
LP (14)	12	22	-	-	-	14	1	49
LG (2)	2	2	-	-	-	2	1	7
LV (23)	7	15	-	5	3	27	4	61
IM (23)	15	3	3	1	-	2	1	25
IR (13)	2	6	5	6	1	10	3	33
ID (24)	21	5	-	1	-	3	-	30
FR (17)	2	2	6	3	-	7	3	23
FI (18)	1	5	2	1	1	3	-	13
EC (25)	12	10	4	5	2	14	7	54
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>295</b>

*Note: EC problem includes 0 LP, 2 LG, 7 LV, 3 IM, 7 IR, 1 ID, 2 FR, and 3 FI.*

*Key: LP= Pronunciation, LG= Grammar, LV= Vocabulary, IM= Mishearing, IR= Reference, ID=Discourse, FR=Regulative, FI=Instructional (Smit 2010)*

Table 11 shows the number of problems identified in successful cases. The most common problems include vocabulary (30, including EC occurrences), followed by mishearing (26) and discourse (25); and the less common problem refers to grammar (4 in total). Such numbers confirm some participants' perceptions in which they highlight their major problem in class, which is vocabulary (see Chapter 7).

A second finding observed relates to the number of IPSs used to solve the various problems found in the data set. Again, vocabulary (LV) was the problem that most required IPSs (61) closely followed by embedded-case (EC) patterns which included various problems at a time (54). The most used IPSs were other-repair (27) to solve LV problems, other-repetition (22) to solve pronunciation (LP) problems, and self-repetition (21) to solve discourse (ID) problems.

These numeric findings have answered part of research question 1 showing the extent to which IPSs helped solve problems successfully. Nevertheless, it is relevant at this point to show *which* problems were solved and *how*. The next section provides the findings accordingly.

## 6.2.2 Problems solved

As stated in the analytical framework (see 5.6.1.2), Smit's (2010) 'repairables' were used as a point of departure to foresee possible problems caused by communication breakdowns in the present data. This framework worked well in terms of main categories such as linguistic, interactional, and factual. Nevertheless, some of their components needed further description to include phenomena observed through these findings (see adaptations in 6.6.1). Therefore, problems included pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, mishearing, reference, discourse, instructional and regulative ones. The next section includes *how* such an array of problems was solved through interactional pragmatic strategies or IPSs. The whole list of patterns per problem solved is in appendix M.

### 6.2.2.1 Linguistic-Pronunciation (LP)

There were six different patterns that helped to solve linguistic-pronunciation (LP) problems. IPSs used more included repair and repetition, although code-switching was used in one case. The following is an example of how an LP problem was solved through other-repair and other-repetition:

**(D) 3 - TskA-U2L3 W6-B - (Transcript lines 76-80)**

RPR= Repair, RPT= Repetition

1	S4	also sometimes [it has] /blu- blud/	
2	T	um?	PI
3	S4	/blud/	
4	S1	/bl^d/	R Other-RPR
5	S4	/bl^d/ [sometimes <Sp> uacala </Sp>]	U Other-RPT

In extract (D) 3, the class was discussing about organic and inorganic products. They were talking about eggs. S4 was complaining that some eggs she had bought had blood, but she mispronounced the word 'blood' (line 1). The teacher did a cue signalling she needs S4 to repeat the word again (line 2). S4 self-repeated the word but mispronounced it again (line 3). S1 might have understood the problem and other-repaired S4's pronunciation (line 4). S4 understood she was mispronouncing the word and other-repeated it as S1 pronounced it and continued talking (line 5), therefore understanding about how to pronounce the word blood took place. Then, such a repair and repetition worked well together as they help to maintain the conversation.

Regarding the IPSs model, in this case, the first three lines were considered as PI because the three of them reflected communication breakdowns. Line 1 and 3 are PI of mispronunciation, and line 2 a cue that reflected non-understanding. As Result (R), we can see the use of other-repair that comes from a third person in the interaction (line 4) and a marker of understanding throughout other-repetition in line 5. Interestingly, the repair came from a student and not from the teacher. This might happen due to the fact that S1 is a native English speaker, so he reacted almost immediately after the second mispronunciation, after noticing that the teacher did not understand S4.

### 6.2.2.2 Linguistic-Grammar (LG)

Linguistic-grammar problems were the less observed. There were two different patterns that helped to solve the cases found. One of them is in the following extract; the other case can be seen in appendix M.

## (D) 4 - Tsk1(3)-U3L7 W9-C1 - (Transcript lines 3-13)

RPT= Repetition, CS= Code-switching, RPR= Repair, OvrIp= Overlapping

1	T	right. <reading> how visual information is being presented in	
2		these pictures </reading> all right? (2) [and-]	PI OvrIp
3	S1	[what] is being.	
4	T	uh?	PI cue
5	S1	being	PI Self-RPT
6	T	being ok IS	U Other-RPT
7		being what tense is it. (3) <Sp> qué tiempo es. </Sp> (7)	PI Self-RPT+CS
8	S1	<Sp> es futuro? <Sp> (4) ok (3)	PI CS + pauses
9	T	it's continuous no?	R Other-RPR
10	S1	ah ok	U

This example includes two moments. First, when the teacher did not understand the question and, second, when the teacher clarifies the main grammar non-understanding. In moment 1, The teacher was reading the instruction of the task when S1 interrupted and asked about the meaning of 'being', marking a PI in form of question (line 3). The teacher marked another PI with a cue (line 4) meaning he did not understand the question properly, possibly because another PI in form of overlapping (lines 2 and 3). S1 self-repeated the problem word again in line 5. The teacher heard properly now and, as a Result (R), he other-repeated 'being' (line 6), and marked he understood the word problem with 'ok' (line 6).

After that, moment 2 starts when the teacher adopted a deductive approach to help S1 to understand the word. So, he provided a hint that consisted of asking

for the ‘tense’ of the problematic word both in L2 and L1 (Spanish) by code-switching languages, right after self-repeating the word (line 7). S1 did answer with question intonation (line 8) and using Spanish as well, another PI signalling he was not sure about the tense of the verb (line 8). Pauses were left for the student to think about an answer to the teacher’s question, but these were long enough that represented other PI (lines 7 and 8). When appropriate, the Result came when the teacher other-repaired S1's answer throughout code-switching to L2 again (line 9). The ‘no?’ at the end of line 9 represents a False PI because it was not really an indicator of communication break caused by non-understanding, but a question to confirm understanding. Finally, S1 marked understanding by confirming with ‘ah ok’ in line 10.

In this case, repetition, code-switching and repair served for the pedagogical purpose of deductive teaching; while it works well sometimes, others teachers have to provide the answers like in this case. What is evidenced here, is that through IPSs used, the student realised the word problem was a verb, although he could not identify the tense.

### 6.2.2.3 Linguistic-Vocabulary (LV)

Linguistic-vocabulary problems displayed the largest number of patterns in the whole dataset. There were sixteen different patterns. The pattern used more was other-repair plus other-repetition with seven cases.

(D) 5 - *Tsk3(1)-U3L6 W7-C* - (Transcript lines 126-132)

RPR= Repair, PRT= Repetition

1 S9 things and if i say i'm gonna: speak only for ten  
 2 minutes they are going to /consent/ with- um they  
 3 are going to <Sp> **concentrarse?** </Sp> /consent?/  
 4 **no?** ←————→ **PI**

5	T	=to focus on	R Other-RPR
6	S9	= <b>uhu</b> they are <b>to focus on</b> um in my (subject) in	U Other-RPT
7		ten minutes	

In extract (D) 5, the class was discussing about how to introduce a presentation in business. S9 was saying her reasons why it was important to specify the timing along a presentation, when she signalled a PI marked by code-switching to L1, attempting to translate the L1 word, and by a cue (lines 3 and 4). S9 did not know how to say 'concentrarse' in English, and attempted to adapt such a word into English. As Result, the teacher other-repaired his adaptation and suggested another term 'focus on' (line 5). S9 other-repeated the word, and continued talking, signalling this way she understood the other-repair. Other patterns include other IPSs such as rephrasing and code-switching (see appendix M).

#### 6.2.2.4 Interactional-Mishearing (IM)

There were ten patterns in Interactional-Mishearing (IM). Self-repetition was the most common IPSs that helped to solve IM problems.

(D) 6 - *TskA-U2L5 W6-A1* - (Transcript lines 14-18)

PRT= Repetition, RPR= Repair, CS= Code-switching

1	S7	maybe maybe food sometimes food	
2	T	ok	
3	S1	<Sp> cómo? </Sp> web?	PI CS
4	S7	food	R Self-RPT & Other-RPR
5	T	<b>yeah</b> sometimes	U

In the extract (D) 6, the class was discussing complaints about services. S7 was commenting that 'food' is something people could complain about, but S1 did not hear properly and asked S7 again. In fact, he asked twice signalling two PIs in form of questions: first by code-switching into Spanish, and second, by providing a word he thought he heard from S7 (line 3). So, he misheard the word 'food' for 'web'. As Result, S7 self-repeated the word 'food' that functioned as other-repair at the same time, which evidences how IPSs interface sometimes. Understanding was marked when the teacher noticed the word was understood, took the next turn after the clarification, and let the interaction continues (line 5). In this extract, code-switching, repetition and repair together served for clarification. Other patterns included other IPSs such as rephrasing.

#### 6.2.2.5 Interactional-Reference (IR)

Interactional-Reference problems (IR) were solved through eleven different patterns. The most common way to solve the problem does not signal any IPSs but a general answer that lead to understanding. Despite that, IPSs were used in the rest of the cases, which included repair, rephrasing, repetition, and code-switching.

(D) 7- *TskA-U2L1 W3-A* - (Transcript lines 6-17)

RPR= Repair, RPHR= Rephrasing

- |   |    |  |                    |
|---|----|--|--------------------|
| 1 | T  | about that statement. <reading> selling is about sticking your   |                    |
| 2 |    | foot in the door and making a speech </reading> <i>student 5</i> |                    |
| 3 |    | what do you think.   |                    |
| 4 | S5 | <b>i don't (.) get it</b>  | <b>PI</b>          |
| 5 | T  | [what is (to sell).]   |                    |
| 6 | S7 | [<low> it's like] being persistent </low>                        | <b>R Other-RPR</b> |

7	S5	=it's like forcing.	Self-RPR
8	T	it's like knock your door and say what you <@> have to	Other-RPR
9		say </@>	& Self-RPHR
10	S5	= <b>well</b> (<fast> i don't know </fast>) sometimes NO no	U
11		sometimes ALways you have to be very polite	
12	T	uhu	

In extract (D) 7, the class was discussing some statements –namely utterance examples– that are used in selling. One of the phrases was 'sticking your foot in the door and making a speech'. The teacher asked S5 to express her opinion about that phrase, but S5 expressed she did not get it; in other words, she did not understand the statement or maybe only a part of it signalling a PI. The teacher asked for the term right away but overlapped with S7's utterance that joined the discussion. The overlapping can be considered a False PI because it did not break the communication, as students answered back immediately to the teacher's question (lines 6 and 7). As Result, then, S7 other-repaired with the phrase 'being persistent', and S5 did self-repair by suggesting the term 'forcing'. Both, S7 and S5 were trying to understand the phrase by using rephrase. In addition, S7 and S5 gave their interpretation of the phrase almost at the same time; meaning that each one was thinking of the phrase separately, in fact S5 latched onto S7 (line 7). A third other-repair comes from the teaching (line 8).

In addition, the teacher self-rephrased the statement she read in previous turns. But this time, the teacher simplified the phrase and transformed it into a simple understanding 'knock your door', but did not provide a meaning for 'sticking your foot' (line 8). She continued self-rephrasing the word 'speech' for 'say what you have to say'. It seemed that this last teacher's rephrasing worked well because after that S5 signalled understanding as she continued giving her point of view on the statement, now focusing more on features such as politeness. The way other-repair, self-repair, and self-rephrasing worked together here helped to reach meaning, and represents another way to study communication breaks and understanding.

### 6.2.2.6 Interactional-Discourse (ID)

Nine patterns were found in interactional-discourse (ID). The most common ID problem was overlapping (15 cases) that was usually solved with self-repetition. Other IPSs such as repair and rephrasing were used to solve this kind of problem as well.

(D) 8 - *Tsk1(1)&(2)-U3L9 W12-C1* - (Transcript lines 41-45)

RPT= Repetition

- 1 S6 the summary is um the points about the project
- 2 T =ok
- 3 S6 [and the conclusion-] ←
- 4 T [and what about the] ← conclusion. PI
- 5 S6 **the conclusion** is um my opinion and (2) a short um R Self-RPT U
- 

In extract (D) 8, the class was discussing about conclusion and summary in presentations. S6 was explaining about what he understands by 'conclusion' when his utterance overlapped with the teacher's who was asking about conclusion (lines 3 and 4), signalling a PI. As Result, S6 self-repeated his overlapped utterance 'the conclusion' signalling understanding and continued talking (line 5). Repetition that comes out of overlapping is common in any kind of interaction. It is mainly done to have one's voice heard (Scott 2002) so the interlocutor does not lose the intended meaning. In the extract, the intended meaning was successfully understood throughout self-repetition.

### 6.2.2.7 Factual-Instructional (FI)

Factual-instructional (FI) showed thirteen patterns. Most of them were unique cases -it presented once in the whole data set- and some others, dual cases -

presented twice. Among the IPSs observed were code-switching, rephrasing, repetition, and rephrasing.

(D) 9 - *Tsk1(1)-U4L10 W12-C1* - (Transcript lines 155-164)

RPHR= Rephrasing, CS= Code-switching

- |    |     |   |                             |
|----|-----|---|-----------------------------|
| 1  | T   | [ok] if- if <i>student 7</i> has a- a point of you you have a- a    |                             |
| 2  |     | point of you <i>student 4</i> have a point of view ok we have three |                             |
| 3  |     | different points of views [ok]                                      |                             |
| 4  | SX  | [uhu]   |                             |
| 5  | T   | is it possible in a meeting.  |                             |
| 6  | S1  | <low> yes </low>  |                             |
| 7  | S10 | [(impossible)]  | <b>PI</b>                   |
| 8  | T   | [<Sp> es posible] tener tres puntos de vista                        | <b>R Self-RPHR &amp; CS</b> |
| 9  |     | diferentes? </Sp>   |                             |
| 10 | S10 | i think yes   | <b>U</b>                    |

In extract (D) 9, the class was discussing about meetings. The teacher explained a situation that might happen in meetings (lines 1-3) and asked students for their opinion (line 5). S1 answered 'yes' (line 6) but S10 said 'impossible' (line 7) signalling a possible misunderstanding, therefore, a PI. S10's utterance overlapped with the teacher's (lines 7 and 8, but did not break the interaction as the teacher kept talking. The teacher was self-rephrasing his previous description but this time by code-switching into Spanish (line 8 and 9). Then, S10 understood the point and answered 'yes' like S1 did before (line 10). Here, code-switching functioned as reiteration (Sampson 2012) of the previous question in lines 1 to 3, so all students could understand the teacher's point.

### 6.2.2.8 Factual-Regulative (FR)

There were eleven patterns observed in Factual-regulative (FR) problems. The most common was to answer with a cue like 'uhu' or a short answer like 'yes'. This pattern did show some IPSs like repetition, rephrasing, and repair.

(D) 10 - *TskA-U2L5 W6-A1* - (Transcript lines 41-49)

RPT= Repetition

- 1 T uhu
- 2 S2 (xxx) just it's a waste of time (xxx)
- 3 T {the teacher was requested at the door – she left the class PI
- 4 for a minute}
- 5 SS {simultaneous talk among students}
- 6 T ok ok you were saying that sometimes it's a waste of time R Other-RPT
- 7 S2 **yeah** sometimes you- it's a waste of time you send your um U Self-RPT
- 8 the (xxx) to complain and then you come back and it's- the
- 9 same issue occurs

In Extract (D) 10, S2 was discussing about complaints when someone required the teacher at the door which caused a communication break (line 3). So, S2 stopped talking and the whole groups started a simultaneous talk while the teacher was at the door. As Result, when the teacher came back, she re-established the conversation by other-repeating (line 6) what S1 said previously. S2 understood he could continue, and took the floor to go on with his discussion, starting by self-repeating what he said before (line 7). Here, both other- and self-repetition

served as a relational practice to give continuation of an idea, showing alignment with the preceding utterance (Bazzanella 2011) despite the interruption.

### 6.2.2.9 Embedded problems

The above patterns refer to a specific problem to be solved within interaction. However, there were embedded problems as well. From these, eleven patterns were observed. The following is a specific pattern that helped to solve various problems in one case:

(D) 11 - *Tsk1(1)-U3L7 W9-C1* - (Transcript lines 40-49)

RPR= Repair, RPT= Repetition, RPHR= Rephrasing, CS= Code-switching

1	T	for example in your presentation what visual aids	
2		you're going to use.	
3	S1	um with the:: presentation are the: (3) the: (4)(xxx)	
4		(3) <Sp> <b>cómo se dice el el (3) el escenario</b>	<b>PI CS &amp; Self-RPHR</b>
5		<b>ese cómo se llama?</b> </Sp> @@	
6	S11	<Sp> auditorio </Sp>	<b>R Other-RPR &amp; CS (LV)</b>
7	T	=auditorium ok	<b>Other-RPR + U (IR)</b>
8	S1	how do you say audi-.	<b>PI</b>
9	T	auditorium	<b>R Self-RPT &amp; Other-RPR</b>
10	S1	um (with) the presentations are <b>in the auditorium</b>	<b>U Other-RPT/RPR (IM)</b>

In Extract (D) 11, the class was discussing presentations. This example includes two moments: first, a clarification of a word in students' L1 (LV) and, second, the

translation of the term in L2 (IR). The first moment is signalled by a PI in lines 4 and 5, when S1 was going to explain his viewpoints about visual aids in presentations. He had troubles in referring to 'auditorium' in his L1. PIs were marked by some pauses and then when he code-switched into Spanish and self-rephrased her questions to ask for 'escenario'. As Result, S11 understood what he meant and other-repaired with 'auditorio', in Spanish as well (line 6). The teacher heard it and immediately translated the word to 'auditorium' and marked he understood the problem with 'ok' (line 7). The second moment came when S1 might have not heard the teacher properly because he asked again for the word signalling another PI in line 8. As Result, the teacher other-repaired him by self-repeating the word (line 9). S1 other-repeated the word when he continued talking, signalling he understood.

As seen, problems presented in this section were solved through repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching. IPSs worked individually and/or together in order to appeal and provide assistance to the various problems analysed in my data. However, a lesser number of communication breaks did not show IPSs in order to be solved. This is explained in the next section.

#### 6.2.2.10 Problems solved without IPSs

There were some cases in which the communication breakdown was solved without resourcing IPSs. See the following extract, for example:

(D) 12 - *TskA-U2L2 W3-A* - (Transcript lines 1-5)

- 1 T when was the last time you went shopping? </reading>
- 2 S5 uh::: PI
- 3 T that is page eighteen <reading> what did you buy and why R Answer

In extract 12, the teacher was starting the task by giving some instruction and reading the questions to be discussed when S5 did signal non-understanding with a PI in form of cue (line 2). As Result, the teacher realised students might not

have the reference of the page and mentioned it (line 3) and kept reading the task. In this case, no IPSs were used as the teacher directly answered to solve the problem, and did not allow students answered back to signal understanding. However, understanding took place because there were no more questions. Problems solved without IPSs were lesser than the ones that included them.

So far, we have seen there is a great variety of patterns, which evidenced the interconnected work that IPSs do in order to reach understanding despite the problem presented. Here, eight problems were presented together with embedded-problem cases. While analysing them, some common and unique features were observed. Such features show how easy and how complex the making of understanding is (see 6.6.2). Like successful cases, there were also non-successful ones; these are discussed in the next section.

### **6.3 Unsuccessful cases**

As mentioned previously, unsuccessful cases refer to those occurrences in which a communication problem was present but, due to different reasons, understanding was not evidenced. Reasons for this vary. They range from lack of knowledge to lack of willingness, for example. From the 50 unsuccessful cases found, three examples have been chosen for analysis as they represent the rest of the cases. These include a case of attitude –or willingness to do something–, a case of pedagogical skills, and a case of knowledge.

#### **6.3.1 Attitude**

Attitude, for unsuccessful results, refers to the speaker's willingness or unwillingness towards certain tasks, actions, instructions, indications, etc. It is a state-of-being depending on feelings and beliefs in the moment people are asked to do something. In the data set, there were four different actions that allowed observations into how communication problems could not be solved, for both students and teachers. Regarding students, the main attitudinal reasons included unwillingness to participate (7 cases) and ignoring the teacher for a while (1 case).

**(D) 13- Tsk2(3)-U3L7 W10-C1** - (Transcript lines 1-9)

RPHR= Rephrasing, RPT= Repetition

- 1 T um ok now guys {recorder sound} ok how- how can
- 2 you describe this graph (3) page fifty-five how-
- 3 how you can um describe this graph. (10) **PI** Self-RPT
- 4 SX <clears throat>
- 5 T all right if you (use) if you (use) this graph in your
- 6 presentation how do- how do you um how do you **R** Self-RPHR
- 7 think you can describe it.
- 8 SX <clears throat>
- 9 SS {working individually - 3 min} 0'46" - 1'33"

In extract (D) 13, the teacher was giving the instruction of what to do, and asked about how they could describe a graph. There was a pause of 10 seconds in line 3, namely PI, and, as a Result, the teacher asked again by self-rephrasing the previous question (lines 5 to 7). Nobody answered again. Instead, students started to work individually. The teacher just allowed students to work for a minute and then checked the answers with the group. It is difficult to claim a reason for the students' behaviour in this case. However, the teacher's attempt to do the activity in group is evidenced with some IPSs. What is true is that a group activity became an individual activity.

Like this example, there were also examples in which the teacher ignored a student's question (3 cases) and when it is evident that the teacher knows there is a problem to communicate an idea but ignores it (1 case). See the following extract:

**(D) 14 - Tsk1(3)-U3L7 W9-C1 - (Transcript lines 98-102)**

- 1 S1 =his body and um it's um::: isn't clearly? the  
 2 information are (5) um::: (2) how do you say <Sp>  
 3 retroc- um distorsionado. </Sp> **PI**  
 4 T make it simpler guys the the presentation is not clear **R** answer  
 5 S1 ok

In extract (D) 14, S1 was describing a picture indicating problems with presentations, when he presented PI in forms of hesitated and pauses that signalled he did not know how to say something (lines 1 and 2) as well as to ask a question, so he asked for the term 'distorsionado' in English (line 3). As Result, the teacher did not answer his question by translating the word into English; instead, the teacher gave the answer to the item suggested in the teacher's book (line 4). Although S1 did appear to understand the answer (line 5), he stayed with the non-understanding about how to say the word 'distorted' in English in that moment in the lesson. What is important to highlight, however, is the teacher's suggestion about 'make it simpler guys' (line 4). Students attempt to express themselves in English the same way they do in Spanish many times, despite language differences. Therefore, somehow, the teacher's suggestion about 'make it simpler' would be considered as good advice at those times where a speaker can not find or know the (technical) word or words to express his/her thoughts, but use the ones they know already. Of course, this does not mean that they need to stop gaining more vocabulary, but to use strategically what they know in case they face a break when communicating.

### 6.3.2 Pedagogical skills

The following is an example of pedagogic skills, namely to the way in which teachers conduct a lesson and provide feedback.

**(D) 15 - TskA-U1L5 W3-B - (Transcript lines 231-236)**

RPT= Repetition, RPHR= Rephrasing

- 1 T =appropriate this is completely formal yes it is so no
- 2 problem do you understand all the words in this first
- 3 exercise? yeah? so it was only that expression under the
- 4 weather no?
- 5 SX <low> focused </low> **PI**
- 6 T focused what is focused. concentrated yes? to be **R Other-RPT+**
- 7 receptive ok um that's it **THOUGH** what is though. though **Self-RPHR**

In extract (D) 15, the teacher was checking some vocabulary that might cause comprehension problems for students. When she stopped suggesting some phrases and their explanation about their meaning, she asked for more word problems. Then, SX signalled a PI by suggesting the word 'focused' (line 5). As Result, the teacher answered using other-repetition (line 6). She also self-rephrased the question (line 6), provided an answer and self-rephrased the answer (line 6 and 7) before moving to another problem item that she suggested as problematic 'though' (line 7), leaving no opportunity for SX to evidence whether his/her doubt was clarified and understood. This kind of action to answer back to students quickly is very common in language modules. However, it is something that needs to be considered carefully at the moment of teaching because it is when clarification and feedback is done when students get to learn and use certain vocabulary, expressions and so forth. Other unsuccessful cases that did not show understanding include students' lack of markers (e.g. other-repetition).

There were some unsuccessful cases also regarding turn control (7 cases), unclear explanations (5 cases), or interrupting a student's talk (3 cases). The following is an example of turn control.

**(D) 16 - TskA-U2L3 W6-B - (Transcript lines 83-98)**

- 1 T people studying- remember this book was planned  
 2 for people who really really study finance and um um (1)  
 3 commercial systems or um BUSINESS in general that they  
 4 want to learn english basic english not advanced english int-  
 5 pre-intermediate so in your classes i'm asking you people  
 6 studying this here at university 1 do you use it everyday?  
 7 S6 m:: PI  
 8 T *student 10* do you use this- R Turn control  
 9 S10 yes  
 10 T -charts everyday?  
 11 S10 yes

In extract (D) 16, the teacher was asking students about the frequency they use charts or graphs. S6's PI in line 6 signals he wanted to participate. So, he used a cue to hold the floor (like thinking of what to say) like preparing to say something (line 7). But the teacher gave the floor to S10 (line 8). S6 and S10 are different in the sense that S6 is always present in class, while S10 is absent from class most of the time. This was the possibly reason the teacher asked S10 instead of S6, who seemed more engaged in the lesson. Again, it is not possible

to claim the PI was really a problem because there is no evidence that PI's was only a strategy to have the floor, or it was really a problem of comprehension.

### 6.3.3 Knowledge

Knowledge refers to knowing how to do or say something. There were various unsuccessful cases regarding this for both students and the teacher. These were evidenced from cases of mere non-understanding behaviour to cases of a third person answering a question directed to an intended student. Regarding students, there were fourteen cases for non-understanding of a term, phrase, or idea; eight cases for understanding the question, but limited English language proficiency to answer it; and nine cases of a third person answering back to a question.

(D) 17 - *Tsk1(4B)-U3L6 W7-C* - (Transcript lines 30-41)

CS= Code-switching, RPT= Repetition, RPHR= Rephrasing

- 1 T all right very good *student 7* what do you think.
- 2 S7 um the structure the presentation and check with the
- 3 [(words)]
- 4 T [OK] you already told me the structure and the- and
- 5 the language all right. how you can fix them. (5) <Sp> ya PI Silence
- 6 me dijiste que tienes problemas con el- qué? e:l </Sp> R CS &
- 7 [language] Self-RPT
- 8 SS [<Sp> el </Sp> (language)]
- 9 T and the structure ok <Sp> cómo lo puedes mejorar. </Sp> Self-RPHR



- 4 T <reading> include other training and courses R Other-RPT
- 5 </reading> **no** i would say it is education [no?] No + answer
- 6 S12 [education]
- 7 T so <reading> outline your educational history
- 8 starting with your most recent studies </reading> all
- 9 right? yeah what is next. (1)

In extract (D) 18, the class was checking task answers after pair discussions. Students had to order some information regarding how to present a CV in the task. The teacher asked for the next answer and S10 answered incorrectly (lines 2 and 3). As Result, the teacher replied by self-repeating S10's answer (line 4) and other-repaired it by saying 'no' (line 5), and providing her answer that was a teacher's book suggestion. After she read it, no more discussion took place on this because the teacher immediately moved on to the next point. Notice that although IPSs were used to provide the answer, there was no explanation about it, which shows in turn that S10 did not receive feedback of his 'incorrect' answer. Like this, there are other examples in which teachers assumed that everything is self-explained and that students easily understand some teacher's book suggested answers. This might be due to reasons out of teacher's hands like timing, as they need to cover and finish a programme in a number of weeks.

These extracts have shown some unsuccessful cases to overcome communication breakdowns. Even though IPSs were used sometimes, these have not helped to solve the problem. This provides IPSs many-sided aspects. The complete list of unsuccessful cases is outlined in appendix N.

## 6.4 Simple and complex patterns

### 6.4.1 Simple patterns

Simple patterns are the ones in which there was an immediate use of one or two single IPS in order to overcome the communication problem. There were six simple patterns in which understanding was gained through repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching. The most common simple pattern was self-repetition:

**Extract 19** - *TskE&F-U1L4 W2-A* - (Transcript lines 103-109)

RPT=Repetition, RPHR= Rephrasing

- 1 T ok (4) {recording} so um applicant one what are the positive  
 2 points that he has.  
 3 S2 he's got lots of experience  
 4 T **pardon?** **PI**  
 5 S2 he's got lots of experience **R Self-RPT**  
 6 T **ok experience** he has um **he has many years of U** Other- RPT + RPHR  
 7 **experience** and what else.

In extract (D) 19, students were discussing two applicants' CVs for a job, provided in the textbook. When the teacher asked about applicant one's positive points, S2 answered but the teacher did not hear properly (IM problem). So, the teacher signalled the understanding problem, namely a PI in form of a question (line 4). As Result, S2 self-repeated his previous utterance (line 5) and the teacher could understand (line 6) through other-repetition and other-rephrasing. From this example, understanding could be reached through the use of two interactional pragmatic strategies: repetition and rephrasing. Like this, there were other

occurrences including self-repair (1 case in group B), other-repair (4 cases, in groups A and B), self-repetition (27 cases, in the three groups), other-repetition (2 cases, in group B), self-rephrasing (5 cases, in the three groups) and code-switching (7 cases, in group C). Besides simple patterns, other patterns to reach understanding were complex as they displayed the use of more than one IPS to reach understanding.

## 6.4.2 Complex patterns

There were forty complex patterns classified in Complex (1) and Complex (2). This distinction has been made because of the two levels of complexity. Complex (1) includes one PI and various IPSs – which equals the subsequent *Result* – that help speakers to reach understanding; whereas Complex (2) includes more than one PI and their subsequent IPSs until understanding was reached.

### 6.4.2.1 Complex 1

The most common Complex (1) pattern consisted of using two IPSs to reach understanding; such IPSs were other-repair followed by other-repetition as Result, in 19 cases. Other IPSs that worked together with repair and repetition were rephrasing and code-switching. The following extract illustrates how IPSs worked together for understanding in Complex (1) patterns:

(D) 20 - *TskB-U1L4 W2-A* - (Transcript lines 1-5)

RPR= Repair, RPT=Repetition

- |   |    |   |                               |
|---|----|---|-------------------------------|
| 1 | T  | ok so now you're gonna start preparing your resume      |                               |
| 2 | S2 | <b>how do you pronounce.</b>                            | <b>PI</b>                     |
| 3 | T  | /rɪ'zju:m/ /rɪ'zju:m/                                   | <b>R</b> Other-RPR + Self-RPT |
| 4 | S2 | /rɪ'zju:m/  | <b>U</b> Other-RPT            |
| 5 | T  | and but before that we're gonna be working with that um |                               |

In extract (D) 20, the teacher was providing instruction on the new task, when S2 asked how to pronounce the word 'resume' (line 2) signalling a PI in form of question. As Result, the teacher other-repaired S2's doubt by pronouncing the word twice, namely self-repetition (line 3), possibly to help S2 to hear clearly how to say that word. S2 did understand the repair because he other-repeated the word after the teacher (line 4). In this case, two IPSs worked together to reach understanding: other-repair and self-repetition.

### 6.4.2.2 Complex 2

Complex (2) patterns include two or more PI along the path starting from the communication problem to understanding. A display of IPSs are used after each PI that is presented:

(D) 21 - *TskA-U1L2 W2-B* - (Transcripts lines 166-183)

RPT= Repetition, RPR= Repair, RPHR= Rephrasing

1	T	i understand OK so we just to make a summary we have	
2		accents we have different vocabulary and what else another	
3		one let's mention a third one	
4	S1	signals	
5	T	<Sp> cómo? </Sp> <b>signs. signals. what you said?</b>	<b>PI</b>
6	S1	signals	<b>R Self-RPT</b>
7	T	what signals.	<b>PI</b>
8	S1	but not signals um only signal	<b>R Other-RPR</b>

9	T	yes what do you mean.	PI
10	S1	=telephone signal	R Self-RPHR
11	T	oh telephone signals? yeah but talking on the phone?	PI
12		for example. [tell us one]	
13	S1	[no]	R Other-RPR +
14	T	tell us one	Explanation with
15	S1	you said (to talk about) the environment the environment of	Self-RPT
16		[signals]	
17	T	[a::h] ok you are referring to <b>interference or lack of</b>	U Other-RPHR
18		<b>of a signal</b> no no no no i'm talking about language	

In extract (D) 21, the teacher was guiding the discussion about problems students might face when speaking in English by telephone when S1 suggested 'signals' (line 4) as another problem talking by telephone. The teacher did not understand what S1 was referring to as 'signals'. So, there were various PI in form of questions mainly, that resembled a negotiation of meaning through IPSs. Self-repetition, other-repair and self-rephrasing were used until the teacher understood what S1 meant by 'signals'. Therefore, it is clear that S1 misunderstood the instruction regarding talking about telephone problems in relation to language and not to technical issues (IR problem). The teacher clarified this at the end. Also, by looking at extract (D) 55 carefully, an overlapped interactional problem (ID problem) can be observed within lines 12-14:

12		for example. [tell us one]	PI (overlapping)
13	S1	[no]	
14	T	tell us one	R Self-RPT

That is to say, due to the overlapping (PI), the teacher had to self-repeat part of her previous utterance in line 12. There were various cases in which overlapping represented a PI and most of them were solved in the same way with self-repetition. In addition to simple and complex patterns, there were 'Other patterns' that were used to solve communication breaks, but they did not display IPSs necessarily.

## 6.5 Unique cases and other patterns

### 6.5.1 Unique cases

Unique cases refer to those occurrences, namely patterns, that happened once in the whole set of data. There were 29 unique cases: 13 in group A, 9 in group B, and 7 in group C. Extract (D) 11 above is an example of a unique case, as it is the only case with such a pattern display (see patterns in appendix O).

### 6.5.2 Other patterns

Other patterns included cases in which there was no IPSs use in the Result as first instance, although it was possible to observe IPSs in the Problem Indicator (PI) and/or the Understanding utterance (U). The most common 'other pattern' was PI plus answer that equals Result, like in the following example:

(D) 22 - *TskA-U1L6 W4-B* - (Transcript lines 146-151)

RPT= Repetition

1 T and how did it go. how well or how @@ not

2 exactly well <@> hu </@> did it go

3 S7 it was- it was ok

4 T it was ok?

PI Other-RPT

- 5 S7 yeah R answer
- 6 T **good good** you see we have to be exposed to interviews U Self-RPT

In extract (D) 22, the class was discussing their experiences regarding job interviews. The teacher was asking S7 how her interview was and S7 said 'it was ok' by self-repeating the first two words, hesitating as she did so. The teacher may have noticed this hesitation and asked S7 again by self-repeating S7's answer as the teacher possibly wanted to confirm the information, signalling this with a PI in form of question (line 4). As Result, S7 answered positively with 'yeah' (line 5). Finally, the teacher signalled understanding by self-repeating the word 'good' (line 6), and continued talking. Notice that Result (R) did not include IPSs but a direct yes-no answer. Some other cases did include IPSs. IPSs observed in the various cases were repetition, repair, and rephrasing. Extract (D) 24 is an example of repair:

**(D) 23 - TskA-U1L3 W2-A - (Transcript lines 33-38)**

RPR= Repair

- 1 S4 teacher we have to do this **no.** PI
- 2 SX =minimum (4)
- 3 T if you have finished then you can go on then R answer
- 4 S4 [it's just this (no)?] PI CS & Self-RPT
- 5 T [NO NO just finish it] just that part R Self-RPR
- 6 SS {simultaneous talk} U

In extract (D) 23, students were working individually when S4 asked the teacher about the next task. The teacher told her if she had finished she could continue

doing the next task. S4 asked again to confirm teacher's indication but she ends her utterance with a question (line 1). As Result, the teacher provides an answer (line 3) but S4 asked again signalling PI in form of code-switching and self-repetition (line 4). Suddenly, the teacher self-repaired her previous idea by indicating S4 to do only the present task (line 5). After that, there were no more questions and students continued working, signalling S4 did understand the teacher's self-repaired indication. In this case, repair served to rectify an instruction. More patterns are shown in appendix O.

Unique cases and Other patterns have served to demonstrate the complexity in which IPSs work together in order to reach understanding. Moreover, other patterns have shown that IPSs are not sometimes necessary to solve the breaks. This and other related issues regarding IPSs need further discussion.

## 6.6 Discussion

### 6.6.1 Problem adaptations

The last section has illustrated to what extent IPSs support communication as well as which problems were solved and how. Problems observed worked well together with Smit's (2010) framework of repairables; nevertheless, some categories were slightly changed to fit my own findings. Linguistic problems including pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary remained the same; but interactional and factual problems had been modified in order to include new outcomes. Table 12 shows these changes.

**Table 12.** Problem adaptations

<b>Coding Category</b>	<b>Smit's description (2010: 183)</b>	<b>Adaptations</b>
Linguistic Pronunciation	'pro' – Phonological and pronunciation-linked problems	LP – Same (Pronunciation problems)
Linguistic Grammar	'gr' – Morphological and syntactic problems	LG – Same (Grammar problems)
Linguistic	'voc' – Lexical choice, unclear	LV – Same (Vocabulary problems)

Vocabulary	denotation or idiomatic expressions, technical terms (can overlap with 'ref' and 'fac')	
Interactional Mishearings	'mis' – Problems of intelligibility (can overlap with 'pron', 'voc', 'ref')	IM – Intelligibility problems including mishearing, partial hearing, or non-hearing.
Interactional Reference	'ref' – Problems of referential specifications, situated meaning	IR – Meaning problems that can(not) be linked to previous utterances but other classroom sources as well.
Interactional Discourse	'dis' – Problems of topic development and turn-taking	ID – Problems of topic development and turn taking that includes phenomena like silence, overlapping, speech pace (e.g. fast) and so on.
Factual Instructional	'fac' – Topic or content-linked repairables in instructional register.	FI – Same (Instructional problems of contents/topics)
Factual Regulative	'facR' – Topic or content-linked repairables in regulative register	FR – Lesson organizational matters related to topics or contents, and external factors.

Interactional and factual categories have been slightly changed. For instance, Mishearings Smit's (2010) description referred to intelligibility problems; however, the fact that she used 'mishearings' as a problem could be confused into including only mishearing problems understood as simply to hear a different word than the intended one, excluding partial hearing or non-hearing at all. Therefore, detail was needed in describing what the 'mishearing' category was for instead of just referring to 'acoustic difficulties' (p. 183). In regards of Reference, it remains the same in essence referring to meaning problems that certainly refer to something before, that in Smit's (2010) terms refers to 'previous words and utterances' (p. 169). In this sense, reference received a slight different description

because it seems that by its name, it is necessarily linked to a previous utterance. However, some cases in my data have shown that meaning problems not only come from spoken interaction but also from other sources like the text that is read in order to fulfil a spoken task. Therefore, the Reference category included in more detail that meaning problems can or cannot be directly linked to previous utterances but to other communicative sources in the classroom. Regarding the Discourse category, this was detailed more in its description due to the amount of cases in which breaks were observed through overlapping, silence, and speech pace (e.g. fast talk). These certainly affected topic development as well as turn-taking at times.

Moving to Factual problems, the Instructional sub-category remained the same; that is to say, it refers to problems within topic or content instruction that, in the case of current findings, could happen from the very beginning of the class while introducing the topic to later stages such as checking answers or summarising the lesson content. Finally, Regulative problems that refer to ‘lesson organisational matters’ (Smit 2007: 235) slightly changed in terms of the approach in which problems were analysed. That is to say, while Smit (2010) states that ‘repairables’ –or problems observed– were not analysed ‘in relation to any external language or discourse norms but purely situation-internally’ (p. 168), break problems in the present data did observe external factors because these also caused disruption within interaction. Of course, it is clear that Smit’s and my decision to omit or not external factors conformed to the nature of our analysis methods: her’s, under Conversation Analysis (Hutchby and Wooffitt 2008, Seedhouse 2004) in which turns themselves will suggest findings, and mine under Discourse Analysis (Ritchie *et al* 2014) that not only considered the internal meaning of turns but also contextual issues around them. Therefore, Regulative problems included lesson organisational matters related to as topics or contents (e.g. when students asked for the task page) as well as other lesson external factors (e.g. when someone is required at the door). One last feature to highlight from table 6.7 is the fact that overlapping between problems was not unique as Smit’s (2010) specified, i.e. mishearing overlapping with pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary. Overlapping among problems tended to be various and of various kinds as seen in the embedded cases above (see 6.2.2.9). That is why specifications on whether one kind of problem overlaps with another was left open in my own descriptions.

### 6.6.2 IPSs patterns complexity

Moving forward to how problems were solved, it was evident from my findings that repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching played an important role within interaction, with the aim of fostering communication. In this sense, such IPSs have shown their many-sided features in terms of their usefulness to overcome breakdowns. That is to say, while it is true that IPSs working alone or together can solve communication problems in most cases, it is also possible to solve problems without using IPSs (see 6.2.2.10). Moreover, some other cases have shown that even when using IPSs, they are not a guarantee that understanding will be achieved (see 6.3); nevertheless, when IPSs succeed in solving a problem, they displayed a myriad of patterns that range from the simplest to more complex ones. These resemble the pattern behaviour of other classroom interaction research such as negotiation of meaning (Varonis and Gass 1985) in which the four well-known elements of T-I-R-RR show the simple composition of meaning negotiation, but become more complex in embedded negotiations. Similarly, simple patterns consisted of the presence of an IPS in the Result that was enough to overcome the problem.

There were six simple patterns in which understanding was gained through repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching. The most common simple pattern was self-repetition and there were no occurrences of other-rephrasing. Besides simple patterns, other patterns to reach understanding were complex as they displayed the use of more than one IPS. Complex patterns, on the other hand, were of two kinds: 1) some included one PI and various IPSs as Result until understanding; and 2) included more than one PI and their subsequent IPSs as Result until understanding was reached (see 6.4). So far, to my knowledge, interactional studies that have shown how simple or complex patterns are used to reach understanding are nearly non-existent in current classroom interaction literature. While the study of talk-in-interaction has suggested the repair model (Seedhouse 2004), negotiation of meaning (Varonis and Gass 1985), or even these two integrated in an interactional repair plus (Smit 2007, 2010), none of them have offered a picture about how IPSs work together, creating a path from which a communication breakdown could be solved in order to reach understanding; in other words, the co-construction of meaning (Seidlhofer 2011, Cogo and Dewey 2012) through IPSs. In this sense, another point that deserves discussion is the interconnectivity feature of IPSs: when and how they work together.

### 6.6.3 IPSs interconnectivity

Most cases presented in this chapter have shown how IPSs work together in the search for understanding, especially in complex successful cases. IPSs support each other in order to create a path where interactants negotiate meaning (Varonis and Gass 1985) or seek clarification (Mauranen 2012), among other related functions that lead to understanding. As a matter of fact, IPSs overlap naturally as language is something in constant movement. From current data, it seems that the most common IPS that interfaces with others is repair due to the amount in which it was used (see 6.2.1). Repair (Kaur 2011a, 2011b, Seedhouse 2004, Seidlhofer 2011, Walsh 2011) has been observed interplaying closely with other interactional pragmatic phenomena such as repetition and rephrasing (Lichtkoppler 2007, Mauranen 2006, 2012, Scott 2002) and code-switching at times (Copland and Neokleous 2010, Sampson 2012, Cogo 2012, Cogo and Dewey 2012).

Our first interactional pragmatic commonality is that of repair and repetition when they overlap in conversation, especially when they signal speech modification (Walsh 2011). Former researchers on repetition have evidenced this overlapping in their studies. For instance, authors such as Liddicoat (2007) have suggested a sequence in which both repair and repetition overlap in interaction. This consists of three main points: a) speaker produces some object; b) subsequent speaker produces an alternative; and c) the prior speaker produces the alternative (p. 194). This resembles some sequences observed in the current data that consist of a *Problem Indicator* that *Results* in other-repair and other-repetition (see extract in 6.2.2.1 above). A second pair relates to repair and rephrasing. As discussed in Chapter II, rephrasing refers to the repetition of the intended meaning with a modified utterance (Mauranen 2006, 2012) and repair, to the repetition of an utterance by modifying its complexity (Kaur 2011a, 2011b). Although rephrasing and repair sometimes seem to overlap, this is not always the case. In other words, it is possible to observe a rephrase that is not necessarily a repair but a confirmation (Hynninen 2011) or clarification of what has been said before (O'Malley and Chamot 1990). However, it is almost impossible to see a repair without having a rephrase, as its main characteristic is to simplify or expand speech for interlocutors to receive the intended meaning (Walsh 2011). See extract in 6.2.2.5 above, for example, in which an idiomatic

phrase caused a reference problem, both repair and rephrasing were used to reach meaning. Accordingly, repair and paraphrasing is another common way to achieve understanding in a conversation (Seidlhofer 2011).

Finally, another interconnection refers to repair and code-switching, in which L1 is used to solve problems, mainly for vocabulary (Sampson 2012). See 6.2.2.9 above, for example, that shows how code-switching helped to find out the intended word and meaning for a student to be able to communicate his message. In this way, repair and code-switching worked together to reach understanding. As for Harmer's (2007) suggestion that L1 serves to notice differences between L1 and L2, this was not observed as such in the present findings, possibly due to the reduced number of cases presented for grammar problems. In fact, code-switching was the IPS used the least in the whole set of data, demonstrating that it is not frequently used for solving communication breakdowns, at least, in upper intermediate modules such as the English for Business module studied here. This aligns, in part, with some participants' perceptions regarding the use of L1 in the classroom (see Chapter VII). While interconnectivity discussed here has referred to IPSs duos, it is important to note that IPSs sometimes work in trios or more, forming a mix (see 6.2.4.2) in which the ultimate goal is to reach understanding. While IPSs have shown they could help understanding within classroom interaction, this translates into more classroom-oriented observations. In other words, the ways in which IPSs are used to reach understanding are also highlighting teaching and learning issues and these are discussed in the Implications and Conclusion chapter.

## 6.7 Summary

This chapter has demonstrated how interactional pragmatic strategies work in the search of understanding throughout repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching. It has evidenced how IPSs do not always help for such a purpose and that communication breaks can be solved through other pragmatic resources such a paralinguistic language (e.g. body language). Nevertheless, when IPSs successfully overcome a break, they display from simple to more complex interconnectivity. While these findings focus on classroom interaction, showing what is actually happening with language in relation to IPSs, there is another view that concerns participants' perceptions, as they provide outcomes that can let us

understand such a classroom interaction. For example, correspondence between what the numbers reflect in terms of problems tackled by IPSs in this chapter has been reflected in participants' perceptions regarding their own language problems, providing a better picture of such phenomena. Issues like these are discussed in Chapter VII, which presents the emic outcomes of this project.

## Chapter 7: Perceptions findings

Knowing about classroom language perceptions and work language perceptions is relevant to my study because both strands can provide a general view on the way language is used in different contexts. Moreover, research outcomes of both topics can help us to realise about possible pedagogical considerations in terms of the gap that exists between what is learnt and use in language classrooms compared with language that is used in working settings. Apparently, what is taught in language classrooms is what will be used in workplaces. However, some investigations in workplaces suggest there is still room for language classroom improvement.

For instance, Charles and Marschan-Piekkari's (2002) research in a transnational company found that participants whose English was not their first language (L1 henceforth) mentioned about the difficulties they had to understand the different kinds of English (see 4.3.3, in chapter 4). This suggests that, from a global perspective, students who are learning English –Business English in the case of this research– might be expected to face some similar language situations. While it might be beyond scope to study a myriad of English accents and lexicon that is spoken and/or used around the world in a simple English module, it might be possible to find a pedagogical way to raise awareness of such possible language job situations, in which interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs henceforth) may help. In other words, language teachers should turn to research done about workplace language and try to focus on providing students a gist of it at least. That may mean students will not be surprised when they will be inserted in a job, and face such communication problems. So, the existing gap between workplace language and what is taught in language classroom would narrow to support classroom language (Chan 2017). Another example is the study carried out by Holmes and Riddiford (2011) in which they suggest there should be a link between both cognitive and social dimension of language development in the classroom (see discussion of cognition in Chapter 1). Such attempts break the paradigm that classroom language is difficult to match with workplace language. Therefore, both classroom language and workplace language have an educational significance to my study in IPSs. In other words, existing literature about perceptions in chapter 4 has shown there is still a latent need for investigation of classroom language strategic behaviour contrasted with strategies used in workplace language, among other general perceptions.

This chapter attempts to answer Research question 2 that looks at participants' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs henceforth) when there is a communication break caused by specific problems (e.g. pronunciation, vocabulary, etc.). While Chapter 6 had shown problems that actually happen within classroom speaking tasks, this chapter shows participants' viewpoints regarding their own strategic language behaviour. But first, general language perceptions about English and classroom language is presented, followed by workplace language; then, we can understand better the connection between classroom discourse and workplace discourse.

## 7.1 Classroom language perceptions

*Language Perceptions* is the first theme to present in this chapter. It comprises English language perceptions and language in the workplace. Although not all of these perceptions link directly to IPSs, they are relevant to this study in order to better understand previous participants' perceptions.

### 7.1.1 English language perceptions

Participants' perception of English is a way to understand the importance this language has for both students and teachers. Sub-coding included participants' conceptualisations, usefulness, learning and communication, all in relation to English. Although conceptualisations and usefulness seem to be the same, the former refers to participants' general thoughts about English while the latter indicates uses of English. In this sense, I am aware of the overlap in these two categories, but wanted to separate mere descriptions with uses.

**Table 13.** English language perceptions

Perceptions (summary)	Code
English is the universal language, an international language, the most common language in the world, spoken everywhere, English is a very strong language, a very	<i>Conceptualisations</i>

<p>necessary language, opens doors, essential today, a very strong asset, English has been the most important foreign language no matter what you do in the future, English will always be important, English is just a tool, provides a brighter future, provides good development in the future (SS)</p> <p>English is the universal language, the global language for communication, English is a linguistic tool, the language that unifies and gathers, the world is becoming one through English, everyone who speaks English will be part of a common bloc, English connects culture, ways of thinking and customs (TS)</p>	
<p>English is useful to travel, it lets you communicate almost anywhere in the world, to learn a language helps you to know, to learn a language helps you to detach and explore the world, to learn a language broadens your horizons (SS)</p> <p>English helps personal development, English helps break speaking barriers, helps you to be extrovert, English helps you meet people and socialise, some students do not know how languages can help them in the future (TS)</p>	<i>Usefulness</i>
<p>To have communicative ability it is necessary to know grammar, vocabulary, listening, and speaking more, some students do not like learning English, people who want to live with their own major may abandon learning English, English is important to finish the major, more chances to communicate are needed, it is important to study abroad to learn a language (SS)</p> <p>No one can learn English perfectly, the fact that native English speakers use the language perfectly is simply a belief, students do not take advantage of opportunities to use English out of the classroom, there is a neighbouring country that has English as their first language in the South but students do not get to practice with them (TS)</p>	<i>Learning</i>
<p>You need to know formal and informal language and to know</p>	<i>Communication</i>

<p>in which situations to use them, enough language ability is needed to communicate, without basic language you cannot communicate very well, you need to have a focal ear or to be a good listener, you need to know how to clarify your points of view clearly, in order to have communicative ability it is important to have more extensive contact with foreigners, face to face communication helps to recognise problems, face to face communication helps you realise something you have learnt is different from reality, face to face communication helps future interaction, one should know at least one or two languages, there is no way to measure how much English you have, the USA or UK are the dominant countries that can mark the ways of how to use English (SS)</p> <p>In some countries like Africa, English is the mean of communication (TS)</p>	
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*Key: SS= Students' perceptions, TS= Teachers' perceptions*

Table 13 shows how students perceive English as a universal and international language that is spoken (almost) everywhere in the world. Similarly, teachers speak about English as the universal and global language for communication. All these English attributes coincide with current literature that places English as a global language that serves as a tool (Mauranen 2012) to communicate not only with native speakers of English, but also with non-native speakers too (Seidlhofer 2011, Jenkins 2012, 2013, Bowles and Cogo 2015). Some other characteristics that students suggest for English include that it is a very strong language that is necessary for communication as it opens doors, meaning job opportunities. It is considered as essential today and speaking it is a very strong asset. Moreover, English is seen as important not only nowadays, but in the future as well as indicated by participant AS6:

*Quote 7.1*

...I think English has been the most important foreign language no matter what you do in the future...

(Participant AS6)

The importance attributed to English is clearly reflected in certain perceptions related to the workplace (see 7.3.2) and to the general idea that a lack of English might be a problem in their future jobs. Participants' perceptions also referred to *usefulness* of English, namely how English can serve a certain purpose. Perceptions in this sense included travelling to discover new things, ideas, lifestyles etc. and to communicate almost anywhere in the world. Moreover, knowing languages brought the idea of detachment possibly from our own environment so one can explore the world. Not so differently, teachers also perceived that English could help in one's personal development, for example by breaking speaking barriers, to meet new people and to socialise:

*Quote 7.2*

...el inglés me ha servido para para romper el: para romper esas barreras que que que me bloqueaban e: para ser más extrovertido para conocer gente para socializar...

*...English has allowed me to break barriers that stopped me from being more confident to meet people to socialise...*

(Participant TC)

While such a list of attributes provides a general account of how participants consider English important, they also commented on it in relation to *learning*. There were two contrasting perceptions in terms of speaking practices in the classroom for learning. The first one is from students who suggested that more opportunities to communicate are needed in the classroom, while teachers commented that students do not get opportunities to use English outside the classroom. This relates to the second contrasting perception in which students thought it is important to study abroad to learn a language, while teachers noted that there is a neighbouring country that has English as their first language but students do not get to practice with these foreign people when opportunities for interaction present themselves.

*Quote 7.3*

...a pesar que tienen como vecino que tienen un país de lengua inglesa de le- que es un país en donde la gente habla el inglés como primera lengua segunda lengua es el español tengo entendido Belice si? son idiomas oficiales es el idioma oficial el inglés en Belice entonces es increíble que muchos ni siquiera conocen la *free zone 1* o van a la *free zone 1* y

obviamente como los empleados ahí hablan también español ellos aunque sepan preguntar algo en inglés prefieren utilizar su lenguaje...

*...even though they have an English speaking country as neighbour a- a country where people speak English as their first language and their second language is Spanish I understand Belize yes? those are the official languages English is an official language in Belize then it's incredible that many students don't know Free zone 1<sup>3</sup> or if they go to Free zone 1 and employees there speak Spanish obviously students prefer to use their own language although they know how to ask in English...*

(Participant TB)

In this respect, participant TB is suggesting students' unwillingness to practice English at any opportunity they may have. This students' attitude may be counteracted through teachers' encouragement in the classroom. Teachers may suggest students practice with anyone else who speaks English (e.g. Belizean people or other tourists), even if these people do not have English as their first language (e.g. other Mexican people that speak English); and that such encounters might be supported with a deliberate use of IPSs. Moving onto *communication*, perceptions that deserve careful attention refer to what participants suggest as requirements, such as having enough language ability or at least a basic language level, otherwise it would be difficult to communicate; to be a good listener; and to know how to clarify your points. While the first two are closely related to cognition (e.g. to know vocabulary, etc.) and practices (e.g. to interact in English to get used to accents or pronunciation), the third is closely related to interactional pragmatic strategies. In other words, repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching may serve for clarification purposes as observed in Chapter 6. Another set of perceptions refer to communication problems that is described next.

### 7.1.2 Perceptions of communication problems

*Problem* is another theme that emerged from interviews. It refers to those participants' comments related to a specific language problem when

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<sup>3</sup> *Free Zone 1* is a commercial zone in the Belizean border with Mexico (Murrieta Loyo 2002).

communicating. Both students and teachers coincided in that the most common problems were non-understanding and misunderstanding. These two were mentioned greatly in the data. Nevertheless, more specific problems such as pronunciation and vocabulary –among others– were mentioned as well. They received a code depending on participant’s descriptions. For instance, if a participant suggested that he/she could not say a word well, this was coded as a *pronunciation problem*. Table 13 lists findings regarding perceptions about problems. It includes a summary version of various perceptions given in the interviews in my own words. This was done for reasons of length mainly. Appendix P includes examples of direct quotations which were analysed.

**Table 14.** Perceived problems

Perceptions (summary)	Code
<p>Mispronunciation, accents are confusing, do not know pronunciation, unsure about pronunciation, slight idea of pronunciation, forgot about pronunciation, pronunciation problems can be signalled through repetition (SS)</p> <p>Bad articulation, intonation, not a clear pronunciation (TS)</p>	<p><i>Pronunciation problems</i></p>
<p>Wrong verb conjugation, English and Spanish similar structure could cause code-switching, grammar is not a problem when writing because it can be repaired (SS)</p> <p>Grammar (TS)</p>	<p><i>Grammar problem</i></p>
<p>Lack of vocabulary is a barrier to say something, lack of vocabulary does not help understanding, not sure whether a similar word in English is correct (e.g. similar spelling), word choice for replacement/rephrasing, word choice depends on the situation, misspelling, English and Spanish similar vocabulary can cause code-switching, mistaken vocabulary is not a problem when talking because it can be easily, changed/repaired and continue talking (SS)</p>	<p><i>Vocabulary problem</i></p>
<p>Repetition is needed in mishearing or when people did not</p>	<p><i>Mishearing</i></p>

hear what was said, losing sense of what heard needs repair (SS)	<i>problem</i>
New vocabulary, confusing vocabulary, synonyms, mistaken language may cause offence, not clear what they mean, L1 interference in L2 may cause misunderstanding, unclear translation, L2 does not always help to transmit the original meaning from L1, you get blocked (or cannot say a thing) if you do not know the meaning of a word or how to say it, understanding orally implies a few words plus body language, non-understanding vocabulary (meaning) can be diminished through repetition, rephrasing, and/or code-switching (SS)	<i>Reference problem</i>
<p>Fast discourse while speaking, fast speak cause repetition or rephrasing, pronunciation, lack of opinions because of listening non-understanding, speaking to people with foreign accents, good at writing but not at speaking, repetition happens when people do not speak English or are trying to say written notes exactly, interruption to stop and think what to say next, interruption to stop and clarify through code-switching, repair is needed when speaking errors, made a mistake, or unawareness of self-speaking errors or faults; code-switching appears when a word is forgotten; also when forgetting the conversation setting, e.g. thinking you are in your workplace or with friends instead of classroom (SS)</p> <p>Non-fluid English, bad articulation can cause non-understanding in students, it is hard for students to manage intonation to show feelings, students need to work on intonation related to feelings (TS)</p>	<i>Discourse problem</i>
<p>Poor speaking practice in previous modules, do not know how to explain in English, unclear instruction, vocabulary, what they have learnt is not useful always to communicate, lack of English proficiency (SS)</p> <p>Mispronunciation, grammar, raising hands to ask something</p>	<i>Instructional problem</i>

signals a problem, repair is difficult when there is fixation on previous learnt knowledge, interruption in order to repair can cause face threatening, interruption to repair can cause shyness in students and lack of/no participation (TS)	
Low participation in class, business vocabulary should be studied from language module 1 and not only in the last language module (SS)  Distraction (TS)	<i>Regulative problem</i>

*Key: SS= Students' perceptions, TS= Teachers' perceptions*

Table 14 shows participants' perceptions regarding what causes a communication break, namely the problem. *Problem* perceptions, then, were coded under my adaption of Smit's (2010) list of repairables (see 6.5.1) as a way to follow-up the problematic observed within classroom interaction (Chapter 6), but this time from an emic approach. Although a major effort was made to provide a category problem to each perception, it is noticeable that some perceptions relate to various problems at a time. For example, pronunciation and vocabulary: the former relates to discourse and instructional problems while the latter to reference, instructional and regulative problems. Therefore, some problem categories are transversal and/or closely related to other categories. Despite this overlapping, perceptions could be gathered on a specific category, normally the most obvious one but keeping in mind their permeable feature. For example, a vocabulary problem –the most common within classroom interaction (see 6.2.1)– interfaces with other problems such a reference, regulative, and instructional.

'Lack of vocabulary' was one of the perceptions among students. It implied that, in most cases, students knew what they wanted to say in their first language but they did not know how to say it in the other language, mainly because they do not know the words, namely a *reference* problem. Some others said honestly:

*Quote 7.4*

...no me sé las palabras no me sé vocabulario yo lo reconozco me falta vocabulario...

*...I don't know the words I don't know vocabulary I admit my lack of vocabulary...*

(Participant CS2)

Such a problem has caused students themselves to realise that a reason for their low participation in class could be due to their lack of vocabulary, which is a *regulative* problem:

*Quote 7.5*

...my participation in class was very low cause I didn't have the vocabulary I knew what you wanted to say I couldn't say it...

(Participant BS1)

The fact that students recognise their need for vocabulary signals there is a problem with *instruction* as well. These students were attending their last English module in the university in which they are supposed to have an intermediate level. However, they acknowledge their low level:

*Quote 7.6*

...que nuestro nivel sea deficiente porque estamos enfocados en otras cosas pero creo que si debería ser un poquito más um a adecuar un poquito más el material...

*...our level is deficient because we focus on other things but I think it should be a little bit more um materials should be more appropriate to us...*

(Participant C12)

In quote 7.6, participant C12 suggests they do not have intermediate level, which raises more questions regarding why and how they are in the module without the required level of English. Such issues include investigating beyond language –e.g. teaching administration in previous modules, the testing system, etc. –, which are out of the scope of the present research. So I will leave it for a possible further study, but categorising it as *instructional* problems. Moving back to communication, in terms of IPSs, participants have suggested that some strategies might represent a problem. In this sense, it is important to highlight that although IPSs are strategies that can help to solve communication breaks, they can also be observed in the problematic utterance (see problem indicator in

6.1.3.1). This is confirmed through the list of perceptions in table 7.1 meaning there is certainly an awareness of how IPSs are related to problems. The following example is from a grammar-problem perception –the less recurrent problem within classroom interaction (see 6.2.1). It shows how code-switching is perceived as a problem because of English and Spanish language system similarities:

*Quote 7.7*

...when I speak in English right now maybe sometimes the Spanish words with me they came into my mind because they are two similar languages they have the same **similar structures** and **some words are too quite the same** so maybe **it's a problem** because I know some native Mexican students also have **problems** too they **confuse** their language with the English...

(Participant AS6, my emphasis)

In Quote 7.7, participant AS6 notices that to insert some Spanish words into his English discourse –namely code-switching– is a problem. Such a problem includes both languages having a similar language structure and words that in turn refer to similar grammar and vocabulary between Spanish and English. In fact, code-switching is treated as a result of ‘confusion’. This perception contrasts largely with literature findings regarding code-switching use in both the classroom (Copland and Neokleous 2010) and for out-of-classroom communication, e.g. ELF (Klimpfinger 2009) in which code-switching can be useful to facilitate understanding among speakers. Although understanding was reached in most code-switching classroom interaction cases in this project, it seems system similarities are still viewed as a problem rather than an advantage, it is seen as a collision of two language systems. In a more positive view, the fact that something may be repeated or rephrased in students’ L1 through code-switching may help not only to understand the intended meaning –reference– but also to realise how structures are similar –grammar–, and sometimes word spelling – vocabulary– too. This section has illustrated how problems were perceived as well as how they interface on occasion. I will now turn to look at workplace language perceptions.

## 7.2 Workplace language perceptions

*Workplace perception* is a code that refers to participants' perceptions regarding workplace and language. The list of perceptions resulted in four sub-codings: language-related, culture-related, work-related and IPSs-related. Two points are worth noting here. First, whilst a whole category for language was explained in 7.3, it centred around general perceptions about language; whereas the language-related sub-coding in this section refers to language perceptions linked to workplaces directly. The main distinction between language perceptions and language-related perceptions in the workplace relate to the explicitness of mentioning any utterance related to work (e.g. manager, enterprise, etc.). Second, although both language-related and work-related perceptions include utterances with a direct link to work, the former includes words like grammar, proficiency, etc. that indicate their direct relationship with language itself, while the latter is more general in English and the job activities and settings where it is used (e.g. academy, Europe) as well as reasons for using it (e.g. to earn money). Table 15 shows the condensed set of workplace perceptions.

**Table 15.** Workplace perceptions

Perceptions (summary)	Code
<p>It is expected that you speak proficiently when you are not a native English speaker in a job, Grammar and vocabulary are important when talking to your superiors or your manager, you need to be precise in your word choice when talking to your superior or manager, non-proficiency English speaking means that you are not well prepared for the position, proficiently means correctly, you should exude confidence in presentations, jobs requirements include French as well (SS)</p> <p>Companies look for people that speak English although they do not have good grammar, the ultimate goal of companies is to sell although speakers do not have good grammar, English used in some workplaces is considered as English from the street (non-academic), 'street' English serves to sell and make company profits which is the ultimate goal of the workplace,</p>	<p><i>Language-related</i></p>

<p>companies are not looking for hiring people that speak English correctly, speaking up represents confidence in business dealings, confidence should be conveyed through our voice, body language, and clothing (TS)</p>	
<p>Face-to-face communication helps to realise cultural differences, to consider customs, conventions and values in order to realise what is appropriate when speaking to people from different backgrounds, as non-native English speakers we need to understand their culture (SS)</p> <p>It is important to know how to deal with foreign people from various nationalities and idiosyncrasies, cultural issues are learnt when immersed in the language (TS)</p>	<p><i>Culture-related</i></p>
<p>English is (almost always) compulsory in any job, you can have certain job opportunities in companies if you know English, it is complicated to get a job if you do not speak English, English gives you more job opportunities, it is used everyday in any job, it is important as most jobs depend on tourism directly, English is needed to work in international companies, to work in academy or research, it is important for tourism activities, to write a report or publish essays, the field of Economics includes American and European top well-known economists whose presentations are in English, the field of economics includes Central America and South American reports made in English, although your job does not depend on tourism it is linked to English, to speak English is a reward, English is a synonym to earning money (profit), English is needed to survive, to learn a language helps you to move to a high level, English is important to support oneself (job), to learn a language helps you to think about the work in another way (SS)</p> <p>English is a very strong language in the economics field, it is important for research, it is important for education, some language educational policies include English rather than other languages, youngsters that do not speak English are</p>	<p><i>Work-related</i></p>

closing important doors to jobs, missed opportunities for those who do not speak English today, possible interaction with tourists from America, Europe, Middle East, etc., English is indispensable in our lives to be self sufficient (earn a salary), (TS)	
Repetition is used to convince or to persuade the client, it is possible to use code-switching with clients when same language awareness, code-switching does not work, workers may receive tips although they speak Spanglish, Spanglish is done by many people (SS)	<i>IPSS-related</i>

*Key: SS= Students' perceptions, TS= Teachers' perceptions*

Regarding *language-related* perceptions, they differ between students and teachers. Students generally think that one should speak English proficiently enough or they will not be well prepared for a job position. Teachers, on the other hand, suggest that –based on their experience in the world of business– ‘companies’ ultimate goal is to sell’ even if their employees do not speak grammatically correct:

Quote 7.8

...nos basamos en reglas gramaticales en en reglas este: en lo que debe ser el idioma e: cosa contraria fuera del salón de clase donde: donde se usa un inglés e: como dije anteriormente un inglés callejero un inglés este: donde el objetivo final es vender vender y hacer que la empresa gane e: gane dinero obtenga dinero ese es el el objetivo del inglés ahí en las empresas...

*...we focus on grammar rules in in rules er: in what language should be er: it's the opposite to being out of the classroom where where English is used like I said before it's a street English an English er: where the ultimate objective is to sell and get the businesses to make profits to obtain money that is the objective of English in businesses...*

(Participant TC)

TC's perceptions in Quote 7.8 may bring another idea of English that is required in certain workplaces such as those in tourism. English might be needed to a

certain level of proficiency, but also for certain functions as well, for example, to know how to use it strategically not only to communicate but also to sell. While proficiency clearly defined levels in international frameworks like the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR henceforth), they do not include or suggest any type of strategies to overcome communication pitfalls. In fact, they expect you to speak almost perfectly in line with their level guidelines (see discussion in Chapter 2). However, communication is not perfection, and, at some point, understanding may be broken. It is here when interactional strategies are needed, so communication can be re-established. Moving to our second sub-coding, it refers to *culture-related* comments. In this aspect, very few participants –only one student and one teacher– commented about the importance of knowing or being aware of interlocutors’ socio-cultural background. This reflects a major need in terms of teaching intercultural communication themes at the University of Quintana Roo.

Moving to *work-related* perceptions, it seems that both teachers and students agree on the importance of English in order to get a job, as well as the economic support it may bring to their lives. In addition, some participants even consider learning a language to help them improve their career prospects bringing the idea of prestige (Trinder and Herles 2013). Another agreement between participants is that English encounters might be not only with people from the inner or outer circles (Kachru 1985) but also with people from non-English speaking countries –namely the expanding circle (Ibid.). This suggests that ELF encounters might be prone to taking place in the Mexican job context, as well as any other international setting where English may be used as the means of communication (Jenkins 2012, Mauranen 2012, Seidlhofer 2011). Moreover, participants suggested possible working relationships in the Americas, Europe and the Middle East which indicates there is an awareness of the international level English has reached worldwide. For example, participant BS1 commented:

Quote 7.9

...it’s a very very strong language and I have read reports from people- I mean papers from people from Central America people from South America and they made their reports in English so then see here- we can see here that English is a very necessary language

(Participant BS1)

In quote 7.9, participant BS1 is suggesting that English is a necessary language, as he has noticed that economists from Central and South America whose first languages are Spanish, Portuguese, or any other official language, have to speak and write in English to present their research findings. Moving to *IPSSs-related* perceptions, very few comments were made in relation to repetition, code-switching and rephrasing but none about repair were expressed explicitly. For repetition, students suggested it could be used to persuade clients:

## Quote 7.10

...um I'm trying to repeat something to- that is um in my case it would be a way to convince someone <imitating> no refund no refund </imitating> and based on repetition they maybe can understand that there is no rep- there is refund...

(Participant AS1)

Code-switching, on the other hand, may be used at times to communicate with clients with the same shared languages:

## Quote 7.11

...alterno las lenguas uhu le digo una palabra en español y otra palabra en inglés y ya él como él como le comentaba él entiende mas o menos el español esten ya él me dice...

*...I alternate languages uhu I say one word in Spanish and another word in English and he like- he like- as I said he understands Spanish so so er he tells me...*

(Participant CS2)

## Quote 7.12

...buscaba forma de decírsela en en español igual por si entendían pero no entendían tampoco y en inglés tampoco pero ya luego ya parafraseando ahora si que ya me entendían...

*...I was looking for a way to say in in Spanish also just in case they could understand but they didn't understand either and neither in English but later with paraphrasing they managed to understand...*

Quotes 7.11 and 7.12 illustrate participants CS2's and CS3's perception regarding code-switching usefulness from their working experience. In the first case, CS2 suggested it is possible to use code-switching with clients and that it has worked because she and her interlocutor shared both English and Spanish. By contrast, CS3 has tried to use code-switching in her workplace as well but it did not work because she and her interlocutors did not have a common language, she speaks English and Spanish, and her Japanese clients speak Japanese and very little English; nevertheless, paraphrasing in English was useful. The very few IPSs perceptions about workplaces might indicate a need to link what is perceived in 7.1 with possible working settings. Such a link is necessary in terms of applicability at pedagogical and communicative levels. These are discussed in the implications. Now we turn to IPSs perceptions.

### **7.3 Interactional Pragmatic Strategies perceptions**

The third theme refers to *Strategies*. It gathers participants' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs) that may serve to overcome problems. For this theme, coding divides into main code and sub-codes. Main codes include repetition strategy, rephrasing strategy, repair strategy, code-switching strategy and IPSs working together. Sub-codes, on the other hand, include positive opinions, negative opinions, and classroom use. This coding order helped to better understand the condensed perceptions regarding IPSs, especially in how they may support classroom interaction.

#### **7.3.1 Repetition-strategy perceptions**

*Repetition strategy* refers to those participant's perceptions related to repetition. Table 16 presents repetition perceptions, positive and negative views, as well as classroom use from an emic perspective. Similar to Table 15, it includes a summary of perceptions.

**Table 16.** Repetition-strategy perceptions

Perceptions (summary)	Code
<p>Helps/signals understanding, can serve to clarify misunderstanding, can be used with friends, can be used in more casual communication, helps pronunciation, it is useful to express meaning, serves to master a perfect speech, to memorize, the more repetition the more reference meaning obtained, the more repetition the more vocabulary obtained, implies importance (SS)</p> <p>Helps understanding (TS)</p>	<i>Positive</i>
<p>A problem, it needs to be avoided sometimes to improve meaning, it needs to be avoided with vocabulary in writing, it needs to be avoided sometimes in speeches for English speaking contests, it should not happen in a speech (SS)</p>	<i>Negative</i>
<p>Serves to answer a teacher's question or item, rehearsals as a way to master a speech, can be used in class activities, can be used in after class activities, serves to learn, helps to memorize and not to forget, use carefully in presentations, repetition to hear clearly, aids clarification (SS)</p> <p>Repetition to catch students' attention, to rectify or repair pronunciation, to rectify or repair referential meaning, to repeat instructions and explanations, to ask whether instruction was clear, repetition in student's speaking practice, repetition to ensure students understand, repetition and repair can be used together, not sure whether repetition is something good or it implies redundancy (TS)</p>	<i>Classroom use</i>

*Key: SS= Students' perceptions, TS= Teachers' perceptions*

Table 16 shows the various perceptions regarding repetition. It includes both positive and negative views as well as their uses in the classroom and for teaching. Some positive aspects that participants mentioned are the usefulness of

repetition to overcome certain problems such as pronunciation and reference, among others. The following is an example:

*Quote 7.13*

...cuando escuchas algo y no le entiendes y el hecho de que el profesor lo repita repita lo que escuchaste ya con que- como que le agarras ya que es de lo que está- de lo que se está hablando...

*...when you listen to something and do not understand it and the fact that the teacher repeats it repeats what you heard it's like you catch on to what they are saying...*

(Participant CS12)

In Quote 7.13, participant CS12 makes clear that the teacher's repetitions – namely 'echo' (Mauranen 2012)– have helped her to 'catch on' to meaning. CS12's comment suggests that repetition allows the teacher to emphasise a point (Scott 2002) in order for students to understand it. However, repetition was not always seen as something positive. Moving to *negative* opinions about repetition, some participants viewed it as 'a problem' and some others suggested 'it needs to be avoided sometimes to make meaning better', an idea that contrasts with the positive view above.

*Quote 7.14*

...I think the problem of the repetition is very common in our- your speak I know that um in some occasion is very important to avoid the repetition to make your words- to make your meanings more also better to some people...

(Participant AS6)

In Quote 7.14, participant AS6 suggests that repetition, although a common feature in spoken interaction, needs to be avoided sometimes. AS6's contrasting idea about repetition lies in the fact that this student was referring to occasions when they have to deliver an oral speech like in a speech contest, in which repetition should be avoided in order to gain points. This is related to established rules, in which 'fixed' written guidelines for the speech may be prepared in advance as well as rehearsed in order to avoid repetition. In such a case, IPSs such as repair and code-switching might be banned as well as the fact that speakers should not show any breakdown that needs strategic use of language.

However, from my point of view, this is something that is out of the speaker's hands as producing language orally implies pauses, breaks, repetitions, etc. that function in different ways, i.e. to repeat something might serve to keep the floor (Mauranen 2012), or a pause that helps to think of what to say next (Gilabert, Garcia-Mila, and Felton 2013). Therefore, it is quite complicated to deliver a perfect speech with no breakdowns at all and without resourcing any IPSs such as repetition, rephrasing and so on.

*Classroom use* perceptions show how repetition is used to various purposes that, sometimes, refer to perceptions about problems mentioned above (in 7.1). In this sense problems included here are mainly instructional, but also pronunciation, reference, discourse and factual. Grammar and vocabulary, whilst not mentioned explicitly, are implied in some comments showing once more the transversal feature of problems. For example, repetition was perceived like it 'serves to learn, helps to memorise and not to forget':

*Quote 7.15*

...well then you know when you want to learn something you always repeat it many times to say over over over until it comes naturally so the more you repeat something the more the message gets in gets in the word gets in gets in <Sp> se graba </Sp> and then it stays...

(Participant BS1)

In Quote 7.15, participant BS1 comments on using repetition as a way to master language until it is produced 'naturally'. This relates to studies in which repetition has served for memorising purposes (Dörnyei and Scott 1997), in other words, as a learning strategy (Larsen-Freeman 2012). This relates to the positive view about 'the more repetition the more reference meaning obtained, the more repetition the more vocabulary obtained' too, suggesting that repetition serves primarily to solve linguistic problems for learners. Turning to a more pedagogical use, other classroom-oriented perceptions include that repetition can aid *regulative* problems such as to 'catch students' attention' or aid *instructional* problems such as 'to rectify or repair referential meaning'. This last perception shows once more that participants may use a combination of IPSs (e.g. repair + repetition) for a communicative purpose within classroom interaction. Now we move to rephrasing strategic use perceptions.

### 7.3.2 Rephrasing-strategy perceptions

*Rephrasing strategy* refers to those participant's perceptions related to rephrasing (or paraphrasing). Rephrasing was the strategy that was least commented on, in fact, perceptions included positive views and classroom use perceptions but not negative ones. Perceptions were summarised as in previous tables.

**Table 17.** Rephrasing-strategy perceptions

Perceptions (summary)	Code
Helps understanding, helps not to lose the audience, another way to say the same, to avoid speakers getting lost when repeating the same (SS)	<i>Positive</i>
Helps to respond or answer, helps (to confirm) understanding, word choice is important (SS)  Would let students express clearly and be certain of what they are explaining, helps (to confirm) understanding, helps to explain in another way, rephrasing as a possibility, rephrasing entails a detail explanation (TS)	<i>Classroom use</i>

*Key: SS= Students' perceptions, TS= Teachers' perceptions*

Table 17 shows the various perceptions regarding rephrasing. Among the *positive* views, it is clear that participants regard rephrasing as something that helps understanding. One practical use of it states that it 'helps not to lose your audience', namely teacher and classmates in the classroom setting:

*Quote 7.16*

...because I was speaking really fast um I do I do recognise that I was speaking fast um I didn't want to lose my colleagues...

(Participant BS1)

In Quote 7.16, participant BS1 was talking about the rephrasing he did when presenting something in class. His comment relates to a *discourse* problem in which fast speech may cause a communication break (Walsh 2011) while explaining something. BS1's rephrasing was to keep his audience's attention in this case. Rephrasing was also perceived to support the language classroom in various ways. One of the teachers suggested that rephrasing could give certainty to what is explained:

*Quote 7.17*

...para que mis alumnos puedan ser entendidos y para que ellos también se den a entender para eso les va a servir el el parafraseo y para que ellos también tengan la certeza de lo que están explicando es lo correcto...

*...paraphrasing is going to be useful so my students are understood and to make themselves understood with the certainty of what they are explaining is correct...*

(Participant TC)

In Quote 7.17, participant TC suggests rephrasing could serve as a way to gain certainty at the moment of expressing something; in other words, that speakers could resort to rephrasing to make themselves sure they are communicating their intended meaning, thus functioning as comprehension-oriented repetition (Lichtkoppler 2007) of a previous idea. Therefore, rephrasing embedded with a repetition may serve to achieve mutual understanding.

### 7.3.3 Repair-strategy perceptions

*Repair strategy* refers to those participant's perceptions related to repair. It includes positive and negative views as well as classroom use perceptions.

**Table 18.** Repair-strategy perceptions

Perceptions (summary)	Code
Not unpleasant, implies importance, self-repair is important, not a problem to self-repair when speaking, other-repair is	<i>Positive</i>

constructive, better if other repairs me, it is something good, a way to improve language (SS) Helps communication, helps to understand what is said (TS)	
People could be upset or angry with other-repair, should not happen (SS)	<i>Negative</i>
Helps pronunciation, helps to express meaning correctly, helps vocabulary use, helps to emphasise referential meaning, helps to learn, use carefully in presentations, helps to clarify, some students prefer self-repair rather than other-repair (SS) Repair through an online pronunciation dictionary make students realise about their error, students do not forget easily after repair, it has to be done in class, helps to rectify pronunciation, not often used when giving opinion (TS)	<i>Classroom use</i>

*Key: SS= Students' perceptions, TS= Teachers' perceptions*

Table 18 shows the various perceptions regarding repair. Under a *positive* view repair has been considered as 'a way to improve language'; however, there are some contrasting opinions regarding other-repair from being considered as something 'constructive', to more *negative* views such as it 'should not happen'.

*Quote 7.18*

...when you are in your workplace you try to present your work you should be very steady you should be very confident with your work so this repetition and correction should not should not should not happen...

(Participant BS2)

In Quote 7.18, participant BS2 suggests that neither repetition nor correction, namely repair, should happen in the workplace. Here, two issues come out: the expectancy that workplace conversation should be 'steady' and that steadiness would project 'confidence'. This brings back the idea that repetition is not welcome in workplace settings despite being used commonly for understanding purposes. In addition, this relates to prestige perceptions (Trinder and Herles

2012, Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen 2010) due to the implicit concern about how you present yourself in front of bosses or colleagues. This is not far from what is perceived in some workplaces in which an individual's presence – e.g. how people dress, how people speak, etc.– matters, such as the business one. In a more *positive* view, some students see other-repair as something 'not unpleasant' and even have expressed their preference to be repaired by others (Walsh 2011). Some other students prefer self-repair rather than other-repair.

Regarding *classroom use*, problems solved through repair that were commented on include all elements in the three categories: linguistic, interactional and factual (see 6.5.1). For example, repair has been seen as something 'not often used when giving opinion':

*Quote 7.19*

...a veces si ahí le- les tengo que corregir un poquito pero cuando estamos hablando *name 2* que nada más que den su opinión o algo así no me gusta mucho corregirlos...

...*I have to correct them a little bit sometimes but when we are speaking name 2 they are giving only their opinion or something like that so I don't really like to correct them...*

(Participant TB)

In Quote 7.19, TB's perception about whether to correct 'a little bit' when students are speaking is in accordance to what daily conversation is about. This perception might cause controversy to some pedagogical tenants in which repair might be considered the foundation of learning (see discussion about corrective feedback in Truscott and Hsu 2008). Nevertheless, a balance between what is learnt as language and language use is needed. Even interviewed teachers have suggested that what is learnt in class is not always applicable (e.g. third person singular conjugation, see Cogo and Dewey 2012) even between native speakers of English conversations (see *learning* sub-code in Table 7.6 below). This does not mean that language should not be repaired in the classroom, but teachers should be able to discern the moments in which they may repair. Taking into account that most students, arguably, may feel anxiety when they try to speak in their L2, sometimes it is more important to let them talk so they can gain confidence (Harmer 2007), and then repair their utterances at the end of their conversation. At other times, like in grammar task revisions, it may be important

to repair at the moment in question (e.g. by using repetition, see Petek 2013). Repair also worked together with other IPSs within classroom interaction; for example, with code-switching. Therefore, participants' code-switching perceptions were also a point to consider in this chapter.

### 7.3.4 Code-switching-strategy perceptions

*Code-switching strategy* refers to those participant's perceptions related to code-switching. Similar to previous IPSs, it includes positive and negative views as well as classroom use perceptions.

**Table 19.** Code-switching-strategy perceptions

Perceptions (summary)	Code
<p>Helps understanding, helps to make oneself clear when same language awareness, communication is fluid with Spanglish when same language awareness, Spanglish as means of friendship, Spanglish is done by many people (SS)</p> <p>Helps to make oneself clear when same language awareness, something used daily with friends (TS)</p>	<i>Positive</i>
<p>It may cause non-understanding, implies confusion (or mix-up) of languages, error maker, odd, wrong, there is indirect teaching to learn not to do it, for learning is to speak English without mixing it with Spanish, code-switching is caused because of the various languages in our mind (SS)</p> <p>Better to first use any other strategy before code-switching (TS)</p>	<i>Negative</i>
<p>Helps the process of adopting (learning/getting used to) a language, to take advantage of English and Spanish's similar language systems, relates to English and Spanish word resemblance (SS)</p> <p>Helps to check understanding, it is a necessity in the classroom,</p>	<i>Classroom use</i>

not to be used often, process of adopting (learning/getting used to) a language, includes borrowing phenomena or the use of foreign words in one language (TS)	
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*Key: SS= Students' perceptions, TS= Teachers' perceptions*

Table 19 shows the various perceptions regarding code-switching. *Positive* views about code-switching suggest it helps clarification and fluidity, especially when speakers are aware they share two (or more) languages:

*Quote 7.20*

...I used Spanish @@ because all of them um except *student 2* they speak it um Spanish as their native language...

(Participant TA)

In Quote 7.20, participant TA explains the reason why she used code-switching in the classroom. Laughing at the beginning may signal the teacher's surprise to hear herself using Spanish in the classroom. Nevertheless, she 'justified' such code-switching in terms of her awareness of learners' common characteristic that was to speak Spanish as their L1. Arguably, TA's awareness of contextual features may be a key point for other non-native teachers of English to decide whether to use code-switching deliberately in the classroom –together with other IPSs– in order to clarify or highlight an important point (Sampson 2012).

A more *negative* view places code-switching as something that can be wrong or odd, or something that may cause confusion:

*Quote 7.21*

...now it's like after a year and a half is kind of confusing so two language um collide in my brain in my mind would cause some mistake or errors...

(Participant BS2)

From the learner perspective it may be obvious to look at code-switching as something 'wrong' that happens in the classroom. However, research about how code-switching has functioned for teaching and learning (see translanguaging in Chapter 3) has suggested that it is possible to use it in order to explain something difficult (e.g. in grammar, Littlewood and Yu 2011). Therefore, it overcomes a specific problem *for* and *of* communication; *for* because L2 ultimate

goal is that students learn how to communicate; and, *of* because the fact that if a student stops talking to ask something, for example, means there is a communication breakdown that needs attention. Therefore, both *for* and *of* are implicit.

In contrast to BS2's perception and more on *classroom use*, code-switching was perceived as helping students to understand; however, teachers' comments vary between 'it is a necessity in the classroom' to 'not to be used often in the classroom'. Regarding these perceptions, the former might be true when the teacher and most students –if not all– share their L1; and the latter might be a suggestion to avoid code-switching overuse in the classroom because that would reduce time for students to practice their L2, especially in foreign language classroom contexts.

So far, we have seen perceptions concerning to specific IPSs. In addition to the rich number of perceptions condensed (and rephrased) in each of the tables above, there were some comments that evidenced participant awareness of IPSs connectivity to gain understanding.

### 7.3.5 IPSs working together

One main characteristic of IPSs is that they do not usually work in isolation as seen before, but together with others. In this sense, participants also noticed that: repair and repetition help to aid intelligible pronunciation (see also Mauranen 2012); after repairing a language conflict through code-switching, teachers have to go back to English immediately as the main procedure and avoid overusing it (Harmer 2007); repeated words in a certain language come faster when speaking in another language producing code-switching, commonly known as a transfer phenomenon in Second Language Acquisition studies (Treffers-Daller 2009) and, arguably, errors are unlikely to appear after repair and repetition. In addition, a trio of IPSs –repetition, rephrasing, and code-switching– were perceived to occur naturally (Moore 2013) because participants do not realise when or how they use them when talking.

Participants also suggested the order in which IPSs might work better to reach understanding. Perceptions in this sense varied. Some mentioned that one should explain in English first; others that repetition should be used first and then rephrasing; others the other way round, first rephrasing and then repetition;

finally, there were also suggestions about code-switching being used only as the last resort to reach understanding. From my point of view, it does not matter the order in which IPSs are used, what is most important is being aware that one is able to use them to let ideas come through. Such awareness was not quite reflected by the interviewees except for one participant. CS2 is a student from the Commercial Systems major who works in a tourist environment. This student was the only one who commented on how to overcome a communicative problem with tourists by using some IPSs. CS2's comment is illustrated next:

*Quote 7.22*

...a veces me toca algo que no sé pronunciar y lo pronuncio pronuncio por ejemplo como le digo con lo del <En> /stapple/ </En> yo primero lo prelo este lo pregunté la primera vez que lo dije los muchachos me corrigieron y lo volví a decir y me volvieron a corregir y lo volvie- lo volví a decir y ya me salió y me felicitaron todos...

*...sometimes I have to say something that I don't know how to pronounce and I pronounce pronounce it for example as I said to you the /stapple/ word I first ask- er asked the first time I said it to the guys and they corrected me and I said it again and they corrected me again and I said it ag- again and I could say it and they all congratulated me...*

(Participant CS2)

Following CS2's comment, it is worth noting the IPSs trajectory to pronounce the word 'stapple'. Such a trajectory resembles those patterns observed in classroom interactional analysis (see Chapter 6) but this time, it came out from a participant's comment. A pattern for the solved problem is the following:

*...I said to you the /stapple/ word I first ask*

*- er asked **the first time I said it to the guys***      **PI**

*and they corrected me*      R= repair

*and I said it again and*      repetition = PI

*they corrected me again*      R= repair

*and I said it ag- again and I could say it*

repetition **U**

*and they all congratulated me...*

*Key: PI= Problem Indicator, R= Result, U= Understanding*

This pattern confirms the way in which IPSs work together in order to reach understanding, to achieve communication. CS2's awareness is, in part, similar to Walsh's (2011) example about a teacher realising his own interactive decision when delivering a lesson. The awareness reflected in CS2 could be passed on somehow to other students to aid their learning process and to teachers to foster their pedagogy through IPSs in order to facilitate such learning. While this section has commented on interactional pragmatic strategies perceptions, the following includes a discussion of all kinds of perceptions presented in this chapter, but emphasizing on IPSs perceptions as a way to link Chapter 6 findings with Chapter 7 findings.

## **7.4 Discussion**

Breakdowns in classroom interaction are natural for the teaching-learning process of a foreign language like English, similar to any other conversation. While it is identifiable that a breakdown refers to a single problem, this is not isolated. Problems link to each other or one another. Such a permeable feature supports the idea of the need to keep in mind strategies that help to overcome communicative problems like IPSs. For example, as seen in 7.1.1 above, lack of vocabulary could have a negative influence in students' participation in class; this may be avoided by using IPSs in order to build up understanding together with other pedagogical tactics.

After a problem, a solution appears, and IPSs play a pivotal role in establishing communication. In this sense, participants' perceptions were twofold: positive and negative. Positive perceptions relate to the use of all IPSs except rephrasing. Rephrasing was the least commented IPS in the interviews; while students perceived rephrasing as something positive to solve communicative pitfalls, there were no teachers' opinions about it. This contradicts Farrell and Kun's (2007)

findings in that teachers did express that they do feedback with rephrasing sometimes, and that they use this strategy like an implicit language repair. Repair was mentioned more by teachers, not only as an IPS to overcome communicative pitfalls, but also as a pedagogical strategy, a 'must' in their profession. On the other hand, IPSs also received negative comments, especially from students. In fact, there is conflict between teachers and students in terms of looking at IPSs as something negative because students had negative opinions regarding repetition, repair, and code-switching while teachers, only had negative opinions about code-switching.

Two perspectives are important to highlight for code-switching here. While some students looked at it negatively –e.g. as a two-language collision–, such perceptions were found in terms of learning. That is to say, because the main objective for choosing a language module is to learn a language, code-switching seems to become a problem that Second Language Acquisition studies would call 'interference' (Treffers-Daller 2009). Nevertheless, from a more communicative perspective, the fact that two languages resemble each other might represent something to take advantage of (Hall and Cook 2012). In other words, if the objective of learning another language is to communicate, then, the interactional resources one has in L1 can be used in L2. Most of the interactional pragmatic strategies already exist in our daily spoken communication, therefore, we could exploit them in our second language. In addition, as participants suggested, interaction with other people could include both native and non-native English speakers and in the case of the latter, a significant proportion of intercultural communication and ELF communication is multilingual –not monolingual– and also uses code-switching (Baker 2009, 2015, Jenkins 2015).

Another salient point is that most negative views about IPSs –except rephrasing– come from students. This is a key point that indicates students may need certain orientation towards getting advantage out of IPSs, focusing on the myriad of pattern possibilities –as seen in classroom interaction successful cases in Chapter 6– to use such a set of strategies in order to communicate, especially in the way IPSs work together to fulfil understanding pitfalls in the course of a conversation. Regarding repetition, for example, students cared about how to use it while communicating –in a business meeting, for instance– and the possible effect in their professional career (e.g. repetition could be regarded as a sign of weakness in business contexts, see Ehrenreich 2010). In other words, the prestige issue (Trinder and Herles 2013, Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta 2011) might

represent a barrier in terms of using IPSs to overcome breakdowns, especially in areas such as business in which individuals should demonstrate professionalism. Therefore, a high level of proficiency in English means breakdowns should happen rarely or not happen at all. This idea is shared with Trinder and Herles's (2013) participants, who were business students as well. Despite this, we have seen from classroom interaction in Chapter 6 that language is complex and dynamic, which makes it almost impossible not to have pitfalls whilst communicating. In this way, IPSs are used with or without an awareness of such problems. Therefore, it would be good to keep them in mind as interactional pragmatic resources that may help at some point if used strategically alone or together with other IPSs, i.e. repair.

Repair was a more familiar term for participants due to its immediate link to terms such as 'trouble occurring' (Seedhouse 2004), 'correction' and/or 'feedback' (Harmer 2007, Truscott and Hsu 2008, Brown 2014). Both teachers and students expect to use repair strategies as part of the teaching-learning process (Walsh 2011). Participant TB is an example of flexibility in terms of repair in the classroom (see Quote 7.11) due to her pedagogical decisions to apply repair. This aligns with Walsh's (2011) idea in that repair is considered as a resource for teachers to 'shape' students' second language. In other words, while it is true that one major goal of classroom talk is learning, it is also true that what is learnt –English– supports communication through language appropriation (Widdowson 2012); in other words, to apply what is learnt in class actively in a conversation. Moments in which students are giving their opinions on any general matter may not need extensive use of repair, but resource of other IPSs such as rephrasing or repetition that let the teacher 'shape' the learners' spoken production at the same time that the learner recognises what he or she is saying. That is why it is not enough to provide, for example, just the basic knowledge of specific vocabulary, but also to use what is learnt within and through communication in a given context, balancing between times of little to more extended repair.

The fact that participants had commented on IPSs shows that they are aware about their interactional resources. Nevertheless, it is possible that they do not realise the way they utilise them in order to continue in conversation. Teachers, for instance, had suggested some functions for their own occurrences of repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching (see 7.2). For example, a comment was that repetition might serve to make sure students understand an

instruction. Such awareness was also found in Domínguez Aguilar and Moreno Gloggner's (2009) participants with the difference that their participants did mention code-switching, paraphrasing and repetition, but not repair. In addition, when talking about repetition, this was mentioned as a function to repeat information and also as choral repetition, the latter which has limited use without a context. Such a limitation was confirmed when student's perceptions contradicted teachers' about the discussion that takes place in the class to comment on how to overcome communicative problems, i.e. students think discussion of this kind is very limited. In this sense, teachers in the present research did not comment about teaching IPSs in class, and no instance of IPSs teaching was observed during the lessons either. In fact, their lessons were textbook-centred during the 5-week period observation and almost none of the lessons' context included interactional strategic techniques; neither as explicit teaching, nor as suggestion.

Domínguez Aguilar and Moreno Gloggner's (2009) students, on the other hand, perceived they use more paraphrasing (together with other strategies such as word coining) and less often literal translation and code switching. In this regard, my participants varied in terms of what IPSs to use first or second and so forth. As seen in 7.2.5, they suggested various patterns that range from trying out repetition first to using code-switching as a last resource to overcome a breakdown. As mentioned above, from my point of view, a prescriptive order for IPSs use is not possible due to the inherent complexity of languages; nevertheless, awareness of strategic resources may mark a difference when troubles emerged in conversation.

Moving back to my participants' idea that IPSs like repetition could function to make sure students understand an instruction, this perception resembles Petek's (2013) participants. His research included communicative strategies such as repetition and code-switching, among other classroom communication strategies that support negotiation of meaning. His participants suggested repetition was the quickest way to fulfil understanding. In this sense, 'quick' could be a feature that is subjective to the local context in which a communicative problem is taking place. Nevertheless, the fact that both participants –his and mine– had mentioned that repetition helps understanding might imply some truth. Whilst the aforementioned is based on perceptions *per se*, the striking numbers that resulted in my classroom interaction analysis for the instances of repetition (see

appendix M) may support this idea, as repetition was the most frequent IPSs used to solve a problem.

Turning to language perceptions, these were diverse. Nevertheless, the most salient points were twofold: first, the models for classroom practices are limited – most of the time – to a certain English variation such as British or American, leaving aside interactional models including other English varieties (e.g. Indian English) and ELF. In this sense, my participants showed their awareness of the several kinds of interaction they may be facing when working (see quote 7.19), similar to Ranta's (2010), Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen's (2010), and Rogerson-Revell's (2008) participants suggesting they think they would be interacting with non-native English speakers as well. Nevertheless, such a variety of models were not enacted in the classroom practices observed in the present study. This contradiction between what is perceived and what happens in the classroom might relate to the idea that learnt English differs sometimes to English that is used at work, and this last perception is shared between Ranta's (2010) participants and mine (see quote 7.18).

By contrast, business learners in Trinder and Herles's (2013) and Trinder's (2013) studies believe native-like exposure may be perceived as correct when communicating in English, which will bring them status and ensure they appear professional. While this might be true for some business students and teachers, some of my participants have suggested English used in some jobs is far from perfect (see quote 7.18).

This brings out another issue related to local context English appropriateness, our second point. In this regard, English speakers may need to know about—or be aware of at least—their interlocutors' socio-cultural background or what business professionals' perceptions have suggested in terms of knowing counterparts' contexts. These include national and corporate cultures (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen 2010). Such a level of awareness is still in its infancy in Mexican language classrooms to the point where only one student and one teacher among my participants commented on the importance of knowing cultural issues around foreign language interaction and, as mentioned above, this may result in a gap for English language teaching and learning that, in turn, has an effect on learners' communication.

For example, questions about how learners –speakers– may know how to re-establish understanding again deserves attention. A possible answer is that IPSs

instruction may be needed as a way to fulfil a communicative need, in case learners face difficulties when communicating despite the fact that they have obtained the desirable language proficiency level marked in their curricula. Such levels usually refer to specific international examinations like Cambridge tests (e.g. the Preliminary English Test), although some research has suggested that the native-English-interaction orientation stipulated in CERF is not enough and other kinds of interaction need to be included such as English used as a *lingua franca* (ELF henceforth) in which other features –like socio-cultural values and strategic communication– are immersed (Hynninen 2014, Pitzl 2015). However, this is another topic to be investigated further.

So far, very little literature has focused on perceptions regarding IPSs from an emic approach as in the present research. Therefore, what is found here may be the starting point for investigating how language signals its complexity from a more interactional perspective. Of course, while there is still a large path to investigate around IPSs, findings in Chapter 6 and 7 have shown a possibility to initiate awareness in students and learners regarding a deliberate management of strategies that help them overcome communication breakdowns. IPSs, then, could become a source that facilitates understanding in communication. Therefore, they involve communicative tactics in which speakers transform into active problem solvers (Chiang 2009) in communication.

## 7.5 Summary

This chapter has presented findings regarding participants' perceptions to classroom language perceptions, workplace perceptions and IPSs perceptions. Classroom language perceptions relate to two core points that concern how teachers and students think about the English language and communicative problems. Workplace perceptions, on the other hand, helped to realise about how language is expected to use in working contexts, and to observe similar and different issues regarding classroom interaction. Finally, IPSs perceptions of repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching, were collected. These perceptions relate to what is observed within classroom interaction in Chapter 6. This demonstrates that some participants are aware –perhaps unconsciously– about IPSs potential behaviour in order to solve communication pitfalls, namely problems., a section on language perceptions has illustrated the importance of

English among participants, not only as a language for general ‘mundane’ communication, but also for the materialised meaning it brings such as getting a job and therefore a salary and all this entails (e.g. being able to support one’s family). Furthermore, the importance to communicate in English goes beyond knowing or getting knowledge to a certain CEFR level; in this sense, it is relevant to complement it with strategic language behaviour that helps to, for example, overcome communication breakdowns whilst conversing because no one is perfect in English in the world. The next chapter –implications and conclusions– discusses this and other related points regarding findings in Chapter 6 and 7.



## Chapter 8: Conclusions

Findings in chapters 6 and 7 have shown the diverse complexity of communication from two perspectives: classroom interaction and participants' perceptions accordingly. From these issues, a myriad of IPSs patterns that speakers develop in order to reach understanding have been observed. Also, we have witnessed participants' perceptions regarding both use of IPSs and the importance of knowing English nowadays. The latter is a relevant point to be considered in any language classroom as perceptions influence language educational practices. Therefore, a summary of the research is presented next which leads to a discussion of pedagogical implications derived from IPSs. The conclusion of the project is provided at the end.

### 8.1 Project summary

The present research has focused on strategic communication (e.g. repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching) derived from the desire to contribute to understanding communication and the solving of those problems of miscommunication such as misunderstanding or non-understandings in the language classroom. Such forms of miscommunication have been the aim of studies around various interactional pragmatic strategies in academic settings such as repetition (Larsen-Freeman 2012, Björkman 2011), rephrasing (Mauranen 2012, Kaur 2011b, 2009), repair (Deterding 2013, Walsh 2011, Kaur 2011a, 2011b, Smit 2010), and code-switching (Littlewood and Yu 2011, Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012, Cook 2010, Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009, Bullock and Toribio 2009, Klimpfinger 2009). The various empirical studies around each one of these strategies suggest there are strategic ways to overcome communication pitfalls, not only as a pedagogical resource in the language classroom, but in any kind of spoken exchange, including English that is used as a Lingua Franca. Therefore, my aim was *to know and interpret those instances of communication breakdown in natural conversation in educational settings from an interactional perspective with a focus on their pragmatic use; as well as to explore interlocutors' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies*. Derived from this, research questions were twofold:

- RQ1. Which interactional pragmatic strategies support understanding in the business English language classroom of the University of Quintana Roo, in Mexico?
- a. To what extent were communication problems solved successfully through interactional pragmatic strategies? Which problems were solved? How? Were there problems unsolved?
  - b. Were there problems solved without using interactional pragmatic strategies?
- RQ2. What are teachers' and learners' perceptions regarding interactional pragmatic strategies (IPSs)?
- a. What problems do participants suggest IPSs help to solve for communication?
  - b. How do participants perceive their own use of IPSs? How do perceptions coincide or differ from strategic language used in the classroom?
  - c. What are participants' English language perceptions? How do these perceptions have an impact in IPSs use?

While literature has approached strategic communication in various ways and from various fields, this monograph has suggested the term Interactional Pragmatic Strategies or IPSs so researchers could refer to them as a way to include repetition, rephrasing, repair, code-switching and any other micro-strategy that represents the fundamental means for communication to continue when issues inevitably arise. When communication stops it is because something, namely misunderstanding or non-understanding, has occurred. Using IPSs, both the speaker and receiver work together in order to re-establish communication and allow the conversation to continue. IPSs are presented in various and varied forms in which repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching are interrelated and interface in complex ways. Another suggestion was the way in which breaks could be analysed. It included a Problem Indicator (PI) and a Result (R) in which IPSs marked the path speakers used to re-establish Understanding (U). Also, problems addressed through IPSs were diverse, but the most common was vocabulary. This is when perceptions, a second research strand, also contributed

to IPSs. From perceptions, the most salient findings were twofold: speakers barely notice they are using IPSs when overcoming communicative breaks and speakers have demonstrated an awareness of the importance of communication in English, not only for classroom interaction purposes but also for how it will support their professional life. That is why both classroom interaction and perceptions analysis were carried out so that contributions are as complete as possible within the research limitations (see 8.3). We turn now to contributions and implications.

## 8.2 IPSs main contributions

This investigation sought to contribute both theoretically and methodologically to the field of applied linguistics by studying how understanding takes place within classroom interaction from the moment there is trouble in communication, namely communication breakdown, until communication is re-established.

Theoretically, this study has contributed to the literature by incorporating an alternative perspective of the various concepts around language strategies. That is to say, study fields like English Language Teaching, Classroom Interaction and English as a Lingua Franca have suggested and used terms such as communication strategies (Dörnyei & Scott 1997), pragmatic strategies (Cogo 2009), accommodation strategies (Giles *et. al.* 1991) and interactional strategies (Walsh 2011), among others. In all of them, both macro-strategies and micro-strategies are mentioned in their descriptions. However, there exist a common ground among them that examples themselves show in their descriptions (see Chapter 3). These include repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching among others. Therefore, this investigation has suggested that, no matter the kind of domain or context where interaction takes place, there exist interactional pragmatic strategies (or micro-interactional strategies) that support macro-strategies such as meaning negotiation, clarification and rectification among others. So, a list of the most frequent IPSs was considered for the purpose of analysing how to overcome communication breaks in the language classroom. The IPSs included repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching because they were the most common strategies observed in my data. However, there might be other micro-strategies that could be the object of study in other setting, for example, let-it-pass or pre-empting that might support understanding as well. The importance to know and be aware of IPSs is highly relevant in the language

classroom because it supports one of the most important actions both teacher and students do in the classroom, the constant reflexive actions of the teaching and learning process with communication, that embraces the relationship between interaction and pedagogy (Seedhouse 2004), see pedagogical implications in 8.3.2 below. In addition, the methodology plays an important role.

The originality of the thesis consists of its methodology by offering an alternative analytical framework to research understanding within classroom interaction through Interactional Pragmatic Strategies or IPSs. Although the IPSs model has its roots from Varonis and Gass's (1985) model for negotiation of meaning, it has its own characteristics by the insertion of micro-strategies such as repair, repetition, rephrasing and code-switching. In other words, IPSs could be observed in the three main elements of the model: PI → R → U (Problem Indicator → Result → Understanding, see 5.6.1). From this model, we could observe the complexity of patterns that help teacher-student and student-student interactions (Johnson 1995) to reach mutual understanding (Chapter 6). In addition, such a set of patterns have contributed to knowledge about how students and teachers deal with communication breakdowns, a gap that Walsh (2011) suggests needs to be addressed in order to understand communication in the language classroom better. That is to say, outcomes have shown IPSs to have two main characteristics: they are interconnected with one another forming a chain to reach understanding as well as interfacing sometimes. Being aware of these issues also supports reflexive actions regarding interaction and pedagogy (Seedhouse 2004). This reflexivity leads speakers, namely teacher and students, to be aware of their own language comprehension and production. Such awareness or, more specifically, IPSs awareness brings implications to the language classroom.

## 8.3 IPSs main implications

### 8.3.1 IPSs awareness

If it is true that IPSs are used while communicating, it is also true that speakers do not usually notice how they use them most of the time. That is to say, speakers sometimes notice they are repeating, rephrasing, repairing, or code-switching when interacting, but do not reflect very often on the extent IPSs help them to overcome a breakdown whilst conversing. A logical suggestion that emerges from this would be the explicit teaching of IPSs. Nevertheless, this has

its complications. How could we teach interactional pragmatic strategies due to the fact that communication is so complex? How can we teach the myriad of ways –namely patterns– that IPSs work, both individually and together, in order to fulfil a communicative purpose? However, there are already some suggestions about the best way to approach pragmatics in teaching.

As seen in Chapter 1, there is still research regarding the best way to teach pragmatics; whether explicitly or implicitly, through deductive or inductive manners and so on. Ishihara (2010), one major contributor to pragmatics instruction, has suggested an awareness-raising approach that implies explicit instruction. Although it is originally focused on facilitating ‘learners’ noticing and understanding of the form-context relationship (p. 113), it includes various dimensions around language such as linguistics, social and cultural, which are enacted in any interaction by speakers. Such an approach includes not only Canale and Swain’s (1980) and Canale’s (1983) competencies –grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic– but also highlights the importance of realising our own speech, where the first step is to raise awareness about possible uses of IPSs. To work out our communicative abilities at a strategic level may have a ‘visible, short-term impact and as a consequence, boosts learners’ confidence in their ability to use language’ (Friedrich 2005: 39) since the ultimate goal in language classrooms is for students to improve their performance in English and to be able to communicate; and teachers are the key actors in charge of it.

Teachers, however, may need training to be aware of IPSs they use when communicating and pass their experiences on to students. In addition, they may find the best way to resort to repetition, rephrasing, repair, and/or code-switching in order to make students understand the lesson and adjust language accordingly. From the findings in this investigation, we can observe that neither teachers nor students have developed such awareness. In fact, thanks to the interviews, a few started to think of their IPSs as pedagogical resources. For example, teachers commented on the perception regarding whether repetition implies redundancy. This comment showed an uncertainty about whether repetition should be considered as something good or not. This perception was prominent in one of the teachers who realised she does lots of repetition and expressed her doubt about it directly (see classroom use perceptions in Table 7.2). In this regard, it is important to consider that whilst repetition –as any other IPS– naturally occurs in any conversation, it is also important to be aware of the

extent we use it as an interactional resource in the classroom to support meaning-making. In other words, the advantages of repeating something indicates listenership together with the desire to establish a common understanding of a certain point, objectives that repetition shares with rephrasing, repair and code-switching. However, if teachers overuse IPSs, it could 'restrict the space that learners may have to interact' (Walsh 2011) or make students confused with lots of repetitions if they come in the form of rephrasing, for instance.

Therefore, repetition as well as any other IPSs should be used when required without falling into the trap of overusing it (Petek 2013), similar to what would happen in any out-of-classroom conversation. What is important to highlight from teachers' perceptions is the awareness they could gain by being reflective about the way they speak in their teaching practice. So they need a space –namely training– in which they can discuss their views about their own interactional actions. We have seen from the literature (e.g. Walsh 2011 in Chapter 2) that teachers are aware of their teaching so, from my point of view, it is just a matter of self-reflection about the language they use strategically for pedagogical purposes. Once teachers gain awareness, they can show learners the set of strategies that may facilitate communication not only in their L2, but also in their L1, L3 and so on. After all, teachers are a major factor in shaping students' speech. Accordingly, teachers' suggestions may have a large impact on students' oral production. Another element that has an impact on teachers' decisions to teach includes pedagogical resources.

### **8.3.2 IPSs as pedagogical resources**

While it is important for teachers to be aware of their oral practice in teaching, it is clear that most of what they say comes from the pedagogical resources they have to hand such as textbooks that are generally set as compulsory in schools, colleges and universities. Most materials have been designed for learning a language –most of the time under a communicative approach– but this material has omitted interactional pragmatic strategies that may help students to converse better. In the case of IPSs studied in this thesis, very few contents were found in the textbooks that directed the lessons observed and recorded; and when found, these were not explained in the lesson or they were mentioned only very briefly. For instance, there was a lesson that included some tips for using IPSs –repetition

and rephrasing– during the question and answer (Q&A) session after a presentation. Nevertheless, they were neither taught nor read in the class. That is to say, there was no teaching of conversational strategic techniques explicitly marked in the textbook. It included strategies that could have been taught as ways to overcome understanding problems with telephone messages (see appendix Q). IPSs could have been highlighted as a way to check or confirm (Dörnyei and Scott 1997) what was heard or as a tool to ask for spelling certain words or names, among other functions. In this way, students were able to gain awareness about the possible uses for repetition and rephrasing in situations such as answering telephone messages.

Other possible functions for repetition, for example, could be seen in tasks where learners have to do a presentation. In this case, teachers suggest students rehearse and therefore make use of repetition (O'Malley and Chamot 1990). This action helps students to improve their utterances and to think about rephrasing or re-working parts of their speech. Accordingly, students learnt that repetition and rephrasing could work together, even to solve a communicative problem during a presentation. Regarding rephrasing, it appeared once in the material used, in a speaking task that provided tips for students to manage the Q&A part at the end of their presentation. That was the only occasion students were taught about the importance of overcoming difficulties in interaction and how to convey meaning or clarify something through repetition or rephrasing; nevertheless, no attention or feedback about these tips took place during the presentations.

What was most observed, though, was repair as a pedagogical practice for feedback on students' grammar in their speech. In this regard, repair has been observed in classroom interaction that functions as more than just to 'correct' grammar. Pedagogically, two aspects are important to observe around repair: first, as a strategy to communicate and second, as a pedagogical tool. Regarding repair for communication purposes, it resulted in the most frequent IPSs observed (refer to table 6.5 in Chapter 6). Nevertheless, it was not taught or commented on for strategic communication. In fact, repair –as an IPS– was not mentioned in any section from the two textbooks used in the classroom, nor highlighted by teachers too when it would have been possible to suggest explicit teaching of repair for communicative purposes. For instance, there are some tasks that include practices of repair explicitly (e.g. in preparation for international examinations). These generally instruct students to identify and correct language usage –mostly grammar and vocabulary– in the statements of a

given paragraph (see an example of this in appendix Q) as a way to teach proofreading or editing. This could be transferred to oral listening models in which students may reflect on clearer ways to say the same thing. Nevertheless, so far to my knowledge, repair strategies have remained lacking for direct instruction in speaking tasks.

Regarding pedagogical uses, recent literature has placed repair as another strategy that helps teachers to 'shape' learners' contributions, together with other related strategies such as seeking clarification, scaffolding and modelling (Walsh 2011). The way repair interconnects with other IPSs is even less taught. For example, a repair could work together with code-switching in that feedback could be done in students' L1 in order to support understanding. However, this is not considered as part of teaching or as a reflective practice despite the fact that it is done sometimes as seen in chapter 6. In this sense, although code-switching is likely to be present in second/foreign classroom interaction, it has not been considered as a target to be taught under a pedagogical view for interactional purposes. In fact, when by mere coincidence a foreign word is presented in speaking models, its strategic use in conversation is rarely highlighted. For instance, in a task where students had to construct a dialogue in order to feature a conversation, to then compare it with a model provided; such a model includes a word in Spanish to refer to a traditional dish in Peru. That word represents a language shift that could be highlighted in the classroom as the use of L1 that functions to signal speakers' cultural and traditional backgrounds such as specific meals. In this way, students may be aware of the possibility of hearing L1 words or phrases when communicating in English with people from other nationalities. Moreover, they could be initiated as well into possible intercultural communication that they may face in their future jobs, situations that may need an awareness of IPSs too.

Therefore, learning a language should not only be limited to the contents of textbooks but also include materials which include models that represent various Englishes around the globe that permit learners to expand their views about English. Those may be more meaningful in terms of the potential application of learnt language. Moving back to the classroom setting, we have seen that there are -at least- four areas that have been suggested for teacher development under interactional competence: 1) improving questioning strategies, 2) making the discourse more communicative, 3) improving interactive decision-making and 4) dealing with reticence' (Walsh 2011: 36-37), that might be reinforced with the use

IPs. In other words, why not add a fifth area that impacts each one of those points? The fifth area would be interactional pragmatic strategies that would contribute in each one of these areas. It is important to highlight IPs in each area in order to be aware of them and possibly use them deliberately when a break in communication takes place. For instance, to improve questioning strategies, the fact that learners repeat a teacher's question (Richards 1990) may bring meaning making for both learners and teachers. The important point here is to find the best path to reach understanding within interactions in the classroom and to fulfil the objective of the class: learning.

IPs could also have an impact on students' learning. In fact, interaction is connected to learning: '...if we want to understand learning, we should begin by looking at the interactions that take place in our classes' (Walsh 2011: 51). The existence of a relationship between these two –interaction and learning– has been studied widely from various perspectives (e.g. in SLA, repetition helps students to memorise some vocabulary or phrases, see Larsen-Freeman 2012). However, it is important that teachers learn how to pass the use IPs to students. In that sense, there is no doubt that classroom interaction studies may support language pedagogy. This is simply reflected in teacher's talk that underpins pedagogical purposes. Some classroom interaction findings 'reveal how interactants collectively co-construct meanings, how errors arise and are repaired, how turns begin, end and are passed or seized' (Walsh 2011: 25). Findings in this research have shown that more in-depth studies are needed. For example, something that is related to those pedagogical issues are communication breakdowns. Carrying out more studies about breakdowns in classroom interaction may reveal further strategies (e.g. pre-empting, mediation, etc.) that help students not only to learn the foreign language, but also to realise its strategic behaviour similar to interactions they have in their L1.

### **8.3.3 English(es) in the language classroom**

Literature about how English has expanded geographically across the globe (e.g. see Kachru's concentric circles 1985), and possible English interaction that could result from that expansion (e.g. ELF, see Jenkins 2012) has raised the question about which English or Englishes need to be taught. If it is true that we can distinguish from different kinds of interactions such as native/native like, native/non-native like, or non-native/non-native like, it is also true that all of

them happen for a communicative purpose; to understand each other when conversing. Moreover, if we look at which interaction –from those– are likely to happen in the workplace, academic staff would be able to make a decision about the English practices future professionals may face. For example, the fact that Mexican participants have commented on jobs in tourism –that they actually have in their local contexts– supports an academic decision to include a variety of models for spoken practices, for example, in which the teacher could introduce and practice not only with native/native interaction, but also native/non-native and non-native/non-native. That way, students would expand their views about one single standard English that is usually American or British.

In this sense, native models of English are certainly important to be taught; nevertheless, settings where only native-like interaction are becoming less common. At the same time, English has become a real international language that is taught and spoken around the globe more and more nowadays, not necessarily by native English speakers (see 2.3 in Chapter 2). Therefore, for the future, openness to other kinds of English around the world is needed where groups of speakers are not only native but non-native people that use English to communicate (e.g. ELF groups). Accordingly, IPSs are needed to overcome possible understanding problems and issues involving socio-cultural awareness.

Therefore, other pragmatic tactics involved in communication deserve attention (e.g. intercultural communication). This leads to the point that there is no perfect English in the world, just native-like English and non-native like English, something teachers and students need to be aware of. Therefore, bringing a variety of spoken English to the classroom may help students to recognise how people communicate and consequently, how they use their interactional resources including repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching as well as other interactional pragmatic strategies. For example, as seen in chapter 7, a ‘lack of vocabulary’ represented a problem for students. However, such a problem is not exclusive to students, but also for non-native English (NN) teachers as well. Friedrich (2005) captured how NN teachers in Argentina perceived ‘they did not have enough vocabulary at their disposal to teach efficiently’ (p. 36). Such an instructional problem might be overcome through IPSs that help speakers to reach understanding despite not knowing technical vocabulary (e.g. by rephrasing the problematic term). This may help students understand better what teachers are referring to and allow them both to learn new vocabulary together with a strategic technique to overcome this communicative problem. Of course, these

are suggestions about the importance of IPSs in communication and more research needs to be done in this sense (see 8.4). Now, we turn to pedagogic suggestions.

## 8.4 Final pedagogic suggestions

This research has shown the complexity of the way in which language behaves in order to overcome breakdowns from both classroom interaction and perceptions. From both perspectives, common features such as the way IPSs work and are perceived relate to each other greatly. In this respect, communication itself represents an entity that resembles constant communication in which fluidity and smoothness enable understanding among speakers. In this way, when communication falters IPSs start to work in order to re-establish communication, and therefore, understanding. Problems causing a break could be linguistic, interactional and/or factual. Most of them can be successfully overcome with use of IPSs. While IPSs work to keep a conversation on track, they also reflect pedagogical functions when part of a language classroom. In this way, IPSs such as repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching are strategic devices that can help teaching and learning and communication. The ways they can be used for teaching and learning are diverse. Ultimately, it depends on the speaker and interactants to succeed in a conversation.

As demonstrated in this thesis, breakdowns are a common feature in foreign language classrooms that deserves more attention. Having studied language through classroom interaction, the present research contributes new ways to look at some of its complex and abstract features. We know now that IPSs are present in a myriad of ways to reach understanding and re-establish communication (see Chapter 6). Also, we have witnessed participants' awareness regarding strategic behaviour (in Chapter 7). Moreover, the correlation between classroom interaction and perceptions help to corroborate such an awareness as well as to work on some specific suggestions regarding teaching, learning and Englishes. Suggestions, therefore, are threefold:

- Teachers' reflections on their own interactional pragmatic strategies might permit students to be able to use IPSs both naturally and deliberately when needed. Accordingly, teacher training is a way to allow them to realise their own way of speaking, so they could pass this on to their students. 'For

language teachers, understanding the discourse of the classroom itself is crucial, for we teach discourse *through* discourse with our learners.’ (Walsh 2011: 19, author’s emphasis). Such an action could wake up the awareness process to reach communication as a domino effect that may start from teachers, reach to students and, possibly, expand to the community (e.g. into the workplace).

- Teachers should reinforce learners’ strategic communication through more explicit instruction from what Domínguez Aguilar and Moreno Gloggnier (2009) called ‘tips’ about how to speak strategically by using IPSs deliberately while conversing. This may bring smoother interactions and L2 communication may resemble more natural conversation that is used in L1s; at the same time, IPSs may serve to check understanding and keep the communication going (Petek 2013).
- Teachers and all involved in a language lesson (e.g. textbook designers) should update materials and models based on new research outcomes regarding English that is spoken in the world. Nowadays, it is rare that students learning English will be talking to English native speakers only. Current research about English has shown how English has spread across the globe (Seidlhofer 2011); and at the same time has resulted in diverse interactional scenarios (e.g. ELF interaction). Nowadays, it is possible to interact with non-native English speakers more frequently than with a native English speaker, something which needs to be reflected in classroom practices as well.

## 8.5 Limitations and further study

There are some limitations in this research. First, language classrooms may differ from one another. This issue means that interaction and perceptions may vary depending on local contexts and settings. For example, analysed interactions came from an English for business module in which both language and business were immersed in an educational setting. That would differ from interactions in business jobs, as a ‘real’ scenario in which, again, language and business work together. While the aim in the first setting –the classroom– is to learn, the aim in the second setting would be to sell. So, IPSs would work in different ways. Nevertheless, studying both has provided a better idea of language uses in the workplace.

Repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching are not the unique IPSs that play a role in communication. Although they were the IPSs most frequently found in my data in cases of communication breakdowns, there were other strategies that played an important part too. For example, paralinguistic strategies supported IPSs, as well as technology (e.g. online dictionary) and other interactional pragmatic strategies such as pre-empting that serves to prevent non-understanding in a conversation (Cogo 2009). Therefore, it is also a tool that helps prevent misunderstanding and/or avoiding any potential non-understanding, where speakers are constantly monitoring themselves (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey 2012) while trying to communicate something, in order 'to achieve mutual understanding in ELF' (Kaur 2009: 108) by discarding 'ambiguity and vagueness' and emphasising 'explicitness and clarity' (Kaur 2011b: 2712). In this way, the patterns that speakers use in order to prevent a communication problem would provide more insights regarding IPSs and allow for a contrasting analysis between patterns obtained in communication breaks and the prevention of breaks.

Beside other IPSs, another topic that needs further research refers to the connection IPSs have with other kinds of strategies. Such a link between strategies deserves further investigation, especially because they represent factors that may help to reach understanding as well. Another perspective on the study of IPSs is related to the various interfaces they have. While this thesis has evidenced there is interconnectivity and interface among repetition, rephrasing, repair and code-switching, there is still room to carry out in-depth research on this matter as a way to know more about the nature of IPSs in communication. While this study has focused on studying IPSs in communication breakdowns, it is relevant to say such a set of strategies could be studied in other situations in which understanding is aimed as well, where there is no evidence of breakdowns. For example, pre-empting, considered a 'preventive' repair (Kaur 2009, 2011a, 2011b), aims to bring understanding to the conversation before a communicative problem happens. As seen, there is much more to find out in the complex interactional world of strategic classroom interaction.

Also, IPSs have shown they interface frequently, so further study in this sense would be valuable to know more about IPSs's strategic behaviour and its impact in teaching and learning: 'any attempt to study learning must therefore begin by studying classroom interaction' (Seedhouse and Walsh 2010).

## 8.6 Conclusions

The vision of English as one of the most important languages around the world suggests that participants are aware of its use to communicate anywhere. That means there is the potential of including some contributions from this study to educational setting as well as academic research. As pointed out in 8.2, an alternative analytical framework to overcome communication breakdowns in classroom interaction has been suggested to carry out self-reflection about interactional pragmatic strategies as L2 teachers, learners or users. In addition, the IPSs model could be used to continue exploring other contexts, not limited to language lessons. In this case, classroom interaction came from English for Business modules, in which issues related to perceptions regarding English were also important to explore. This is linked to the need for an expanded pedagogy training that includes more on Englishes in both ways: the strategic use of language to overcome communication breakdowns, and the various 'Englishes' across the world. This may bring an up-dated panorama of English use nowadays and benefit students in terms of awareness of the various English they may have to face when in the working sector. It is in such settings that potential professionals need to use their interactional devices strategically, especially when overcoming communicative problems. This is when/where contribution obtained from IPSs training/instruction for raising awareness for deliberate uses will bear fruit.

Overall, I have achieved my aims and answered my research questions. Both questions have contributed to comprehending understanding in classroom interaction, especially when communication is broken. In this sense, the findings are valuable from various perspectives: on one hand, they provide a alternative methodology within interaction research with a focus on communication breakdowns; and, on the other hand, they provided inner thoughts about how those communication breakdowns are perceived to be solved through interactional pragmatic strategies. The IPSs in my data came out naturally from the participants most of the time whilst conversing, but if used deliberately, would benefit interactants in solving communicative problems. Accordingly, this highlights the relevance of the present study to support communicative pedagogical goals in language education.

# Appendices



# Appendix A Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: 188-194) inventory of Communication Strategies

Table 1

*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions/Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T=Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)*

STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE	OTHER TAXONOMIES
1. Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	<i>It is a person er... who is responsible for a a house, for the block of house... I don't know... [laughter]</i>	T, F&K, W
2. Message reduction (topic avoidance)	Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language-wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources.	[Retrospective comment by the speaker:] <i>I was looking for "satisfied with a good job, pleasantly tired," and so on, but instead I accepted less.</i>	T, F&K, W
3. Message replacement	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it.	[Retrospective comment after saying that the pipe was broken in the middle instead of "the screw thread was broken".] <i>I didn't know "screw thread" and well, I had to say something.</i>	F&K, W
4. Circumlocution (paraphrase)	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action.	<i>it becomes water</i> instead of "melt"	T, F&K, W, P; B: "description"; N: appr. "analytic strategies"
5. Approximation	Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure.	<i>plate</i> instead of "bowl"	T, W, B and P: "semantic contiguity"; F&K: "generalization"; N: appr. "holistic str."
6. Use of all-purpose words	Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.	The overuse of <i>thing, stuff, make, do</i> , as well as words like <i>thingie, what-do-you-call-it</i> ; e.g.: <i>I can't can't work until you repair my ... thing.</i>	W: "smurfing"
7. Word-coinage	Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.	[Retrospective comment after using <i>dejunktion</i> and <i>unjunktion</i> for "street clearing".] <i>I think I approached it in a very scientific way: from junk I formed a noun and I tried to add the negative prefix "de-"; to "unjunk" is to 'clear the junk' and "unjunktion" is 'street clearing'.</i>	T, F&K, B, W; N: appr. "morphological creativity"
8. Restructuring	Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan.	On Mickey's face we can see the... so he's he's he's wondering.	F&K; W: under "self-repair"
9. Literal translation (transfer)	Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2.	I'd made a big fault [translated from French]	T, W, N; F&K: under "interlingual transfer"; P and B: "transliteration"
10. Foreignizing	Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.	reparate for "repair" [adjusting the German word 'reparieren']	B, W; F&K: under "interlingual transfer"; N: under "transfer"
11. Code switching (language switch)	Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.	Using the Latin <i>ferrum</i> for "iron".	T, F&K, B, W; N: under "transfer"
12. Use of similar-sounding words <sup>1</sup>	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item.	[Retrospective comment explaining why the speaker used <i>cap</i> instead of "pan".] <i>Because it was similar to the word which I wanted to say: "pan".</i>	
13. Mumbling <sup>1</sup>	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.	And uh well Mickey Mouse looks surprise or sort of XXX [the 'sort of' marker indicates that the unintelligible part is not just a mere recording failure but a strategy].	
14. Omission <sup>1</sup>	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.	<i>the n... er... the sun is is... hm sun is... and the Mickey Mouse....</i> [Retrospective comment: <i>I didn't know what 'shine' was.</i> ]	
15. Retrieval	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.	<i>It's brake er... it's broken broked broke.</i>	F&K

Table 1 (continued)

*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions/Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T= Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)*

STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE	OTHER TAXONOMIES
16a. Self-repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.	<i>then the sun shines and the weather get be... gets better.</i>	W
16b. Other-repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.	Speaker:... <i>because our tip went wrong...</i> [...] Interlocutor: <i>Oh, you mean the tap. S: Tap, tap...</i>	
17. Self-rephrasing <sup>2</sup>	Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.	<i>I don't know the material...what it's made of...</i>	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
18. Over-explicitness (waffling) <sup>3</sup>	Using more words to achieve a particular communicative goal than what is considered normal in similar L1 situations.	(This CS was not included in Dörnyei & Scott's, 1995a, 1995b, taxonomy)	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
19. Mime (nonlinguistic/paralinguistic strategies)	Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.	[Retrospective comment:] <i>I was miming here, to put it out in front of the house, because I couldn't remember the word.</i>	T, F&K, B, P, W; N: under either "analytic" or "holistic strategies"
20. Use of fillers <sup>4</sup>	Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.	Examples range from very short structures such as <i>well, you know, actually, okay</i> , to longer phrases such as <i>this is rather difficult to explain; well, actually, it's a good question.</i>	
21a. Self-repetition <sup>5</sup>	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.	[Retrospective comment:] <i>I wanted to say that it was made of concrete but I didn't know 'concrete' and this is why "which was made, which was made" was said twice.</i>	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
21b. Other-repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.	Interlocutor: <i>And could you tell me the diameter of the pipe? The diameter.</i> Speaker: <i>The diameter? It's about er... maybe er... five centimeters.</i>	
22. Feigning understanding <sup>6</sup>	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.	Interlocutor: <i>Do you have the rubber washer?</i> Speaker: <i>The rubber washer? ... No I don't.</i> [Retrospective comment: <i>I didn't know the meaning of the word, and finally I managed to say I had no such thing.</i> ]	
23. Verbal strategy markers <sup>7</sup>	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.	E.g.: (strategy markers in bold): (a) marking a circumlocution: <i>On the next picture... I don't really know what's it called in English... it's uh this kind of bird that... that can be found in a clock that strikes out or [laughs] comes out when the clock strikes;</i> (b) marking approximations: <i>it's some er... it's some kind of er... paper;</i> (c) marking foreignizing: <i>... a panel [with an English accent], I don't know whether there's a name in English or not [laughter] just it's a panel flat;</i> (d) marking literal translation: <i>it's er... a smaller medium flat and in, we call them blockhouse, but it's not it's not made of blocks;</i> (e) marking code switching: <i>the bird from the clocks come out and say "kakukkk" or I don't know what;</i> see also the example for message abandonment.	
24a. Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge.	<i>it's a kind of old clock so when it struck er... I don't know, one, two, or three 'clock then a bird is coming out. What's the name?</i>	T, F&K, W
24b. Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally.	<i>I don't know the name... [rising intonation, pause, eye contact]</i>	T, F&K, W
25. Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.	<i>Pardon? What?</i>	
26. Asking for clarification	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.	<i>What do you mean?, You saw what?</i> Also 'question repeats,' that is, echoing a word or a structure with a question intonation.	W
27. Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly.	Repeating the trigger in a 'question repeat' or asking a full question, such as <i>You said...?, You mean...?, Do you mean...?</i>	W
28. Guessing	Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.	E.g.: <i>Oh. It is then not the washing machine. Is it a sink?</i>	

Table 1 (continued)

*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T= Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)*

STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE	OTHER TAXONOMIES
29. <b>Expressing non-understanding</b>	Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.	Interlocutor: <i>What is the diameter of the pipe?</i> Speaker: <i>The diameter?</i> I: <i>The diameter.</i> S: <i>I don't know this thing.</i> I: <i>How wide is the pipe?</i> Also, puzzled facial expressions, frowns and various types of mime and gestures.	
30. <b>Interpretive summary</b>	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.	<i>So the pipe is broken, basically, and you don't know what to do with it, right?</i>	W
31. <b>Comprehension check</b>	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.	<i>And what is the diameter of the pipe? The diameter. Do you know what the diameter is?</i>	W
32. <b>Own-accuracy check</b>	Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.	<i>I can see a huge snow... snowman? snowman in the garden.</i>	
33a. <b>Response: repeat</b>	Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair).	See the example of other-repair.	
33b. <b>Response: repair</b>	Providing other-initiated self-repair.	Speaker: <i>The water was not able to get up and I...</i> Interlocutor: <i>Get up? Where?</i> S: <i>Get down.</i>	
33c. <b>Response: rephrase</b>	Rephrasing the trigger.	Interlocutor: <i>And do you happen to know if you have the rubber washer?</i> Speaker: <i>Pardon?</i> I: <i>The rubber washer... it's the thing which is in the pipe.</i>	
33d. <b>Response: expand</b>	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context.	Interlocutor: <i>Do you know maybe er what the diameter of the pipe is?</i> Speaker: <i>Pardon?</i> I: <i>Diameter, this is er maybe you learnt mathematics and you sign er with th this part of things.</i>	
33e. <b>Response: confirm</b>	Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.	Interlocutor: <i>Uh, you mean under the sink, the pipe? For the...</i> Speaker: <i>Yes. Yes.</i>	
33f. <b>Response: reject</b>	Rejecting what the interlocutor has said or suggested without offering an alternative solution.	Interlocutor: <i>Is it plastic?</i> Speaker: <i>No.</i>	

<sup>1</sup>Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) first discussed these three strategies; they are stop-gap devices whose use is motivated by the assumption that the over-determined, redundant nature of language normally allows the listener to guess the incomplete or missing word from the context, much as in a cloze or a C-test. For this reason, these strategies are not merely instances of message reduction or abandonment. Dörnyei and Scott found few unambiguous examples of these strategies in their corpus but, for example, mumbling is very common in languages with complex verb conjugation systems, where the speaker often swallows the conjugation suffix about which he/she is uncertain.

<sup>2</sup>Tarone and Yule (1987) first identified this strategy. They assumed that it was used with non-native listeners for whom the speaker wants to make the task easier. In Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) investigation, however, the listener's (that is, the interviewer's) L2 competence was superior to the speaker's; that such strategies were still used points to their more general applicability. As the retrospection extract demonstrates, self-repetition is related to over-explicitness, stemming from speakers' uncertainty about whether their L2 language use expresses their meaning closely enough.

<sup>3</sup>Tarone and Yule (1987) first identified this strategy as a CS but Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) also discussed the language phenomenon; Edmondson and House (1991) call it "waffling", defining it as "excessive use of linguistic forms to fill a specific discourse 'slot' or 'move'" (p. 273); they suggested that it is caused by speakers' insecurity about their L2 ability as well as by not having access to standardized routines or phrases.

<sup>4</sup>Fillers make up a broad category, including words and phrases used to fill pauses, cover for hesitations, gain time, and provide smooth transformation in breakdowns. Rohde (1985) talked about the function of such gambits as "safe islands" (pp. 48–49) onto which the speaker can jump when experiencing problems, which very aptly describes a core feature of fillers. On the other hand, fillers also fulfill a number of subtle discourse roles (see Edmondson & House, 1981; Færch & Kasper, 1984b), some of which are definitely not problem-oriented; hence, it is difficult to tell the strategic and non-strategic uses apart.

<sup>5</sup>Tarone and Yule (1987) pointed out that research has paid little attention to a very common interlanguage phenomenon, the frequent repetitions of words or whole structures and clauses. They argue that repetitions are CSs used for two purposes: (a) to stall, and (b) to provide the listener with another chance to hear and process the information. Chen (1990) emphasized the "communication maintenance" function of repetition in Chinese students' use of English: "Only one avoidance strategy was used by one low-proficiency learner. The learners would rather carry on the communication task by repeating what they had said than avoid the communication task" (p. 174).

Table 1 (continued)

*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions/Definitions, Examples (Based on Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b), and Indications Whether They Were Included in Any Other Taxonomies (T=Tarone, 1977; F&K=Færch & Kasper, 1983b; B=Bialystok, 1983; P=Paribakht, 1985; W=Willems, 1987; N=Nijmegen Group)*

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<sup>6</sup>Wong-Fillmore (1979) and Aston (1986) highlighted feigning understanding as an important communication maintenance strategy that allows the speaker to remain in the conversation regardless of a lack of understanding of what the other said.

<sup>7</sup>Discussing code switching, Harper (1985) distinguished two types, one where the speaker signals to the interlocutor that a CS is coming “as if to enclose the borrowed item in inverted commas” (p. 91), and another that “does not prepare the micro-context into which the borrowed item will be introduced” (p. 91). Similarly, Clark (1994) wrote about “editing terms” (e.g., “you know” and “I mean”, p. 249), which speakers use to prepare the interlocutor for a repair, and “hedges” (e.g., “kind of”, “sort of”, and “like”) they use to indicate that they are being less accurate and to “prevent interpreting certain words or phrases too precisely, too literally” (p. 250). This latter, broad conceptualization of “hedges” is analogous to Dörnyei and Scott’s (1995a, 1995b) conception of “strategy markers,” referring to any warning signals or “verbal inverted commas” whose function is to indicate to the interlocutor that a strategy is used (i.e., that a word/phrase does not carry the intended meaning perfectly), eliciting attentive cooperation and thereby helping to achieve shared meaning and integration of the less-than-perfect interlanguage structure into the L2.

Dörnyei, Z and Scott, M L 1997 Communication Strategies in a Second Language: Definitions and Taxonomies. *Language Learning*, 47 (1), 173-210.

## Appendix B Didactic Package (edited)

	<p>UNIVERSIDAD DE QUINTANA ROO</p> <p>DIVISIÓN DE CIENCIAS POLÍTICAS Y HUMANIDADES</p> <p>DEPARTAMENTO DE LENGUA Y EDUCACIÓN</p> <p>PAQUETE DE INGLÉS PARA NEGOCIOS</p> <p>PRIMAVERA 2014</p>
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**Clave del curso:** ACPSC-134

**Duración del curso:** 60 horas

**Horas por semana:** 4

**Créditos:** 6

### **JUSTIFICACIÓN**

Debido a la creciente necesidad del dominio de idiomas en el estado y en el ámbito internacional, la Universidad de Quintana Roo, por medio del Departamento de Lengua y Educación pretende vincular a los universitarios y a la comunidad en general a una cultura diferente a través del aprendizaje del idioma Inglés. De igual forma, busca contribuir a una formación profesional integral y ser una herramienta útil de inserción laboral en este mundo de globalización.

Lo anterior ayudará a fomentar en el estudiante valores, tales como la superación individual, el trabajo en equipos y grupal, eficiencia profesional, ética, respeto a la diversidad cultural y lingüística que cada uno logrará en este curso.

El curso de inglés para negocios busca establecer en el alumno habilidades que le permitan competir y desenvolverse de manera más eficiente en el campo profesional y laboral, ayudando de esta manera a la formación de seres humanos comprometidos con su propio progreso y del estado.

**OBJETIVO GENERAL** El alumno fortalecerá las habilidades lingüísticas del idioma inglés, así como habilidades sociales y profesionales que necesita para lograr los objetivos de su campo de estudio. Durante el curso el alumno desarrollará seguridad en sí mismo para enfrentarse y poder desenvolverse con éxito en diferentes situaciones laborales.

**METODOLOGÍA**

El curso de inglés para negocios está basado en un enfoque comunicativo por competencias, por lo que las actividades de aprendizaje están diseñadas para propiciar el desarrollo y reforzamiento de las habilidades lingüísticas de comunicación. Uno de los objetivos de este curso es lograr que el estudiante sea capaz de utilizar el idioma de una manera eficaz y aplique las habilidades y sub-habilidades del idioma en situaciones laborales. Para ello el profesor utilizará estrategias didácticas que activen el aprendizaje del idioma, así como el material adecuado para el desarrollo de las competencias lingüísticas y profesionales en los alumnos.

Durante las clases, el profesor contemplará técnicas de enseñanza que fomenten el trabajo colaborativo e individual del alumno. En el curso se trabajará por equipos para la preparación, investigación y exposición de temas relevantes a su práctica profesional.

Es importante mencionar que después de que los alumnos den su presentación, el profesor dará la retroalimentación necesaria para mejorar cada vez más dichos trabajos.

**PLANEACIÓN DEL CURSO**

UNIDADES	PROYECTOS
1. Making your way	Preparar un expediente de contratación.
2. Selling is what it's all about	Preparar un informe del consumidor.
3. Marketing the product	Preparar un reporte de oportunidad de franquicia.
4. Financial matters	Preparar un reporte acerca de servicios de crédito al por menor.

**EVALUACIÓN:**

El curso consta de 4 unidades y en cada unidad se elaborará un proyecto de investigación como consolidación. El alumno trabajará en equipo para llevar a cabo los proyectos. De este modo, el alumno demostrará sus habilidades lingüísticas y profesionales para la solución de tareas. La calificación será grupal, por lo tanto **TODOS** los integrantes deberán dar su mejor esfuerzo.

Durante la clase se trabajará con materiales que le darán al alumno las herramientas necesarias para que pueda enfrentarse a la elaboración de sus proyectos.

<b>Proyectos</b>	<b>60 %</b>
<b>Reportes</b>	<b><u>40%</u></b>
	<b>100 %</b>

El alumno deberá cumplir con un mínimo de asistencia del 80% al curso para poder tener derecho a presentar sus proyectos. Se dará un margen de 10 minutos de tolerancia para el ingreso al salón de clase, después de este tiempo se considerará como falta aunque el alumno pueda permanecer en el salón de clase.

**Nota:** En caso de no poder asistir a alguna de sus presentaciones ante grupo en la fecha establecida, el alumno deberá presentar una justificación válida, de otro modo su equipo no podrá presentar su proyecto en fecha posterior.

### **BIOGRAFÍA BÁSICA**

O'Brien J. (2007) *English for Business*. Thomson Heinle. United States.

### **Bibliografía Complementaria**

<http://www.englishclub.com/business-english/>

<http://www.rong-chang.com/business.htm>

<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/business/>

<http://www.ego4u.com/en/business-english/communication>

<http://e4u.english.org.mx/business/index.html>

<http://jobsearch.about.com/od/cvsamples/a/cvtemplate.htm>

**Paquete actualizado por:**

DELETED

Enero de 2014



## Appendix C Study Program (edited)

Curso: Inglés para negocios	Área: División de Desarrollo Sustentable	Clave: ACPSC-134
Horas: T= 4 Hrs. Teóricas P= 4 Hrs. Prácticas	THS= 8 Total de hrs/semana THC: Total de horas del curso: 64	C= 6 N°. créditos
Perfil del docente: NAME DELETED Licenciatura en Lengua Inglesa por la UQROO y con una carrera Técnica en Administración de Empresas Turísticas por el I.P.N. de la Cd. De México		
Experiencia profesional: 2005-2007 en la enseñanza del idioma inglés a nivel universitario. Experiencia previa en enseñanza particular para Inglés de negocios. 1995-Traductora para periódico en Kansas, Missouri, USA. 1986-2005 Experiencia en puestos gerenciales administrativos/operativos y de negocios en la Hotelería y Cruceros.		

### Justificación del curso:

Inglés para negocios es una asignatura de concentración profesional en la carrera: Licenciatura en Sistemas Comerciales. Inglés para negocios requiere de los conocimientos previos de los cursos de inglés de apoyo: Inglés Introductorio, Inglés Elemental, Inglés Básico, Inglés

Pre-Intermedio e Inglés Intermedio. Está enfocado a la utilización de las herramientas previamente adquiridas para ponerlas en práctica en el ambiente de los negocios. A lo largo del curso se continuará trabajando de forma integral en el desarrollo de las cuatro habilidades del idioma Inglés (la comprensión auditiva, la comprensión de lectura, la producción escrita y la producción oral) y se continuará fortaleciendo los aspectos de gramática, vocabulario y pronunciación, todo esto dentro de un contexto comunicativo y de negocios.

### Objetivo General:

Al finalizar el curso, el alumno adquirirá una competencia comunicativa a nivel de negocios, la cual le permitirá desenvolverse en situaciones del entorno de los negocios, y que habrá desarrollado de acuerdo con los temas y contenidos abordados en el curso. Aplicará los conocimientos y habilidades adquiridas en los cursos de inglés previos para resolver situaciones profesionales en el área de los negocios y el comercio internacional.

### Objetivos Específicos:

- El alumno: Continuará desarrollando las habilidades y sub-habilidades concernientes al aprendizaje del idioma inglés en un nivel intermedio.

Sub / Habilidad	Objetivos Específicos
<b>Gramática</b>	Practicará las oraciones gramáticamente correctas y las funciones de los tiempos gramaticales de tal manera que los empleará correctamente cuando se exprese en una conversación de negocios y aún en una negociación.
<b>Vocabulario</b>	Aprenderá y Desarrollará estrategias que le permitan la aplicación del vocabulario de negocios a diferentes situaciones de comunicación.
<b>Pronunciación</b>	Mejorará y practicará la pronunciación del idioma, así como la entonación de las palabras, frases, oraciones y preguntas, siempre en un ambiente de negocios.

<b>Comprensión de Lectura</b>	Continuará desarrollando la habilidad de comprensión de textos específicos de negocios y será capaz de contestar preguntas específicas, además de tener una idea general del texto, sin el uso constante del diccionario.
<b>Comprensión Auditiva</b>	Continuará fortaleciendo la habilidad auditiva al escuchar conversaciones, textos breves y diferentes documentos de audio, en los que reconocerá palabras, frases y oraciones que le permitirán una mejor comprensión para entablar una plática de negocios y estrategias para comprender los significados Inter.-culturales de un contexto de negocios en el idioma inglés.
<b>Producción Escrita</b>	Se pondrá énfasis en la elaboración de documentos comerciales. Desarrollará textos haciendo uso del vocabulario especializado aprendido en la clase así como el léxico dándole un enfoque y comunicativo cada vez más depurado.
<b>Producción Oral</b>	Será capaz de comprender, producir y expresar ideas en conversaciones de negocios relacionadas con los temas estudiados en clase. Tendrá la habilidad de hacer una presentación breve sobre algún tema específico de negocios.

- 
- se familiarizará con diversos aspectos de la cultura de habla inglesa de acuerdo con los contenidos del curso (lecturas, diálogos, etc.)

### Conocimientos y habilidades previos:

Para un mejor desarrollo de esta asignatura, se recomienda que el estudiante tenga ya la serie de asignaturas de apoyo del idioma Inglés y que cuente ya con un nivel de Inglés Intermedio.

### Contenido General:

<b>MODULOS</b>	<b>Temas / Subtemas</b>
MODULE 1	
Unit 1	Cross-cultural understanding 1 Welcoming visitors Small talk: conversational skills
Unit 2	Cross-cultural understanding 2 Inviting and accepting or declining Eating out
MODULE 2	
Unit 3	Preparing to make a telephone call Receiving calls Taking and leaving messages Asking for and living repetition The secretarial barrier
Unit 4	Cross-cultural communication on the telephone 1 Making arrangements Changing arrangements Ending a call
Unit 5	Corss-cultural communication on the telephone 2 Problem solving on the telephone Complaints
MODULE 3	

Unit 6	Presentation technique and preparation The audience Structure 1 The introduction.
Unit 7	Using visual aids: general principles Talking about the content of visual aids. Describing change.
Unit 8	Holding the audience's attention Structure 2 The main body Listing information Linking ideas sequencing
Unit 9	Structure 3 The end Summarising and concluding Questions and discussion
MODULE 4	
Unit 10	Making meetings effective What makes a good meeting? Chairing a meeting Establishing the purpose of a meeting
Unit 11	The structure of decision making Starting and asking for opinion Interrupting and handling interruptions
Unit 12	Asking for and giving clarification Delaying decisions Ending the meeting
MODULE 5	
Unit 13	Types of negotiation Preparation for a negotiation Making an opening statement
Unit 14	Bargaining and making concessions Accepting and confirming Summarising and looking ahead
Unit 15	Types of negotiator Dealing with conflict Rejecting Ending the negotiation

**Bibliografía:**

Sweeney, S, 2001, English for Business Communication, Student's book  
 Hollett, V & Duckworth, M, 1997, Business Opportunities (Workbook), Oxford University Press.

**Bibliografía complementaria:**

Materiales seleccionados y recomendados para el aprendizaje de cada una de las sub-habilidades y habilidades. Gran parte de él se localiza ya sea en el Centro de Auto-acceso o la biblioteca. Es importante que el estudiante utilice estos materiales de auto-estudio tomando en cuenta sus fortalezas y debilidades en cada una de las habilidades y sub-habilidades del idioma inglés.

### **Diccionarios**

- Burridge, Sh (ed.) 1991. **Oxford Basic English Dictionary**. Oxford. N.Y.
- Goldsmith, P. Pérez Alonso, M (Ed.) 1996. **Oxford Escolar para Estudiantes Mexicanos de Inglés**. Oxford. N.Y.
- Rosenthal, M. Freeman, D. 1988. **Photo Diccionario**. Longman. U.

### **Recursos para Escribir**

- Hedge, T. 1983. **Pen to Paper**. Nelson. Hong Kong.
- Segal, M. Pavlik, Ch. 1985. **A Writing Process Book**. McGraw Hill. U.S.A.

### **Recursos de Gramática**

- Blundell, J. 1989. **Practicing Grammar Workbook**. Nelson. Hong Kong.
- Seidi, J. 1981. **Grammar in Practice with Key**. Oxford. Honk. Kong.
- Naylor, H. Murphy, R. 1996. **Supplementary Grammar in Use**. CUP. UK
- Dixon, R. 1994. **Essential Idioms in English**. Prentice Hall. U.S.A.

### **Recursos de Video**

- Jones, L, 2000, New International Business English, Cambridge Professional English, CUP. UK

### **Internet Sites**

- <http://www.better-english.com/exerciselist.html>
- <http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/business/>
- [http://www.cambridgeesol.org/support/dloads/bec\\_downloads.htm](http://www.cambridgeesol.org/support/dloads/bec_downloads.htm)
- <http://www.business-english.com/>
- [http://iteslj.org/links/TESL/Business\\_English/](http://iteslj.org/links/TESL/Business_English/)
- <http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/>
- <http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/resume.html>
- <http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/applic.html>
- <http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/inquire.html>
- <http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/complnt.html>

## Appendix D 16-week Program (edited)

Asignatura [ Inglés para los negocios ]

Clave: [ \_ACP SC 134 ]

Docente: [ DELETED ]

Horario:

Lunes	Martes	Miércoles	Jueves	Viernes	Sábado
[00:00-00:00/Aula ]	[20:00-22:00/104 ]	[00:00-00:00/Aula ]	[00:00-00:00/Aula ]	[20:00-22:00/104 ]	[00:00-00:00/Aula ]

**Objetivo General de la Asignatura:** Al finalizar el curso, el alumno mostrará una competencia comunicativa a nivel de negocios, la cual le permitirá desenvolverse en situaciones del entorno de los negocios en el idioma inglés, que habrá desarrollado de acuerdo con los temas y contenidos abordados en el curso. Tendrá un conocimiento de la terminología básica en los negocios y aplicará los conocimientos y habilidades adquiridas en los cursos de inglés previos para resolver situaciones profesionales en el área de los negocios y el comercio internacional. ]

### Programación de 16 semanas

Semana	Temas	Estrategias de Aprendizaje	Bibliografía (solo número de referencia)
<b>1</b> (Enero 13 al 17 ) Periodo de altas y bajas académicas.  Del 15 de enero al 28 de febrero: periodo para solicitar Evaluaciones Especiales	[ Introducción al curso: Presentación del programa MODULO 1 DIVERSIDAD CULTURAL Y SOCIALIZACIÓN UNIDAD 1 CONSTRUYENDO UNA RELACION CULTURAL	[Entrega del programa y revisión del mismo. Toma de acuerdos. Identificar las diferentes perspectivas de las relaciones comerciales entre los diferentes países. Identificar las formas más cordiales de	[1 y 2 ]

	<p>Lección 1 Entendimiento multicultural (1)</p> <p>Lección 2 Dar la bienvenida a los visitantes</p> <p>Lección 3 Conversación: Mantener fluida la conversación ]</p>	<p>saludo al entablar una plática sobre negocios.</p> <p>Analizar cómo construir un diálogo sobre negocios.</p> <p>Generar una pequeña conversación entre los estudiantes sobre un tema de negocios. ] ]</p>	
<p><b>2</b> (Enero 20 al 24) Periodo de altas y bajas académicas</p>	<p>[UNIDAD 2 CULTURA Y ENTRETENIMIENTO</p> <p>Lección 1 Entendimiento multicultural (2)</p> <p>Lección 2 Invitando, y aceptando o declinando una invitación</p> <p>Lección 3 Comiendo fuera ]</p>	<p>[Analizar el impacto que tiene la cultura en el campo de los negocios.</p> <p>Reconocer y escribir una invitación, una aceptación y un rechazo de negocios.</p> <p>Generar y escribir un dialogo semi informal de negocios corto entre los estudiantes.</p> <p>Redactar una carta de negocios.</p> <p>Identificar las razones a tratar entre dos personas en una comida de negocios. ]</p>	<p>[1 y 2 ]</p>
<p><b>3</b> (Enero 27 al 31)</p>	<p>[MODULO 2 USANDO EL TELÉFONO</p> <p>UNIDAD 3 ¿TE PUEDO DEJAR UN MENSAJE?</p> <p>Lección 1 Preparar una llamada telefónica</p> <p>Lección 2 Recibir llamadas</p> <p>Lección 3 Tomando y dejando mensajes</p> <p>Lección 4 Pidiendo y dando repeticiones</p> <p>Lección 5 La barrera secretarial ]</p>	<p>[Analizar los diferentes objetivos y causas en una llamada de negocios.</p> <p>Identificar y escribir los diferentes problemas expuestos en mensajes telefónicos recibidos.</p> <p>Identificar al emisor y receptor del mensaje en una llamada telefónica de negocios.</p> <p>Identificar las palabras faltantes en un diálogo de negocios. ]</p>	<p>[1 y 2 ]</p>
<p><b>4</b> (Feb. 3 al 7) Lunes 3 de febrero suspensión de labores</p>	<p>[UNIDAD 4 ES UN GUSTO HABLAR CONTIGO OTRA VEZ</p> <p>Lección 1 Comunicación telefónica multicultural (1)</p> <p>Lección 2 Haciendo citas telefónicas</p> <p>Lección 3 Cambiando citas telefónicas</p>	<p>[Escuchar varios diálogos e identificar los problemas y las soluciones de estos.</p> <p>Escribir en una agenda para negocios las citas de negocios.</p> <p>Escribir un fax de negocios confirmando las citas.</p>	<p>[1 y 2 ]</p>

	Lección 4 Terminando una llamada telefónica <b>PRIMER EXAMEN PARCIAL MARTES 4 DE FEBRERO DE 2014</b>	Escuchar las formas correctas de terminar una llamada de negocios.	
<b>5</b> (Feb. 10 al 14)	UNIDAD 5 DESAFORTUNADAMENTE HAY UN PROBLEMA... Lección 1 Entendimiento cultural telefónico (1) Lección 2 Problema resuelto en el teléfono Lección 3 Quejas	Leer y discutir en clase el impacto cultural de la conversación en situaciones de negocios. Resolver problemas de negocios en el teléfono. Escribir un diálogo de negocios presentando la problemática y la solución. Escuchar y escribir un fax sobre una queja. Escuchar e identificar el problema de la queja. Escribir correctamente una conversación telefónica abordando una queja.	[ 1 y 2 ]
<b>6</b> (Feb. 17 al 21)	MODULO 3 PRESENTACIONES UNIDAD 6 PLANEANDO Y EMPEZANDO PRESENTACIONES Lección 1 Técnicas para presentar un plan de negocios Lección 2 ¿Cómo captar la atención de la audiencia? Lección 3 La estructura de la presentación (1): La introducción.	Preparar la estructura de la introducción de sobre la presentación de negocios. Planear el contenido y la forma en el cual el estudiante presentará la información. Considerar el tipo de audiencia que el estudiante tendrá al exponer la presentación de negocios. Considerar la extensión de su presentación de negocios. Escuchar y reconocer la introducción en una presentación de negocios.	[ 1 y 2 ]
<b>7</b> (Feb. 24 a 28)	UNIDAD 7 IMAGEN, IMPACTO Y CAUSAR UNA BUENA IMPRESIÓN EN NUESTRA PRESENTACIÓN  Lección 1 Usar visuales: principios generales	Usar correctamente los visuales en una presentación. Identificar las principales herramientas que se utilizan para la presentación de los visuales. Exponer el contenido de los visuales en la	[ 1 y 2 ]

	<p>Lección 2 Hablando sobre el contenido de las visuales</p> <p>Lección 3 Describiendo cambios de tendencia ]</p>	<p>presentación.</p> <p>Identificar los principales visuales en una presentación de negocios. ]</p>	
<p><b>8</b></p> <p>(Marzo 3 al 7)</p> <p><b>Demanda de cursos de Verano 2014</b></p>	<p>[UNIDAD 8 EN LA MITAD DE LA PRESENTACIÓN</p> <p>Lección 1 Mantener la atención de la audiencia</p> <p>Lección 2 La estructura de la presentación (2) el cuerpo principal de la información</p> <p>Lección 3 Enlistando información</p> <p>Lección 4 Conectando ideas</p> <p>Lección 5 Re- encuestando (Sequencing )</p>	<p>[Usar correctamente los visuales en una presentación.</p> <p>Identificar las principales herramientas que se utilizan para la presentación de los visuales.</p> <p>Exponer el contenido de los visuales en la presentación.</p> <p>Identificar los principales visuales en una presentación de negocios.</p> <p><b>SEGUNDO EXAMEN PARCIAL 7 DE MARZO DE 2014</b></p>	<p>[ 1 y 2 ]</p>
<p><b>9</b></p> <p>(Marzo 10 al 14)</p>	<p>[UNIDAD 9 EL FINAL ESTA CERCA... ESTE ES EL FINAL</p> <p>Lección 1 La estructura de la presentación(3) el final</p> <p>Lección 2 Resumiendo y concluyendo la presentación</p> <p>Lección 3 Ronda de preguntas y discusión ]</p>	<p>[Planear la finalización de la presentación de negocios.</p> <p>Aprender a resumir y concluir la presentación de negocios.</p> <p>Escribir un resumen y una conclusión de la presentación de negocios.</p> <p>Aprender a formular preguntas y a generar discusión.</p> <p>Formular preguntas de las presentaciones de negocios y debatirlos en clase.</p> <p>Escribir una presentación corta con introducción, desarrollo y conclusión de la presentación de negocios. ]</p>	<p>[ 1 y 2 ]</p>
<p><b>10</b></p> <p>(Marzo 17 al 21)</p> <p>Lunes 17 de marzo suspensión de labores</p>	<p>[MODULO 4 REUNIONES</p> <p>UNIDAD 10 HACIENDO EFECTIVAS LAS REUNIONES</p>	<p>[Identificar las características que hacen una buena presentación de negocios.</p> <p>Establecer el propósito de una reunión.</p> <p>Escribir agendas para reuniones de negocios.</p>	<p>[ 1 y 2 ]</p>

	<p>Lección 1 ¿Qué factores hacen que una reunión sea efectiva?</p> <p>Lección 2 Presidiendo una reunión</p> <p>Lección 3 Estableciendo el propósito de una reunión ]</p>	<p>Discutir los problemas marcados en las agendas con los estudiantes.</p> <p>] ]</p>	
<p><b>11</b> (Marzo 24 al 28)</p>	<p>[UNIDAD 11 PERDONE LA INTERRUPCION, PERO....</p> <p>Lección 1 La estructura en una toma de decisiones</p> <p>Lección 2 Verbalizando y pidiendo una opinión</p> <p>Lección 3 Interrumpiendo y manejando las interrupciones ]</p>	<p>[ Planear la estructura de una toma de decisiones.</p> <p>Verbalizar y manejar interrupciones dentro de una presentación de negocios.</p> <p>Identificar las partes de un memorándum.</p> <p>Escribir un memorándum.</p> <p>Identificar los tipos de interrupciones que pueden aparecerse en las presentaciones de negocios.</p> <p>Presentar un bosquejo sobre su presentación de negocios. ]</p>	<p>[1 y 2 ]</p>
<p><b>12</b> (Marzo 31 al 4 de Abril)</p>	<p>UNIDAD 12 QUE ES LO QUE QUIERES DECIR?</p> <p>Lección 1 Pedir y dar clarificaciones</p> <p>Lección 2 Retrasar decisiones</p> <p>Lección 3 Terminando la reunión</p>	<p>Aprender y aclarar dudas sobre las presentaciones de negocios.</p> <p>Identificar las palabras faltantes en un diálogo de negocios sobre clarificaciones.</p> <p>Identificar la final de la presentación de negocios.</p> <p>Aprender a aclarar dudas de las presentaciones de negocios.</p>	
<p><b>13</b> (Abril 7 al 11)</p>	<p>[MODULO 5 NEGOCIACIONES</p> <p>UNIDAD 13 TIPOS DE NEGOCIACION</p> <p>Lección 1 Tipos de negociación</p> <p>Lección 2 Preparar una negociación</p> <p>Lección 3 Haciendo una declaración de apertura (making an opening statement) ]</p>	<p>[Identificar los tipos de negociación.</p> <p>Planear la preparación de una negociación.</p> <p>Identificar los objetivos y metas de una negociación comercial.</p> <p>Escribir un diálogo que contenga una negociación y la alternativa de solución.</p> <p>Escuchar los diferentes tipos de negociación y escribir las palabras faltantes. ]</p>	<p>[1 y 2 ]</p>

(Abril 14 al 25 Abril )  
**Vacaciones Semana Santa**

<p><b>14</b>  (Abril 28 a Mayo 2)  <b>Jueves 1 de mayo</b>  <b>suspensión de labores</b>  Semana de aplicación de Evaluaciones Especiales, para estudiantes inscritos</p>	<p>[UNIDAD 14 LOGRANDO LO QUE PUEDas  Lección 1 Hacer convenios y concesiones  Lección 2 Aceptando y confirmando un requerimiento de negocios  Lección 3 Resumiendo y mirando hacia adelante ]</p>	<p>[Entender que en las negociaciones el realizar convenios es muy importante.  Escribir una negociación comercial.  Aceptar una negociación y confirmarla.  Escribir un escrito de negociación y confirmarla.  Resumir y mirar hacia el futuro.  Escuchar una grabación e identificar los puntos principales de la negociación.  Escribir una carta comercial. ]</p>	<p>[ 1 y 2 ]</p>
<p><b>15</b>  (Mayo 5 al 9)  <b>Lunes 5 de mayo suspensión de labores</b>  Registro de calificaciones de Evaluaciones Especiales</p>	<p>[UNIDAD 15 NO OBTENER LO QUE QUIERES  Lección 1 tipos de negociador  Lección 2 lidiar con conflictos  Lección 3 Manejar rechazos  Lección 4 Terminar la negociación</p>	<p>[Identificar los tipos de negociante comercial.  Aprender a lidiar con conflictos.  Aprender a rechazar un negocio.  Escribir una conversación para lidiar con conflictos.  Discutir en clase las mejores formas de reducir el conflicto en una negociación.  Aprender a rechazar una oportunidad de negocios en base a los beneficios que aporta.  Identificar el final de una negociación.  Escribir un diálogo con el final de una negociación comercial.</p>	<p>[ 1 y 2 ]</p>
<p><b>16</b>  (Mayo 12 al 16)  <b>16 de mayo fin de cursos Primavera 2014</b></p>		<p>[Revisión y retroalimentación de las presentaciones de los proyectos sobre negocios.  Los estudiantes deberán traer sus presentaciones en Powerpoint sobre el tema que abordarán para ser revisados y que tengan una retroalimentación por parte del</p>	<p>[ ]</p>

		profesor del curso. Las presentaciones sobre negocios tendrán una duración mínima de 15 minutos y serán evaluados por un profesor del área de idiomas. PRESENTACIÓN DE PROYECTOS VIERNES 9 DE MAYO DE 2014 MARTES 13 DE MAYO DE 2014 EXAMEN FINAL 6 DE MAYO DE 2014	
(19 de mayo al 23)	Reposición de Exámenes 1. Aplicación de exámenes Finales. 2. Periodo de registro de calificaciones en el Portal SAE por parte de los Profesores y entrega de impresión del registro en el área de Administración Escolar. .	26 de Mayo inicia ciclo de Verano 2012	

#### Políticas de clase/Procedimientos para evaluar el aprendizaje:

Además de presentar TODOS los exámenes parciales, es indispensable contar con al menos un 80% de cumplimiento en las siguientes actividades: Tareas extra clase, actividades de práctica y reforzamiento, portafolios (con tareas escritas, ejercicios, investigaciones y cuestionarios etc.)

#### Nota:

Se recomienda que el alumno trabaje por mantener un mínimo de 70% en cada una de las habilidades por examen parcial.

- El alumno deberá entregar las tareas requeridas, sin que sea necesario que el profesor las solicite.
- Se aceptarán tareas fuera de tiempo, sin embargo su puntaje será menor que aquel trabajo entregado a tiempo.

La asistencia al curso es de vital importancia. Si el alumno no puede asistir a sus clases deberá mantenerse informado de tareas y trabajos aun cuando avise con anticipación (faltas justificadas).

El portafolio o carpeta de aprendizaje del curso contendrá las muestras más significativas que tengan que ver con el desarrollo de las sub-habilidades y habilidades del inglés. El portafolios constituirá el medio para promover la reflexión en el aula acerca de los alcances individuales de los objetivos del curso (autoevaluación/ co-evaluación, en una retroalimentación constante con el profesor.

#### Criterios de evaluación:

Exámenes parciales 20%

Portafolio de tareas y participación en clase	25%
Presentación de negocios	30%
Examen departamental	25 %
TOTAL	100%

### Referencias Bibliográficas para el curso.

1. Sweeney Simon (2001) Communicating in Business. Cambridge University Press

### Referencias Bibliográficas complementarias o sugeridas.

2. Sweeney Simon (2000) English for Business Communication. Cambridge University Press.
3. Jones Leo & Richard Alexander (2002) New International Business English. Cambridge University Press.
4. Briegger Nick & Sweeney Simon (1997) Early Language of Business English. Prentice Hall
5. Norman Susan (1990) We`re in Business. Longman.
6. Barnard Roger and Jeff Cady (1992) Business Venture 1. Oxford University Press
7. White Graham and Susan Drake (1991) Business Initiatives. Longman
8. Littlejohn Andrew (1988) Company to Company Teacher`s book. Cambridge University Press
9. Business & Management (level one). Richmond Publishing
10. Business & Management (level two). Richmond Publishing

### Sitios de internet para practicar:

<http://www.better-english.com/exerciselist.html>  
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/business/>  
[http://www.cambridgeesol.org/support/dloads/bec\\_downloads.htm](http://www.cambridgeesol.org/support/dloads/bec_downloads.htm)  
<http://www.business-english.com/>  
[http://iteslj.org/links/TESL/Business\\_English/](http://iteslj.org/links/TESL/Business_English/)  
<http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/>  
<http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/resume.html>  
<http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/applic.html>  
<http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/inquire.html>  
<http://www.io.com/~hcexres/textbook/complnt.html>

## Appendix E Example of recording map

Textbook: English for Business by Josephine O'Brien Thomson Heile 2007										Unit 2		
Sub-skills conventions:		(Grm) = Grammar (Pron) = Pronunciation (Voc) = Vocabulary	Audio Group A: E W3-We A2-29.01.14 / W5-Mo A1-10.02.14 and W5-Mo A2-10.02.14 / E W5-We A2-12.02.14 / W6-Mo A2-17.02.14 and W6-Mo A1-17.02.14 / W6-We A1-19.02.14 Audio Group B: W6-Ma B2-18.02.14 / E W6-Th B2-20.02.14 /									
Lesson	Page	Task	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Sub-skill	Group A Audiofile	Group A Time length	Group B Audiofile	Group B Time length	Notes about tasks
1 Lesson 1 title is 'Have you got what it takes?'. Tasks a-f introduces some characteristics about a suitable personality for a job and personality. Task d-e with a grammar and vocabulary orientation, together with tasks g-h. Tasks I was dedicated for writing about what makes a good salesperson.	16	a				discuss		TskA-U2L1 W3-A	00h48m46s-00h51m33s	TskA-U2L1 W5-B	00h14m19s-00h38m05s	discuss in pairs or small groups. / <b>Group A</b> Before starting with Task a, they did a free discussion ExtraTsk9-U2L1 W3-A (length: 00h44m02s-00h48m46s). / <b>Group B</b> had an (11.02.14 W5-B (length: 00h00m00s-00h03m21s) and an OutLSTalk30-11.02.14 W5-B (length: 00h03m22s-00h14m21s) before doing Task a.
		b			make a list and	compare	skipped as written task	ExtraTsk9-U2L1 W3-A (length: 00h44m02s-00h48m46s)	skipped			make a list and compare your ideas / <b>Group A</b> did this activity as the Extra Task 9 before transformed this written task into an oral task.
	17	c	read			compare & discuss		TskC-U2L1 W3-A	00h51m33s-00h59m14s	TskC-U2L1 W5-B	00h38m34s-00h46m40s	read and evaluate yourself
		d	read and			find examples		skipped		TskD-U2L1 W5-B	00h46m46s-00h52m12s	examples from the text in task c
		e				make sentences	(voc)	skipped		TskE-U2L1 W5-B (part1)	00h52m19s-00h58m59s (part 1)	make sentences by using chunks in task d / <b>Group B</b> Task c was done in two parts, one in 11.02.14 and the second in 13.02.14, but the class of 13.02.14 is not going to be reported here because TB asked me to delete that class.
	<b>UNIT 2</b>											
	17	f		listen to				TskF-U2L1 W3-A	00h59m14s-01h02m54s	deleted		listen and order a list
		g			rewrite			TskG-U2L1 W3-A	01h02m55s-01h17m02s	deleted		rewrite sentences in a more formal way
		h					find phrasal verbs meaning		TskH-U2L1 W3-A	01h17m04s-01h24m48s	deleted	find verbs with the same meaning of a phrasal verb
		i				write		Skipped		deleted		write a short description
2	18	a				discuss		TskA-U2L2 W3-A	01h24m53s-01h35m57s	deleted		discuss some questions / <b>Group A</b> After Task a, the class was over but TA did mark homework CC-29.01.14 W3-A (length: 01h35m57s-01h37m04s)



## Appendix F Examples of classroom interaction transcriptions

### Transcription Tsk1(1)-U3L7 W9-C1

T-TC, S1-ED, S2-FA, S3-RU, S4-ER, S5-ML, S6-TN, S7-MV, S8-KI, S9-OL, S10-GE, S11-NO, S12-GL, S13-MM

SX – unknown/unrecognizable student’s voice

SS – simultaneous talk

<beg Tsk1(1)-U3L7 W9-C1\_00:00>

- 1 T all right guys let’s see um: page um fifty-one unit seven
- 2 S1 yes
- 3 T all right when we are- when we are doing our- our  
4 presentation it’s very important to: it’s very important to  
5 have our visual aids all right. what’s (our) visual aids. what  
6 do you understand about them.
- 7 S1 graphics
- 8 T graphics. all right could be graphics (.) for example this is a  
9 visual aid that’s a visual aid all right can you give me um a  
10 definition? {cleaning and writing on the whiteboard} (10)  
11 can you give a definition of visual aids? what are visual  
12 aids.
- 13 S1 <low> (xxx) (you need) </low> for show information
- 14 T all right
- 15 S1 =with the: people

- 16 T ok for example (4)
- 17 S1 about (xxx) presentation
- 18 T ok about (our) presentation all right (1) but it's not- it's not  
19 the- the presentation it's a tool ok it's a tool that's a visual  
20 aid ok can you give um a definition about it? (7)
- 21 S4 this relates (.) um (because) the /e'kɪpmənt/?
- 22 T the /i'kwɪpmənt/ ok
- 23 S4 for see (2) presentation
- 24 T uhu
- 25 S4 um (.) supports
- 26 T uhu
- 27 S4 your (visual) presentation <@> h </@>
- 28 T ok kind of all right kind of all right? *student 11* what do you  
29 think about it.
- 30 S11 mmm (30) speak um um: speak for specific?
- 31 T uhu
- 32 S11 um: (6) for (much) information
- 33 T uhu
- 34 S11 um:: (22)
- 35 T *student 1* (.) what do you think.
- 36 S1 um (xxx)
- 37 T for example in your presentation what visual aids you're  
38 going to use.

39 S1 um with the:: presentation are the: (3) the: (4) (xxx) (3)  
 40 <Sp> como se dice el el (3) el escenario ese como se llama?  
 41 </Sp> @@  
 42 S11 <Sp> auditorio </Sp>  
 43 T =auditorium ok  
 44 S1 how do you say audi-  
 45 T auditorium  
 46 S1 um (with) the presentations are in the auditorium (<Sp> y  
 47 </Sp>) and the (xxx)  
 48 T all right ok  
 49 S1 in the auditorium  
 50 T ok (2) all right all right guys turn your pages at page fifty-  
 51 two  
 < end Tsk1(1)-U3L7 W9-C1\_05:00>

NOTE: And, S12 is myself playing the role as a student.

### Preliminary notes:

Communication breakdowns:

Lines 23-24 Teacher's correction of pronunciation.

Lines 30-36 Long periods of silence; I think this student does not know English.

Lines 41-48 A student had a problem with the word 'auditorium'.



**Transcription TskA-U2L3 W6-B**

T-TB, S1-JA, S2-PO, S3-JO, S4-AS, S5-MA, S6-AV, S7-LI, S8-AL, S9-RA, S10-DA,  
S11-MR, S12-LU (N/A), S13-MM

SS - several or all students

SX - unknown/unrecognizable student's voice

<start TskA-U2L3 W6-B\_0:00>

- 1 T ok next page and we go <Sp> vamos a hacer  
2 el primer ejercicio um quizá leemos un poquito y  
3 nos vamos </Sp> it says <reading> discuss  
4 discuss the questions in pairs or small groups  
5 sales have increased by 20% </reading> <Sp>  
6 orale aqui ya vamos a hablar de incrementos  
7 </Sp>
- 8 SX <yaws>
- 9 T first of all look at this <Sp> los que estudian  
10 finanzas </Sp> the ones who study finances and  
11 studies um commercial systems you might be  
12 very familiar which is kind of diagrams and um  
13 <low> (xxx) </low> yes or no. (1) what kind of  
14 diagrams can you find. only these kind of  
15 diagrams? bars diagrams? <coughs> um? (1)  
16 there are different types of um charts or  
17 diagrams this time is l:: like bar charts no? bar  
18 charts do you know another one um *student 1*  
19 please [<coughs>]
- 20 S1 [pie charts]
- 21 T which one?
- 22 S1 PIE charts
- 23 T =PIE charts yeah for example-

- 24 S1 line charts
- 25 T -like this no? {drawing on the board} <ono>  
 26 /bru:m/ </ono> and we have um something like  
 27 this it's like um [60%]
- 28 S2 [like a pie]
- 29 T then 20% and 20% more (3) no? something like  
 30 that yeah these are pie charts and we also have  
 31 LINE graphs {drawing on the board} <ono>  
 32 /bru:m/ [/bru:m/ /bru:m/ </ono>]
- 33 S1 [histogram]
- 34 T and we have something like this uhu uhu yeah  
 35 something like that and this is a um bar- bar  
 36 chart <Sp> bueno pues aqui tenemos uno de  
 37 barras </Sp> yeah it says <reading> sale of  
 38 organic products (.) sale of organic products  
 39 </reading> (.) and we have on one side we have  
 40 um (.) figures zero five hundred one thousand  
 41 fifteen hundred twenty hundred and [twenty five]
- 42 S4 [twenty five]
- 43 T yes or no. and on the line i mean on the  
 44 horizontal line we have years of production 1995  
 45 19 um 96 97 etcetera til 2005 that's the (way) i  
 46 mean this is (xxx) of the sale of organic products  
 47 since 1995 to 2005 sales of organic product in  
 48 MILLION no millions million in million yeah wow  
 49 this is interesting no? have you ever- have you  
 50 ever bought these organic product- products in  
 51 the supermarket? they're expensive no? what do  
 52 you think. have you ever tried them? (.) i've tried  
 53 once but they are expensive you know i tried  
 54 eggs but i didn't like them
- 55 S4 @@@

56 T you know why? only two THREE out of twelve  
 57 were fine the other were <Sp> podridos </Sp>  
 58 awful <ono> /brr/ </ono> and i paid like the  
 59 triple price of a regular (cart) and i did it because  
 60 (there) was empty i mean they didn't have any  
 61 other option there was only organic and i didn't  
 62 like it have you ever tried any product- or  
 63 products. what is the different between organic  
 64 produced. people in <Sp> finanzas </Sp>  
 65 organic (5) produced and organic product is it  
 66 the same?

67 S4 no

68 T no what is the difference. before we go to that  
 69 chart before we go to talk about information  
 70 what is organic produced and organic product.  
 71 what's a product. because the book has [both]

72 S9 [maybe] various products are produced

73 T excellent excellent maybe not industrial-  
 74 industrial way no? more factory more you know  
 75 places where they produce them and what about  
 76 the organic products. (7) when we have those  
 77 beautiful <Sp> gallinitas de patio </Sp>

78 S4 @@@

79 T and there's a rooster and they do <ono> /tj aka  
 80 tj aka kλ tj i kλ tj i/ </ono> and they have eggs  
 81 so are the ones <@> made </@> naturally i mean  
 82 in the country in a farm for example and they  
 83 don't use any machinery it's just- those are the  
 84 best ones no? <Sp> los huevos de patio </Sp>  
 85 beautiful yeah ok SO the ones we eat *egg brand*  
 86 *1* and what is the other one? *egg brand 2* @@  
 87 *egg brand 2* is better than *egg brand 1* are  
 88 terrible <Sp> no puedes ver como *egg brand 1*

- 89 </Sp> yeah you just break the: you know um and  
 90 <ono> /brr/ </ono> [the yolk is-]
- 91 S4 also sometimes [it has] /blu blud/  
 92 T um?
- 93 S4 /blud/  
 94 S1 /blʌ d/  
 95 S4 /blʌ d/ [sometimes <Sp> uacala </Sp>]
- 96 T uhu [yeah sometimes there's a lot] of this  
 97 kind of disgusting jesus christ OK
- 98 T so let's talk about this first and then we can talk  
 99 about that later it says <reading> discuss the  
 100 questions in pairs or small groups how often do  
 101 you work with information presented </reading>  
 102 in this kind of you know charts in form of bar  
 103 charts for example or pie charts. how often. once  
 104 a week? people studying- remember this book  
 105 was planned for people who really really study  
 106 finance and um um (1) commercial systems or  
 107 um BUSINESS in general that they want to learn  
 108 english basic english not advanced english int-  
 109 pre-intermediate so in you classes i'm asking you  
 110 people studying this here at *university 1* do you  
 111 use it everyday?
- 112 S6 m::
- 113 T *student 10* do you use this-
- 114 S10 yes
- 115 T -charts everyday?
- 116 S10 yes

17 T do you think only you guys studying business  
 18 can face or can use these kinds of presentations  
 19 these kinds of charts? NO everybody everybody  
 20 can do it even people in <Sp> lengua inglesa  
 21 </Sp> we can use that if we have a presentation  
 22 and we can use these kinds of charts and when  
 23 we present our thesis or our studies you know  
 24 our research in order to um get a degree you  
 25 have to present something no? you have to bring  
 26 a paper saying explaining so you can have this  
 27 kind of chart SO how often? maybe once or twice  
 28 no? a month or maybe everyday like you guys  
 29 maybe once a week or two times a week in our  
 30 case probably one or twice in a year but

31 T we do <reading> what sort of information is  
 32 typically presented </reading> in these kinds of  
 33 charts.

34 S4 m::

35 T what do you think. what sort of information.

36 S10 maybe <low> (economics) </low>

37 T uhu and we talk about economics we talk about

38 S10 economy

39 T =economy and we talk about maybe like in this  
 40 one

41 S4 money

42 T =money AND (2) numbers

43 S10 [years]

44 T [amount] different amounts no. or behaviours  
 45 no? the different behaviour in the market or in  
 46 students or anything you wanna um show (or so)

147 but in this case look at this what is this. what  
148 sort of information is this. (.) is this um talking  
149 about behaviour? probably yeah behaviour of  
150 who. whose behaviour is this. (2) the sales  
151 people?

152 S4 the [customer]

153 SX [the custo]mers

154 T yes maybe maybe or maybe the producers  
155 maybe or both of them we only have this million  
156 and the year

<end TskA-U2L3 W6-B\_08:54>

\*NOTE: S12 is a student that did not sign the participation sheet; therefore, I will not be able to use her turns in the research. And, S13 is myself playing the role as a student

**Preliminary notes:**

Communication breakdowns: Lines 75-79 A student had trouble pronouncing the word 'blood'

**Transcription TskA-U2L5 W6-A1**

T-TA, S1-BE, S2-AD, S3-VI, S4-MO, S5-NA, S6-CA, S7-YA, S8-AN, S9-MM

SX - unrecognised student's voice

&lt;beg TskA-U2L5 W6-A1\_00:00&gt;

- 1 T ok there are more questions about complaining so do this part in  
 2 groups- it says- or (.) we can do it that all as a whole class  
 3 <reading> what kinds of products or services do people often  
 4 complaint about </reading> think about it
- 5 S7 which page?
- 6 T um twenty four um <reading> what kind of products or services do  
 7 people often complain about. </reading>
- 8 S7 laptops
- 9 T laptops what else?
- 10 S9 *enterprise 1* @@@
- 11 T *enterprise 1* ok about the service
- 12 S9 i have heard a lot of them
- 13 S2 (xxx)
- 14 S7 maybe maybe food sometimes food
- 15 T ok
- 16 S1 <Sp> como? </Sp> web?
- 17 S7 food
- 18 T yeah sometimes (xxx) they cause struggle what else can you think  
 19 of. (3)

- 20 S7 a lot of people complain about the service in the medical field  
 21 because the people are like <ono> /ʌrggrgr/ </ono> in [the-]  
 22 T [especially] [health] service 1 and health service 2 [ok]  
 23 S7 [yes] [yes]  
 24 T (xxx) health service 1 and health service 2  
 25 S2 [(xxx)]  
 26 T [@@@] ok <reading> have you ever made a complaint about a  
 27 product or service. </reading> ok we've done that part <reading>  
 28 have you ever wanted to complain- wanted to make a complaint  
 29 but you did not.  
 30 S1 [=yes]  
 31 S2 [=yes]  
 32 T why. </reading  
 33 S1 =yes because sometimes they treat you well but they cannot  
 34 [(xxx)] decide you're so- you don't want to because  
 35 T [yeah]  
 36 S1 sometimes they treat you well but sometimes (don't)  
 37 S2 =sometimes you <low> might think it's a waste of time </low>  
 38 you're assuming um so maybe they are gonna pay them or DON'T  
 39 so (xxx)  
 40 T uhu  
 41 S2 (xxx) just it's a waste of time (xxx)  
 42 T {the teacher was requested at the door – she left the class for a  
 43 minute}  
 44 SS {simultaneous talk among students}  
 45 T ok ok you were saying that sometimes it's a waste of time

- 46 S2 yeah sometimes you- it's a waste of time you send your um the  
 47 (xxx) to complaint and then you come back and it's the same issue  
 48 occur
- 49 T yeah it has happened
- 50 S2 (xxx) and (xxx)
- 51 SS {parallel talking}
- 52 T um *student 6*
- 53 S6 um maybe um because-
- 54 T have you been in that situation that you have (complain).
- 55 S6 yeah depends (xxx) at that time last time i did um complaint about  
 56 it's a problem which cannot be um; avoided um so maybe it would  
 57 take so a lot of time to (arrive) just because (xxx) when there is a  
 58 big promotion and i (xxx) fine if we're not to complain does need-  
 59 will not be useful because it will not be faster if you just complaint  
 60 it just be the same
- 61 T how about you *student 7*
- 62 S7 um i remember one time a long ago when we ordered a pizza and  
 63 it's supposed to arrive before thirty minutes and it lasts like an  
 64 hour and we were ready to call them and say- it's going to be free
- 65 T uhu
- 66 S7 but the the guy was just like <imitating> no miss because they're  
 67 gonna charge it to my account </imitating> and us like <ono> /grr  
 68 grr grr/ <ono> and he was <imitating> please please i just had a  
 69 little- </ono> i don't know he said that it was raining so he couldn't  
 70 make it in time and he was like <imitating> please please please  
 71 it's still warm and everything </imitating> and us um ok
- 72 T *student 3*
- 73 S3 i don't remember

74 T ok

75 S2 she always buy good things (xxx)

76 S3 um?

77 S2 you always buy good things

<end TskA-U2L5 W6-A1\_05:08>

**Preliminary notes:**

Communication breakdowns:

Lines 14-17 A student did not hear well the other student.

Lines 76-78 A student did not hear what other student said

### Transcription Tsk1(3)-U3L7 W9-C1

T-TC, S1-ED, S2-FA, S3-RU, S4-ER, S5-ML, S6-TN, S7-MV, S8-KI, S9-OL, S10-GE, S11-NO, S12-GL, S13-MM

SX – unknown/unrecognizable student's voice

SS – simultaneous talk

<beg Tsk1(3)-U3L7 W9-C1\_00:00>

- 1 T ok look- look those um those drawings there ok. look  
 2 those drawings there and think about for a couple of  
 3 minutes all right. <reading> how visual information is  
 4 being presented in these pictures </reading> all right? (2)  
 5 [and-]
- 6 S1 [what] is being.
- 7 T uh?
- 8 S1 being
- 9 T being ok IS being what tense is it. (3) <Sp> que tiempo es.  
 10 </Sp> (7)
- 11 S1 <Sp> es future? <Sp> (4) ok (3)
- 12 T it's continuous no?
- 13 S1 ah ok
- 14 T ok it's past continuous. present continuous. (5)
- 15 S1 present
- 16 T present continuous because we have is right? ok
- 17 T present continuous ok you're going to think about for  
 18 couple of minutes ok? and you're going to tell me  
 19 <reading> how visual information is being presented in

- 20 these pictures </reading> ok? <reading> how visual  
 21 information is being presented in these pictures  
 22 </reading> ok? <reading> then produce five key  
 23 recommendations for how to use visual supports in a  
 24 presentation </reading> all right? (4) is it clear?
- 25 S1 so so
- 26 T @@ ok all right in spanish
- 27 S1 we are talking [about-]
- 28 T [in spanish] ok in spanish
- 29 S1 <Sp> a ver </Sp>
- 30 T <Sp> me van a- me van a este les voy a dar un par de  
 31 minutos para que piensen </Sp>
- 32 S1 uh::
- 33 T como la informacion este aqui ok. como la información  
 34 esta siendo presentada ok? (2) me van a dar cinco um  
 35 recomendaciones claves de como se pueden usar los  
 36 soportes visuales en cada una de estas presentaciones  
 37 </Sp>
- 38 S1 <Sp> cinco por cada una? </Sp>
- 39 T <Sp> cinco yo te puedo- yo te puedo este preguntar por  
 40 cualquiera de ellas </Sp> all right?
- 41 SS {individual work – 2 minutes} 2'52" – 4'53"
- 42 T ready guys? (9) ok *student 4* what can you tell me about  
 43 this picture.
- 44 S4 um::
- 45 T <Sp> que me puedes decir de este (.) de este dibujo </Sp>
- 46 S4 um in this picture

- 47 T uhu speak up please
- 48 S4 it's using the whiteboard
- 49 T uhu
- 50 S4 but i think the (2) the /pincels/? are- [are bad]
- 51 T [what?]
- 52 S4 the /pincels/ @@@ <Sp> o los plumones </Sp> @@@ are  
53 bad or are- are fading
- 54 T ok so what could you do what could you do in order to fix  
55 this problem
- 56 S4 this problem. um: um: (1) use @@@ use the colors more  
57 more intense like black or (3) blue
- 58 T ok
- 59 S4 um: maybe change the presentation @@
- 60 T ok all right
- 61 S4 [in the-] [in the] slides
- 62 T [ok] [all right] ok so what does- what does she can  
63 do. what does she can do. what does she can do. (5)
- 64 S4 um she can write
- 65 T she can write
- 66 S4 she can speak
- 67 T ok she can-
- 68 S4 [that's all @@@]
- 69 T [the the the] the problem here is is writing no?
- 70 S4 yes

- 71 T ok so what does she can do? what do you think. ok you  
 72 have already you've already told me that she ne- she  
 73 needs to write (2)
- 74 S4 um: (1) she needs write only the information she needs
- 75 T make it simpler
- 76 S4 write the correct information
- 77 T ok (1) she needs to write clearly
- 78 S4 yes
- 79 T and that's it that's it guys
- 80 S4 @@@
- 81 T she needs to- she needs to write [clearly] ok?
- 82 S4 [clearly]
- 83 T <Sp> a ver <Sp> *student 1* this one (7)
- 84 S1 um he:: he used a slide projector.
- 85 T ok what's the problem there.
- 86 S1 he are staying in the-
- 87 T he's stan- he is standing stand- [standing]
- 88 S1 [standing] [standing]
- 89 T [<Sp> es estar] de pie </Sp> [standing]
- 90 S1 [in the-] in the front of the light of  
 91 the projector and the information um are in her body his  
 92 body
- 93 T in his body

- 94 S1 =his body and um it's um::: isn't clearly? the information  
 95 are (5) um::: (2) how do you say <Sp> retroc- um  
 96 distorsionado. </Sp>
- 97 T make it simpler guys the the presentation is not clear
- 98 S1 ok
- 99 T <@> ok </@>
- 00 S1 yes (3) it's the problem
- 01 T (xxx) ok very good *student 11* (4) this one what can you tell  
 02 me.
- 03 S11 um (6) (xxx) (5)
- 04 T uh? (12) what's the problem there. <Sp> cual es el  
 05 problema </Sp>
- 06 S11 um the distance.
- 07 T ok the distance ok
- 08 S11 um the information
- 09 T the information (no) the presentation [no?]
- 10 S11 [the] presentation um: (17)
- 11 T what's wrong with the presentation.
- 12 S4 <Sp> parece que el estilo </Sp>
- 13 T um?
- 14 S4 <Sp> el estilo (xxx) </Sp>
- 15 T it's- it's not- it's clear? <Sp> es claro? </Sp> (4) but no  
 16 that's not the problem (12) the presentation is (16) the  
 17 presentation is too far from the audience ok?
- 18 S4 <low> far from [the audience] <low>

119 T [ok the] presentation is too far from the  
 120 audience ok? (1) all right *student 13* what can you tell me  
 121 about this one.

122 S13 um this one i don't <@> know </@> um the graphs are so-  
 123 too difficult to understand

124 T right that's it that's it guys

< end Tsk1(3)-U3L7 W9-C1\_12:19 >

NOTE: And, S13 is myself playing the role as a student. The teacher addressed me as *teacher* from time to time, but I will maintain my identity as student 13 along the transcription.

#### **Preliminary notes:**

Communication breakdowns:

Lines 7-17 A student did not understand what 'being' is.

Lines 20-38 The teacher explains the instruction in Spanish.

Lines 34-41 Possible misunderstanding of the instruction (even in Spanish).

Lines 52-54 A student borrowed a word from Spanish 'pencil' to say marker.

Lines 77-86 Teacher's indication to speak simpler.

Lines 89-103 Teacher's correction of an expression; and student problems with the word 'distorsionado' (distort).

Lines 113-116 Teacher's correction; another make it simpler.

Lines 117-120 The teacher did not hear well.

## Appendix G Interview guide for students

### ***Generalities***

Intro – general description of the research

Participant's specifics (general data): age, sex, place of birth, language(s), etc.

### ***About English, expectancies and workplace***

How important is English for you now and in the future? Why?

When was the last time you communicate in English? Whom with? In which situation? (e.g. for work) Where?

Who do you think you will interact more in English with when you start working?

Do you think you will talk with people internationally? Why?

How often do you think you will be using English at work? Why? Who will be the persons you will be interacting with?

What do you think about grammar? Do you think it is necessary to be able to communicate?

### ***About the material for the module***

What is your opinion regarding the textbook for this module? Can you give me your general impressions about it?

Do you think it fits with the aim/objective(s) of the module? In which way(s)?

Do you think it fits with what you will be doing in the future when working? In which way (s)?

Would you recommend another textbook or classroom materials? Which one(s)? Why?

From your own point of view as a ***language user***, how does this material (textbook) will help students to communicate in the future?

***About communication***

When speaking in English if a person does not understand you, what do you do?

Possible answers: repeat slowly, rephrase or say the same thing using other words, try to say it in other language, use body language, etc.

And what would you do if a person misunderstands something you have said? Would you correct him/her? How? Why?

If you notice that the person you are talking with does not have fluent English, how do you communicate with him/her. What do you do in order to talk to him/her? What is your reaction/behavior when speaking with him/her?

What would you recommend (spoken tips) to improve communication? Especially if you are speaking in English with people from different countries whose first language is not English.

***About your pragmatic strategies in the classroom***

Now, I will play to you a little bit of your interaction in class.

Do you remember that exercise where you had to discuss about... (*specific activity*) Listen to it and tell me more about it please.

*Listen to the recording extract 1 (code-switching)*

Could you tell why did you do that? Why did you use Spanish instead of English?

Do you think that to alternate languages might help for communication? In which way?

In this case, you did code-switching/code-mixing in the classroom. Would you use it in when interacting in your workplace in the future? (In a meeting, for instance) Why?

---

Now, let's listen to another bit of interaction. This was when ... (*specific activity*)

*Listen to the recording extract 1 (repetition/rephrasing)*

Do you remember that exercise where ... (*specific activity*) Tell me more about it please.

Could you tell why did you do that? Why did you use repeat/rephrase that word/phrase?

Do you think that repeating/rephrasing something in a conversation can help for communication? In which way?

In this case, you did repetition/rephrasing in the classroom. Would you use it in when interacting in your workplace in the future? Why?

---

Now, let's listen to another bit of interaction. This was when ... (*specific activity*)

*Listen to the recording extract 1 (self- Or other- /repair)*

Do you remember that exercise where ... (*specific activity*). Tell me more about it please.

Could you tell why did you do that? Why did you use self-repair or other-repair that word/phrase?

Do you think that repairing something in a conversation can help for communication? In which way?

In this case, you did repair in the classroom. Would you use it in when interacting in your workplace in the future? Why?

**Thank you**



## Appendix H Interview guide for teachers

### *Generalities*

Intro – general description of the research

Participant's specifics (general data): age, sex, place of birth, language(s), etc.

### *Language background*

#### English in your past

How did you learn English? How is that you know the language?

Do you have a specific career or certification? Which one?

And, while you were studying English, did you have the opportunity to talk with other people in that language? Whom with? In which situation(s)?

And, what about when you left school and start working. How did you use English in your work? Whom did you talk to?

#### English in your present

And now, what represents English for you today? Do you think it is important to communicate in English nowadays?

What do you mean/understand by English as an international language? What international means to you?

Do you consider this city (Chetumal/Cozumel) is a setting where it is likely to use English? Why?

What is your impression about the linguistic environment in Quintana Roo? Is it a region where English can be used for communication? Why?

### *About English, expectancies and workplace (Teacher's perspectives)*

How important do you think English is for your students now and in the future? Why?

Who do you think your students will be interacting with in English in the future? Do you think they will talk with people *internationally*? Why?

What kind of English do you think they will be using? Therefore, what kind of English would be appropriate for students to learn? Why?

How often do you think that your students will be using English *when working*? Why? Who will be the persons they will be interacting with?

Could you give me an example of a job where students can use the English that are learning in the English for Business module?

***About the material for the module***

What is your teacher's opinion regarding the textbook for this module? Can you give me your general impressions about it?

Do you think it fits with the aim/objective(s) of the module? In which way(s)?

Do you think it fits with the need students may have when working?

Would you recommend another textbook or classroom materials? Which one(s)? Why?

From your own point of view as a language user, how does this material (textbook) will help students to communicate in the future?

***About communication (both perspectives: as a teacher and as a language user)***

What do you think about grammar? Do you think it is necessary to be able to communicate?

When speaking in English if a person does not understand you, what do you do?

Possible answers: repeat slowly, rephrase or say the same thing using other words, try to say it in other language, use body language, etc.

And what would you do if a person misunderstands something you have said? Would you correct him/her? How? Why?

If you notice that the person you are talking with does not have fluent English, how do you communicate with him/her. What do you do in order to talk to him/her? What is your reaction/behavior when speaking with him/her?

What would you recommend (spoken tips) to improve communication?

***About your pragmatic strategies in the classroom***

Now, I will play to you a little bit of your interaction in class. Do you remember that exercise where students had to discuss about... (*specific activity*)? Well, after listening to it, tell me more about it...

*Listen to the recording extract 1 (code-switching)*

Could you tell why did you do that? Why did you use Spanish instead of English?

Do you think that to alternate languages might help for communication? In which way?

In this case, you did code-switching/code-mixing in the classroom. Would you use it when interacting in a different setting? (in a meeting with friends, for instance) Why?

---

Now, let's listen to another bit of interaction. This was when ... (*specific activity*)

*Listen to the recording extract 1 (repetition/rephrasing)*

Can you tell me more about it? Let's listen to it again.

Could you tell why did you do that? Why did you use repeat/rephrase that word/phrase?

Do you think that repeating/rephrasing something in a conversation can help for communication? In which way?

In this case, you did repetition/rephrasing in the classroom. Would you use it when interacting in a different setting? (in a meeting with friends, for instance) Why?

---

Now, let's listen to another bit of interaction. This was when ... (*specific activity*)

*Listen to the recording extract 1 (self- Or other- /repair)*

Do you remember that exercise where ... (*specific activity*). Can you tell me more about it, please?

Could you tell why did you do that? Why did you use self-repair or other-repair that word/phrase?

Do you think that repairing something in a conversation can help for communication? In which way?

In this case, you did repair in the classroom. Would you use it when interacting in a different setting? (in a meeting with friends, for instance) Why?

**Thank you**

## Appendix I **Example of interview transcriptions**

**NOTE:** Bold sections were analysed in detail.

### Interview Transcription A-S1

AS1 = Mexican student, Commercial Systems major, 18 years old

R = Researcher

E = Extract

<**beg** AS1-E IA1-BE-19.02.14\_00:00>

R- how is English important for you?

AS1- well English allow me to communicate with peoples in other countries for example United States or so it can help me in my case I'm studying business I can make relationship with another companies for example so English is more about communication I think it's a different way to communicate to keep um like (2) keep communication with some other countries no

R- and do you think that English now is I don't know that the English that you are learning in school is going to be useful and applicable in the future when you will be working in a business company?

AS1- well I think that it can help me really mmm but I think just gave me the basics but **it's something different school than real life maybe they can teach me big things here but what I'm gonna learn I'm gonna learn in real life** but definitely English in the school is very useful for me

R- for you now yes and how do you think you're going to be using English when you will be working in the future?

AS1- yes um studying business I think um my- **I can see me as a (1) a man who has a work with an enterprise with a company so I can use English to communicate with some other people maybe they are not from my**

**country they don't- they can't speak my language** because **English is like the universal language IS the universal language** so they can allow me to mmm expand the limits of my company it can be

- R- so you think you're going to own a company or you will be working in someone else's company?
- AS1- I got two paths I don't know time will gonna say which one is gonna be but I think I'm gonna work in a company or I'm gonna own a company in any case English is useful
- R- ok so you think you will be like interacting with people that speaks English as well in that company
- AS1- totally
- R- totally ok so when- um now about your own experience with English in the region here in Chetumal or maybe in the north of Quintana Roo I don't know um when was the last time you communicated in English?
- AS1- in real life?
- R- real life yes
- AS1- well <@> it's <@/> it's a fun story I don't know if I can talk.
- R- yes you can
- AS1- well um it was one time I was at home and someone rang the bell and I opened the door and it was like the- people from another religion asked me about <Sp> esten </Sp> if I- <Sp> esten </Sp> if I- what I- what I think about love what I think about family but what it surprised me that they speak English they they ask me <imitating> does anyone in this family speak English? </imitating> or in a case they told me in Spanish <Sp> ¿alguien habla inglés aquí? </Sp> and then I said I can speak English so they ask me um to be um put um a different religion I'd be totally respectful in that and I (wouldn't) listen to them but I- what I really interest about that is that I can really communicate with people from another country apparently so
- R- so it was so strange that someone in Chetumal just came knocked your door and speak to you in English @

- AS1- yeah yeah knocked your door <@> yeah <@/> yeah it was- I didn't expect that I didn't that see coming so
- R- yeah and any other experience where you as well had to use English?
- AS1- no actually no I- **it's very hard to find someone from another country**
- R- here in Chetumal
- AS1- but right now **I have one one partner from my- from my class he's from Belize** and he can speak English and Spanish but we: (.) we're getting along so well and we started to: start talking in English we put Spanish another time because I can speak English and he obviously can speak English always **so a good way to learn I mean for me**
- R- yeah and when you used to work because you said in the class that you used to work in *fast food restaurant 1* no? you said- you presented *fast food restaurant 1*? No
- AS1- yeah I presented *food restaurant 1*
- R- but you said you used to work or you used to know somebody who worked there
- AS1- no I used to know somebody who work there no it's kind of different
- R- ah ok sorry I misunderstood that part but yes um I was wondering about maybe in the area here I don't know might be more opportunities to speak English with some other people maybe from Belize maybe from other places I don't know and um in general do you think that when you will be working more in the future you will be interacting in English with someone specific um like I don't know Germans Americans who would be like you think you will be working with and interacting?
- AS1- definitely I hope so to work with someone from another country in a different language I hope to be in English I can see me as a for example as a general manager and for example they can- they travel a lot sometimes when it's required sometimes to another countries so it's kind (of) great that you know how to speak English and you can go to another place and communicate with that people so naturally (so) I think that would be the way that I can use English in my work area in the future

- R- ok so you think maybe um like being like a manager you will be like constantly using English not only Spanish like here if you were here
- AS1- even being here they can come in Mexico and speak and I can talk to them because I know how to speak English
- R- yeah that's true ok very good so um what do you think about for instance like little bit changing not now like in real life or in the future life no but changing a little bit into the classroom or in the class um you have seen that there are some parts of grammar in the book um what is your thoughts about grammar now in the class and then tell me if you think that this grammar will be helpful for you to communicate with people in the future or which way it is going to help you to communicate
- AS1- every aspect of English is important um but **I think grammar is very important because it's a way of communicate but not such an oral way it's just like um write something so in my case it would be useful and when I can write a letter I can use the grammar rules I know how to use it to write something in a proper way so it's very important**
- R- it's very important and now that you are learning grammar and you will be using it certainly when you will be working in the future
- AS1- `<Sp> si </Sp>`
- R- yeah and do you think if you do- as you said before if you do a kind of mistakes or errors do you think it would interfere communication?
- AS1- um it depends
- R- it depends?
- AS1- what mistakes it can be small mistakes or huge mistakes or (.) I'm trying to make um at least **I'm trying to make small mistakes but sometimes you know about pronunciation and- but I don't want to make mistakes about writing something I don't know wrong in a wrong way**
- R- so you are like more aware of the way of writing but speaking is like more relaxed?
- AS1- yeah
- R- what do you mean about that?

- AS1- **my problem in English actually is like writing** because I can speak it I can speak I can pronounce but sometimes I can speak a word I can pronounce it properly but I can't write it I (put) for example one letter that's my problem so- it's- I can speak naturally but when you put me to write an essay for example it's kind of hard for me
- R- kind of hard ok so maybe that- that's something you may want to reinforce in this kind of courses
- AS1- definitely
- R- about the English for business
- AS1- I'm always trying to do that
- R- ok that's something good because I think in business it's important right?
- AS1- too much
- R- to to write well but as well to communicate well
- AS1- yeah all aspects
- R- all aspects and as you remember this is the book we're having in the classroom in the classes so English for business so can you give me just um a general impression of yours about the book? If it is helpful for you or if you feel that maybe you need um some other kind of exercises or if- I don't know whatever you think about the book itself the material
- AS1- yes it's- definitely it's very helpful because as a person who is studying business those aspects the the book is about they really helpful helpful for me um for example um trying to advertising or sell products these um actually it has some dynamic activities it has a very entertaining class so it's a- it's an interesting book well topics actually topics are very interesting
- R- and do you think that the topics that we are looking at the book for instance I don't know this the curriculum vitae the resume and the project presentations about products do you think are these going to be useful for you in the future?
- AS1- yes because sometime in some point in my life I will have to make a curriculum and I will have to make a project I have to make- so this is a

good way to learn that in English but I cannot- I cannot just to learn how to say or how to do in English just apply that on my life in my life

R- yeah yeah and do you do those exercises like um you know presentation of products and things like that in you career?

AS1- in my career?

R- but in Spanish?

AS1- um yes but not al- just we should but not always

R- not always

AS1- just like one: one time for month

R- yeah? so it's more like what you see here in the English classroom that what you really have in the career?

AS1- yeah it's kind of the same

R- kind of the same ok that's good um in this case do you have any specific recommendations about the: the material we are using in the class because the material we are using is only the book and the listening and everything that it's in the book but do you- I don't know what do you think about- would it be good to have something else that you may want to do?

AS1- yeah I'm trying um I would make an observation for example **sometimes there are some parts of the book when we use passive voice and I saw that that topic like one year ago and I forgot that so it would be great if they can give you a: a reminder of what and how can you use what is passive voice and how can you use passive voice to convert some sentences** because they said <imitating> passive voice </imitating> and the exercises and sometimes I- in that moment I didn't know what to do I forgot it and that's part my fault but sometimes it would be good

R- so it would be good to have lime um examples like examples of them

AS1- yeah examples

R- ok and with this you are- you're trying to say that grammar is still very important so

AS1- very important

- R- maybe it's not just a matter of you to remember the grammar but it's a matter of I don't know having- learning the names of the grammar point because you know that I'm pretty sure you know the- you know how to do it you just don't remember how it is called
- AS1- the structure um it's basically the structure
- R- yeah yeah and again coming back a little bit trying to link what we are learning here with the book and the exercises and things like that um trying to link all these exercises to your future career working imagine you are working how are going to apply it? bits of this part- of this book um
- AS1- I can apply it in the order the the topics were for example when I apply for a job I need to make a curriculum and that's in the book and next I'm gonna- no first before that I have to list my strengths and my weaknesses so it's in the book it give me tips, then I'm gonna have a job interview and also in the book it give me tips so yes that way that special theme that we have in that book it really help me in my professional career
- R- so from your point of view it's very linked what you are looking at this time with the material with what you will be doing once in life
- AS1- yeah maybe more in my case it would be more related to that because **I'm studying business for example my other partners they are studying English language** so- but in my case it's business so I- it's really important to me that (.) the BOOK is really helpful
- R- yes thank you well um very good now let's go into um at the part of communication um part of the interview right? thank you about the material information is really good that you have said all this information about it and how you think about it and your suggestions
- R- um now on communication or about communication um this is more related to um in situations where you are speaking with some other people in English etc so when speaking in English um you know if a person doesn't understand you so what do you do?
- AS1- um I'm try- I would try to use another words or in any case give an example of what I'm trying to say because I can- if is an for example an European guy I can't say in Spanish because maybe he doesn't know how to speak Spanish so I have to look another way to say things maybe using

another words maybe um trying to: to do an example that they can understand

R- **ok that's pretty interesting and and if you: for instance the person you see that you are speaking and the person is not that he doesn't understand you but he misunderstand what- he misunderstands what you have said um what would you do? do you- um you mean like misunderstanding something like he understands a different thing**

AS1 of what I'm tryin to-

R- of what you are trying to say so maybe you are speaking speaking speaking and then suddenly you receive a wrong answer or I don't know an answer that is not connected

AS1- not related

R- yeah not related so what would you do in that case?

AS1- **I would try to make more emphasis about my special point I would try to make a point of what I'm saying or for instance if I want an answer maybe would end with <imitating> what do you think? </imitating> or <imitating> let me tell you what- </imitating> so it would be more emphasis to what I'm trying to say not not- (.) using the less words possible to make something clearly and effectively**

R- and effectively ok good and this is the case maybe when maybe something is very important for you to clarify but if you were in a conversation with some friends or- in that case do you- would you do that? would you clarify the misunderstanding? or what would you do?

AS1- yeah but just a small part I just-

R- not not-

SA1- not- or I have to explain in all the (details) I just <imitating> no that's wanna I'm not trying to- I didn't- I didn't say </imitating>

R- ok

SA1- <imitating> that it's a misunderstanding it's a misunderstanding </imitating> not ALL the explanation

R- not all the explanation like if it were in a formal situation

- AS1- uhu because in a formal way in a formal way they need your point your accepted point of view
- R- imagine that you are in a meeting
- AS1- a meeting yeah
- R- or something that you need to to be clear
- AS1- **for example they want me to give them (an) ideas and what if they think that I give them a bad idea that would be no- it's important to emphasis- clarifying**
- R- ok very good and when you are in a situation for instance where you have other people talking to you um but they are not in the same- you know like not as fluent as you they don't speak as much English as you speaks I mean as you speak what would you do in those situations? so would you be patient? or how could you help the person or to make the communication be in that situation?
- AS1- you always have **to be patient** in my case I'm always patient because sometimes um well in the past I've been in that position that I don't know how to speak in a properly way I didn't know how to say so it's about tolerance and trying to say um for example they say <imitating> how can I say mmm anything? </imitating> and I can give them (any) examples <imitating> **you- what you're trying to say is like** </imitating> for example in- when you google something they say <imitating> you try to say (.) what you're trying to say is this </imitating> giving mmm like teaching something but with tolerance and respect always
- R- ok that's good and um if you want to or if you could just give some tips to other people about how to make communication better what would you recommend?
- AS1- well you can always- I recommend for example I've never been to a school for example I've never been to *language school 1* here or another one or at *language school 2* I never went to that place I just learned English in my way for example I was playing videogames I always like to hear music in English then I would recommend that do things that you like but in English for example if you always watch a movie- always wanna to watch a movie trying to watch in English but with subtitles you can- in that way you can

relate for example that word means that in English but in Spanish means that so **that's the way I'm learning**

R- that's the way you're learning.

AS1- yeah

R- ok and that's very interesting because I thought were in a kind of I don't know school to learn English?

AS1- no no my mom my mom always tell me <imitating> you should go you should go <imitating/> and and <imitating> no mom I don't want to I don't have time I prefer to play sports </imitating> and- but eventually I've always been a person who likes videogames and since I was ten I play videogames but they were in English so I learnt the basics from the videogames for example player play what does it mean you win you lose then I learnt the basic from them then I started to hear a lot of music in English and I- when I was listening to one song I looked for the lyrics and what does that means but <imitating> what- what does that mean that I am singing I don't know what I'm singing </imitating> I'm curious and I looked at the words

R- you looked at the words

AS1- yeah and then I- that's a way I have- I learn the pronunciation because they sound for example <imitating> I'm very happy </imitating> in the song and then I know when I wrote- when I read <imitating> I'm very happy </imitating> I know how to say it in a proper way

R- ok and when did you realise that you could- with that- that you were like listening playing because this is like you just get the information and get it storage in your mind right?

AS1- yeah

R- but when did you realise you could speak with that or with those information you already have in your mind uhu when did you realise you could speak in English with some other people

AS1- maybe since I was: (.) fourteen years old they- I have to start to have English class in secondary and they asked me to read and I started to read and the teacher said <imitating> ah you read very well have you ever been

in a school before? </imitating> and <imitating> NO I just listen to music and I play videogames </imitating> <imitating> oh that's amazing good way of learning </imitating> and then I realise then some others have problems with pronunciation reading they actually they went to a school before of language (xxx) that's the way I realised it's a good way to learn

R- to learn

AS1- maybe I don't have a um a degree or something but I have the knowledge and I think that's important too

R- yes you have the experience as well because I don't know how many years have you been playing @

AS1- a lot of years @

R- so not just the fact of playing well but as well the fact that you know the words you know what they mean etc

AS1- yeah <clears throat> the degree is also important but it's something a balance between a degree and experience so I'm half way (.) I have the experience now but I want a degree

R- ok very good thank you those tips have been very interesting yeah and have you ever imagine that you will be working in the future and using your English with people with different nationalities? I mean like for instance in a business meeting where you have to do a presentation and there is a person like um from France from Germany from Japan and all of them- and you do not have the same language like mother tongue like first language but you share the second language have you thought about that?

AS1- that would be interesting why? because **as a businessman what you are trying to do is sell something and it's better if you can sell something not just in your country all over the world so how can I do that? I can have ideas from another- from people who different countries so it would be great to have a meeting with someone (that) can give me ideas or what do the French people want or some um um Italians want or some um Americans want so it would be interesting because I can hear their ideas and I can communicate my own ideas I can give different ideas from the- all around the world but in the same language**

R- so that would fine right?

- AS1- that would be fine
- R- very interesting just to have- because every country have their own way to invest
- AS1- and culture
- R- business and culture so that would be very interesting even the native ones the American British Australian
- AS1- they all have a special way to make business
- R- ok very good thank you now let's go on the last part of the interview this is about um these strategies of communication you can see these strategies are less related to business but these are more related to linguistics
- AS1- education
- R- education and things like that so um these are are um like very specific issues like for instance how repetition is used in the classroom and how how um I don't know when sometimes you- I have noticed that sometimes you change language in the classroom as well and sometimes you rephrase what you have said before so everybody can understand you so it's about um it's about those things it's more like education but related to communication to how you-
- AS1- how can I interact
- R- interact specific bits like that (.) so let's see if
- AS1- so rephrase- well I use to- I always rephrase when I- what I'm trying to say I don't know what else to say it so I have to rephrase it in another way and that's an easy way to- they can understand
- R- yeah these are not too many these are just some examples of what you have said (.) and- as you have noticed I don't have a video it's just like listening so let's listen to what you said (1) for instance this first one is a code-switching it's a- you change- you used a Spanish word in your presentation while you were explaining something in English so as I said at the beginning it's not a matter of being good or bad no it's a matter of why did you do that? and if you think that that broke communication
- AS1- ok

E1-

R- it's not the presentation sorry it's- it's the activity we did with someone

AS1- in pairs

R- yeah

E1-

AS1- **how can I say <Sp> monopolio? </Sp> I remember that yeah 'cause I was thinking in the game- of the game monopoly and I said <imitating> that is the word? or maybe it's just an invented word so I had that doubt**

R- so you have the question

AS1- yeah <Sp> si </Sp> I have

R- ok so in this case you used it because you wanted to know how to say it in English

AS1- how to say it in English yeah

R- but you knew it but you weren't sure

AS1- I weren't sure

R- yeah ok

AS1- yeah that's (.) kind of explanation I wasn't sure so I prefer to make a question that make a mistake

R- yeah ok now this is a repetition that you did about the word perform in fact I have two bits you repeated here and then you repeated here after some other people were talking

E2-

R- this was when you were with-

AS1- last week

R- yeah last week- last class when you were talking to *student AS3* about- we're doing the sketch or something

AS1- ah yeah yeah it's no refund policy

- R- yeah so you repeated in the whole bit you repeated like four times refund so why is that?
- AS1- **because I wanna it I wanna to make a point about the no refund and- but I don't know it I didn't remember that I used that word so many times so now I can see that I use refund how many times? Four?**
- R- **like four yeah**
- AS1- **I was trying to make a point but not to be redundant**
- R- ok ok but in fact it was- the situation was that um the person or *student* AS3 was like saying <imitating> no I need you to change this this </imitating> and you were in your role of
- AS1- manager
- R- manager so
- AS1- I can't give you a refund
- R- so how is it related like to repeat something being a manager?
- AS1- **um I'm trying to repeat something to- that is um in my case it would be a way to convince someone <imitating> no refund no refund </imitating> and based on repetition they maybe can understand that there is no rep- there is refund**
- R- there is no refund
- AS1- no refund
- R- and at the end she got convinced right? @@@
- AS1- yeah <@> no </@> she gets a replacement
- R- well the next example is referring to a repair that means like a kind of correction of what um- {recording noise} ok in this case it was an exercises and I think you were like looking at something and we were doing this {showing book exercise} and you were trying to say two yards or something but you said something different
- E3-
- AS1- the last two words I said?

R- yeah you said something like that

E3-

R- two word two yards

AS1- two words I I said something different I don't know what I said

R- so in this case you correct yourself

AS1- yeah

R- at the same time you realise that you correct yourself so why is that?

AS1- why I correct myself?

R- yeah

AS1- **because I prefer to correct myself than someone others I'm I'm not saying that I can't accept another critics no it's constructive but if I made- in the moment I know that I made a mistake so I'm trying to make a repair of the mistake yeah maybe it's just an /aclaration/**

R- ok and do you think that would be like um worst in order for you to communicate well?

AS1- **yeah because when I made that mistake maybe the one was listening um lose the sense of all what I'm trying to say so it's important to make a repair in that case because they can search the (meaning)**

R- ok very good this is the last part in this one you did a rephrase and then repeat something I think the word offer

AS1- I think I remember

E4-

R- ok again let's listen again

E4-

AS1- I was talking about promotion and then I said offer

R- yeah and the you said is it an offer a promotion or- but you were saying this correctly at the beginning but I don't know at some point you said <imitating> oh but this is an offer or a promotion? </imitating> and then

you did this kind of changing or rephrasing the offer for promotion or you just wanted to clarify?

AS1- mmm I just wanted to clarify but I rephrased it in some way yeah but I can't see the the mistake so

R- it's not a mistake no

AS1- no I know but I can't see the observation <Sp> o sea </Sp> what did I do in especial that you-

R- the rephrase of the word

AS1- I rephrased can you give me- why I was trying to say? because I can't hear it

R- ok this is

E4-

AS1- ah ok I make a question-

R- no you didn't make any mistake you just rephrased the word it's like um you said tricky promotion then you said um

AS1- uh::

R- then you said um something um something like sale let's see you did like three words

AS1- oh three words tricky promotion

R- and it's not mistake it's just rephrase

E4-

AS1- it's an offer? (1)

R- yeah so

AS1- ah ok ok I- like I was trying to say something but suddenly I changed it I rephrased it ok ok I see

R- and do you think that it would be something good when you communicate?

- AS1- **mmm it's- (.) I don't think so because you need what you're trying to say at the beginning is what you have to say at the end the same idea because if you rephrase something it can be confused to another to another person**
- R- so maybe you just keep saying the same and maybe if you notice that there is a misunderstanding or non-understanding? in that case-
- AS1- maybe in that case it would be good
- R- it would be good? ok
- AS1- yes in that case definitely because it's another way to say the same but maybe in a proper way in an easy way so they can understand
- R- ah ok ok
- AS1- or I can- I can explain that not not just that they can understand but always explain
- R- ok and finally this is another repetition about sealable you were asking about what sealable is what is- I think it was with *student AS2*
- AS1- yeah I was with *student AS2*
- R- ok let's listen just quickly
- AS1- yeah I remember
- E5-
- AS1- **<Sp> condiciones de- </Sp> yeah I have the doubt about what is saleable I understand that sale what it is but saleable is like um I don't know then I asked *student AS1* to tell me what is but in Spanish**
- R- in Spanish yeah you did it
- AS1- **well it's an it's an easy way to- because I- they told me that in Spanish and then I processed that in English and that's better**
- R- that's better so do you think that if you are with someone like you know that they speak Spanish as you as you speak um do you think that um is it ok if you just very quickly turn into Spanish and then come back into English just for you to understand something?

AS1- if I can find another way to say that in English that would be my last option  
mmm I would try to say all in English but it would be **my last option**

R- your last option

AS1- yeah

R- so as you have seen all these are examples from the classrooms and from what we've been doing in the classroom with the teacher etc but what is your own perceptions and impressions about all these because all these are little strategies that we use when we speak sometimes these come naturally and you don't pay attention about it but some other times yes you like do it on purpose so what is your general impression about these strategies for instance about repetition about code-switching or changing the language English Spanish or mixing the language about rephrasing what is your general impression about the usefulness how are they going to be useful when you will be working with people in English?

AS1- **it's something good and it depends on the context those those strategies can help me to communicate with someone who for example is having a problem to understand what I'm to say so I can rephrase I can- if I'm trying to make a point I can make some repetition not too much but I can make repetitions so it's (.) it helps to make communication more easy**

R- uhu and do you think that you will be using it? then-

AS1- yeah

R- in case um I don't know in the future

AS1- now that I have known about this maybe I would try to make some research and I would apply that to my

R- to your own

AS1- my experience

R- and career

AS1- my future career

R- specially because I don't know it's very important for me to know your opinion because you are like studying the business career and my focus is

how these pragmatic strategies how these strategies are used in those areas because some people they say um that sometimes for instance in a presentation of a product some people just want to give the direct information but some others-

AS1- rephrase

R- they don't understand or something and you need to like rephrase something or repeat something or-

AS1- yeah definitely it would be now that you are mentioning it would be a good way for example to try to sale something and I can study for the people I'm gonna sell that what strategy could be useful that they can make me sell that they want to buy this product I can go straight or maybe try to convince persuade them so yes that strategies can- in my career I can see that maybe giving ideas or if someone don't- can't understand what product I'm thinking to do I can rephrase I can do- use these strategies

R- ok

<end AS1-E IA1-BE-19.02.14\_41:45>

Transcription Interview C-S2

S2 = Mexican student, Commercial Systems major, 24 years old

R = Researcher

E = Extract

<beg CS2-IC1-FA-01.04.14\_00:00>

CS2- secundaria um tres años de secundaria tres años de prepa y cuatro aquí en la universidad um en la secundaria honestamente los maestros no te prestan atención te um si te dicen y te enseñan el vocabulario te enseñan tal vez cositas pero no hay la atención que debería de ser hacia el alumno para aprender inglés a veces inclusive faltan más que otras materias así lo mismo con la prepa yo tenía mi maestro que en vez de inglés nos hablaba maya entonces

R- ay ¿de verdad?

CS2- en serio nos hablaba ma-

R- y cómo crees que te hablaba maya si?

CS2- si en serio nos hablaba maya porque la mayoría del salón como era de pueblo

R- uhu

CS2- entonces era se prestaba al cotorreo y en el cotorreo y cotorreo ya se convertía en clase de maya que en clase de inglés

R- @@@ ah ok

CS2- si entonces si se hacía el <En> show </En>

R- ok

CS2- y entré aquí a la *University 1* mi primer semestre mi primera material honestamente la reprobé reprobé la material tuve que recursar la materia y pues ya así como que decir ponerme las pilas ir al *language school 3* y bueno a parte de que pues en mi trabajo en *supermarkert 1* yo trabajaba

era NO existen cajas bilingües pero al nivel de inglés que entré a *supermarkert 1* estudiaba pues otras cosas y pues mi familia habla inglés

R- ah si?

CS2- más que nada mi mamá mi mamá es la que habla inglés o sea-

R- porque lo ha estudiado? o porque:

CS2- porque lo ha aprendido en su trabajo

R- en el trabajo ah

CS2- en su trabajo es la que mas o menos no entiendo alguna palabra ella me dice el significado o si no ya existe internet @@@ y vamos a internet

R- ah bueno vas a san google

CS2- y lo que ayuda a aprender inglés en mi caso es- son las películas subtituladas yo así es la forma de:

R- de que aprendes

CS2- de- aprendo

R- uhu

CS2- y bueno **era una de las cajas bilingües me ha funcionado en mi trabajo tenía yo bonos por atender al cliente a mi me- es una recompensa hablar en inglés**

R- claro

CS2- ahorita estoy actualmente trabajando en un internet café en el centro soy la encargada pero no solo me dedico al trabajo administrativo si no también estoy entre administrativo y atención al cliente

R- servicio

CS2- también servicio yo trato con el cliente y todo me sirve mi trabajo perfectamente bien genero proprinas no hablo el inglés asi que digamos al 100% yo calculo que he de tener un 30 ó 35% pero ya eso me ha generado a mi crear amistades afuera tengo amigos americanos que me llaman a veces visitan *City 7* me han invitado a trabajar a *Country 9*

R- ah qué bien

- CS2- **me han dicho que tengo buena pronunciación pero que me falta vocabulario entonces con ellos a veces por mi cuenta de skype platico con ellos en inglés yo les enseño español y ellos me enseñan a mi inglés**
- R- ah mira que bien
- CS2- entonces eso si es un um diferente método de enseñanza tal vez no aprenda tal cual lo que es la gramática al escribirlo **honestamente mi gramática está mal** pero si en la pronunciación y en lo otro
- R- pero tú sientes que te afecta la comunicación o sea el poder comunicarte y que no tengas una gramática excelente? o cómo?
- CS2- **NO no me afecta poder entender al cliente y a hablar con él a veces si no lo entiendo o él no me entiende por señas nos nos comunicamos por señas**
- R- ah ok
- CS2- no sé si mi cliente ya se acostumbró a MI a mi forma o yo ya <@> me hice al cliente </@> o sea no sabría diferenciar eso porque a veces cuando el cliente no me entiende ya esten o me enseña o me dice o trata de decirlo en español y ya yo ya le contesto en inglés lo que él ya quiere el servicio que quiere
- R- uhu ok en ese caso este trabajo que tienes es esten el contacto que tienes es sólo con la gente con gente: de *Country 5*? o es hay otras personas de otros lados del mundo? o qué?
- CS2- **no tengo esten israelitas tengo esten franceses tengo italianos hay esten hindús filipinos o sea tengo de todas nacionalidades cuando a mi me toca hablar con una persona hindú es mi pesadilla**
- R- @@@
- CS2- honestamente es la pesadilla porque tienen- su inglés de ellos está pa' llorar su pronunciación es /telible/ @@@
- R- /telible/ @@ uhu
- CS2- definitivamente terrible así este está pesadísimo pero no sé si ya como le digo

- R- te acostumbraste
- CS2- **me acostumbré se me hizo este ya les entiendo ya puedo comunicarme con ellos de hecho hace poco hubo una clase con el maestro creo que fui la única que entendió el <En> listening </En> en hindú porque estaba en hindú este bueno la pronunciación estaba en hindú el acento y creo que fui la única que le contestó al maestro todas todas las respuestas y hasta yo me sorprendí porque todos estaban con cara de <imitating> qué onda? </imitating> @@@**
- R- de <imitating> qué dijo? </imitating>
- CS2- de <imitating> qué onda? </imitating> y yo pues yo ya le- ya le contesté
- R- uhu
- CS2- lo que si he visto que no sé si por mi trato con los clientes o porque dije bueno es mi última materia tengo que echarle más ganas como que ya se me está quitando la pena de hablar más que nada antes yo era muy penosa de preguntar por qué? por qué se dice así? o qué significa? entonces últimamente ya pregunto ya: **aunque yo lo diga mal lo digo y ya pues si me corrigen mejor porque pues se aprende** entonces
- R- no y además con lo que me decías de que pues te vas dando cuenta que a lo mejor todas esas personas que llegan de otras partes del mundo no necesariamente hablan perfecto inglés y pues ya te das cuenta no pues estamos casi igual entonces hay que ver la manera de comunicarnos no sé
- CS2- si entonces ya como que se busca la se busca la forma de interactuar entre uno con otro porque tengo un- hoy le estaba platicando a *Student 3* que llegó un amigo es hindú él me estaba en inglés estábamos platicando y es **la primera vez que yo puedo platicar inglés sin no trabarme y no decirle en español él entiende poquito el español y lo habla poquito e: a veces platicamos yo comunmente lo digo no está bien dicho en espanglish entre inglés y español pero hoy logramos comunicarnos esten bien en inglés** y esten tuvimos casi una hora platicando obvio teníamos esten destiempos en lo que yo atendía una persona y todo no se puede platicar bien en el trabajo pero sentí que avancé o sea fue para mi fue un avance platicar con él sin que yo tenga que tener la pena o preguntarle a él como decir entonces fue para mi algo como que WOW uhu

- R- qué bueno no? algo así como <imitating> lo estoy logrando! <\_imitating>
- CS2- uhu fue así como para mi como wow porque igual inclusive luego platicamos por el facebook en el facebook chat igual me cuesta trabajo poder escribirle entonces por lo menos dije si no le puedo escribir por lo menos ya en llamadas ya puedo hablar con él
- R- claro
- CS2- ya puedo hablar con él
- R- y cuando te refieres al al espanglish que dices eso significa que alternas las lenguas o usas dos lenguas? o cómo?
- CS2- **alterno las lenguas uhu le digo una palabra en español y otra palabra en inglés y ya él como él como le comentaba él entiende mas o menos el español esten ya él me dice igual cuando él no sabe explicarse o no yo no le entiendo en inglés completamente lo que me dice ya me dice en español o si no me pregunta mas o menos cómo se dice o me hace unas- o me hace gestos para yo entenderle**
- R- ah ok
- CS2- ya tiene un año que lo estoy tratando que lo conozco y pues
- R- has visto el progreso cuando se comunica no?
- CS2- uhu si la verdad es que si se ha notado el progreso de cómo nos llevamos y todo y si es diferente
- R- si está bien está bien bueno y ahora pasando un poquito más al inglés como tal para ti qué tan importante es el inglés? no sólo ahora sino también a futuro tal vez-
- CS2- **a futuro yo siento que el inglés ahorita es lo primordial te abre puertas para mi para el futuro para lo que yo quiero necesito tener mínimo 90% de inglés por qué? porque ahora todo trabajo te lo pide es casi casi obligatorio no solo inglés ahora creo que te están pidiendo hasta francés entonces (.) te abre muchas puertas si no hablas inglés es muy complicado encontrar trabajo en lo se hace aquí en el medio**
- R- como turismo

- CS2- porque estamos- vivimos en una isla y aunque salgamos nosotros a *City 4* y digamos no no va haber inglés estamos-
- R- siempre
- CS2- siempre hay inglés así nos vayamos a otras partes de la República Mexicana el turista ya se está como ya está esten um como que queriendo a México hoy me tocó esten en el trabajo perdone que yo mencione mi trabajo pero es que
- R- no está bien está bien
- CS2- me tocó una turista argentina y me dijo que ella se siente más mexicana que argentina
- R- ah si?
- CS2- me dijo que a ella le encanta México le encanta venir que es uno de sus lugares favoritos y que cada vez que tiene tiempo o tiene suficiente dinero le gusta visitar algún Estado de la República Mexicana que ha venido cinco veces a *City 9* y me me llevo cada sorpresa con los americanos que te dicen que están enamorados de *City 9* que les gusta venir a vivir aquí y no sólo ellos lo dicen entonces yo digo si nosotros tuvieramos el mejor- darles un mejor trato y tartar de mejor- de hablarles bien y poder tener un mejor servicio creo que nosotros seríamos los número uno en- se supone que somos los número uno pero a como están las cosas creo que *City 9* ha ido deca- bajando entonces **yo digo que si nosotros como mexicanos trataramos de aprender el inglés tal cual y no sólo lo veamos como simple dinero creo que estaríamos mejor tendríamos una mejor disponibilidad**
- R- pues si si puede ser eso y cuando hablas de que porcentajes que si tengo el 30 o 40% de inglés o el 90% de inglés a qué te refieres?
- CS2- a: bueno yo: bueno yo lo he dicho porque es lo que me han comentado
- R- en los trabajos eso así lo piden no?
- CS2- en los trabajos uhu así lo piden que te establezcas mas o menos cuánto hablas de inglés y se supone que es o hablas inglés lo sabes escribir y todo eso y a mi personaje como yo yo me autocalifico es que como no lo sé

escribir muy bien y todavía no lo sé hablar muy bien yo calculo entre un 30 o un 25% así va mi cálculo a mi concepto a mi parecer

R- uhu a tu parecer pero realmente no

CS2- no sé

R- no sabemos si-

CS2- **no es que no hay una forma de medir cuánto tienes de inglés no**

R- exactamente entonces por eso se me hace raro eso de tengo treinta y quiero un noventa entonces pero qué significan esos porcentajes entonces realmente no hay algo

CS2- no hay una forma de medir yo me yo me auto evaluó podría decirse de cuánto es mi porcentaje de inglés

R- ok ok ok y entonces usas seguido el inglés en tu trabajo?

CS2- si ahí es diarios porque **estoy en la zona centro** entonces está me queda *mall 1 mall 2* pe- pegan los barcos y aun así ya tengo clientes que llegan cada determinado tiempo que me buscan inclusive para dar el servicio no sé si por mi forma de ser o no sé los invito a regresar entonces **yo vivo rodeada del inglés y de otros idiomas entonces yo vivo de otros idiomas**

R- ah bueno ok qué otros idiomas serían?

CS2- hay francés hay árabe

R- pero tú no los hablas tú hablas sólo en inglés

CS2- sólo el inglés

R- uhu

CS2- a veces por ejemplo **me ha costado trabajo comunicarme con árabes porque ellos no hablan casi inglés** entonces esten si es un poco complicado

R- y en esos casos tienes que hacer

CS2- señas y uso de todo de tu imaginación para poder comunicarte inclusive **mi otro método de comunicación ha sido de que el cliente lo escriba y**

**yo ya lo busque para ver que significa y poderle responder** por ejemplo había cuando me dicen el <En> keyboard </En> no sabía que era no sabía el <En> delete </En> habían palabras que no entendía y ya pues yo me tuve que buscar en internet cómo conforman el teclado ellos en *Country 5* y cómo sacan esten por ejemplo el aroba en *Country 5* para poder yo comunicarle a los clientes que iban americanos

R- uh ok ok bueno y piensas y cuál es tu expectativa con respecto al inglés? o sea ahorita si lo usas o sea no sólo aquí en la clase lo aprendes sino que también lo usas en tu trabajo donde estás actualmente pero tú cómo cómo te visualizas así a futuro en el sentido de que ah además de: me voy a quedar en ese trabajo o voy a buscar otro trabajo mejor cuando ya esté titulada y en ese otro tabajo si voy a usar el inglés o cómo qué voy a hacer?

CS2- um pienso buscar otro trabajo no me pienso quedar en donde estoy no hay otro- del del rango que ya tengo no voy a pasar a otro rango porque no hay donde crecer entonces yo pienso salirme fuera a buscar no sé si yo vaya a usar el inglés depende del área donde yo me acomode

R- donde vayas a quedar

CS2- yo me vaya yo a quedar

R- pero qué área te gusta a ti?

CS2- a mi me gusta el trato con el cliente

R- o sea dar servicio

CS2- el servicio mayormente yo me manejo en ventas me gusta mucho el área contable manejar dinero entonces si estoy en ventas supongo que también tengo que tener trato con el cliente y en estamos- como le comentaba yo hace ratos estamos en un área turística entonces yo digo que para mi tiene que ser indispensable inglés tiene que- mire de hecho para o sea puestos gerenciales para cualquier empresa si te lees o lo que sale en la tele

R- piden el inglés

CS2- piden el inglés

R- y en ese sentido tú crees que por ejemplo lo que estamos viendo en la clase te puede ayudar? es decir por ejemplo ya ahorita estamos en el periodo de que están viendo presentaciones

- CS2- presentaciones
- R- pero antes vieron cuestiones socio-culturales o algo así
- CS2- si vimos cul- culturales vimos esten los verbos esten
- R- y luego cre que siguen otros temas como de negocio- cómo se llama? de <En> meetings </En> cómo se llama?
- CS2- uhu <En> meeting </En> y relaciones exteriores o relaciones públicas o algo así
- R- o reuniones cómo dirigir una reunión todo ese tipo de cosas tú crees que las vas a usar a futuro?
- CS2- aquí en *City 9* um no porque **mayormente tus jefes son mexicanos bueno los gerentes de aquí son mexicanos pero si te llegaras a exponer esten a otro a otros hay hay ge-por ejemplo hay dueños de empresas que viene por ejemplo el *Enterprise 2* su dueño es americano** entonces si tu le tienes- si tu tienes una propuesta de negocio o
- R- para él
- CS2- para él o: por ejemplo en el caso de nosotros que somos sistemas comerciales podemos trabajar como mercadólogos y entonces si tú tienes una idea o una innovación y si la tienes que presentar del gerente y luego pasar a él entonces yo digo tienes que a fuerzas tener inglés y eso te va a servir sino cómo? o sea no es lo mismo escribirlo en español a escribirlo al inglés entonces yo digo que sí me va a servir **el problema que yo veo dentro de la universidad que por lo mismo que somos sistemas comerciales deben empezar desde la de esa parte de vocabulario administrativo debemos de verlo desde que entramos no al final**
- R- ah ok ok tu piensas que desde el
- CS2- desde el inicio porque si no cómo? entonces si está bien que te enseñen a hacer preguntas en inglés que te enseñen vocabulario que te enseñen a deletrear tu nombre a los <En> meeting </En> a las relaciones públicas y todo eso yo opino que está bien pero si um ya pasate de inglés básico inglés- viendo vocabulario común y luego entras así de zope a negocios
- R- ok @@

CS2- perdón @@

R- es un choque muy

CS2- uhu es un- **para mi se me está haciendo complicado porque son palabras nuevas** que no

R- o sea realmente es el vocabulario

CS2- que nos falta

R- que les falta

CS2- si

R- ok entonces en tu opinión sería mejor empezar desde el inglés primero aunque sea

CS2- aunque sea de poquito en poquito pero que te lo vayan metiendo en tu- dentro el inglés

R- ah ok ok bueno y eso tal vez ahorita a este nivel podría ser que ese libro sería perfecto para poder practicar

CS2- uhu para para nosotros si porque le digo todavía bueno no no somos expertos en la materia y todavía entramos y vemos otro vocabulario que para nosotros nunca lo habíamos manejado y es algo así como que de dónde sale o cómo sale entonces ya está también entre nosotros ponernos a practicar ese vocabulario porque no es sólo decir la universidad pues que lo pone desde ahí pero si tampoco nosotros hacemos el intento de practicarlo entonces ahí si entonces no hay forma

R- claro

R- y en ese sentido por ejemplo lo que hemos visto en el libro tú crees que este- cuál es tu impresión general del libro en sí? cómo lo sientes? cómo lo ves en cuestión pues de lo que estás aprendiendo?

CS2- es que- es que francamente el libro es como si hicieras una exposición en español como le digo el único problema es es pasarlo al inglés o sea no traducirlo sino poder hablar con esas palabras bue- con ese vocabulario raro te prodría decir para poder explicarlo a otras personas cómo lo veo? como le comentaba lo podemos usar pero necesito aprendérmelo más que nada necesito aprendérme

- R- vocabulario
- CS2- um vocabulario las palabras porque pararte a hablar bueno en mi caso pararme a hablar frente a alguien esten cómo presentarme como eso yo siento que no tengo problema o sea siento que no tengo problema si no **es el pánico escénico que te da al no saber pronunciarlo o saber la palabra correcta que vas a emplear para poder explicarlo entonces no sé si dio cuenta esa vez si sabía el tema pero no sabía yo poder como decirlo en inglés o sea entonces ahí es donde yo más que nada tengo el problema**
- R- ok entonces lo que realmente neces- se necesita es tener más vocabulario enfocado a negocios pero desde el principio
- CS2- a negocios desde el principio
- R- ok y en ese sentido um sientes que por ejemplo lo que se ve en la clase en el libro con los ejercicios extras que lleva el profe o con la parte de los exámenes que presentaron esta vez esten si es- está acorde con el objetivo del curso?
- CS2- si
- R- si?
- CS2- si si si porque se supone que nos esté enseñando a presentar un esquema de trabajo bien elaborado ante un ante un esten perdón
- R- audiencia
- CS2- una audiencia entonces te da el- de cómo te vas a comportar delate de todo cómo vas atraer la la atención cómo vas a hacer que no sea aburrido que ellos te sigan entonces si tú no tienes todo eso no vas a poner nunca exponerlo
- R- pero ustedes en sistemas no tienen un curso parecido en español?
- CS2- no
- R- no tienen entonces prácticamente están tomando todo en inglés directamente
- CS2- es- todo en inglés si

- R- ok ok
- CS2- si porque nosotros por ejemplo en las clases normales expones y si te dicen el maestro pues tienes que venir formal tienes que venir esten y exponer
- R- formal
- CS2- uhu pero pues si no es- no estás dando un- a menos como que estés vendiendo- **nosotros ya hemos presentado una exposición como que vendiendo un producto con la maestra *Teacher 1* y fue algo así como que tenías que dominar el tema porque la maestra trajo un invitado de fuera y no sabíamos que pre- no sabíamos que iba a preguntar entonces ahí fue la prim- primera vez que tuvimos algo así formal que fue así formal que teníamos um entonces ahora sí convencerlo para que se compre nuestro producto entonces es- esto es lo que estamos viendo ahorita en inglés para negocios y el problema es que lo estamos viendo en inglés**
- R- pero tú lo vez como problema o como una ventaja?
- CS2- um: no es como
- R- ahorita es como que no sé por lo que interpreto de lo que dices es más como un este como un:
- CS2- como un reto
- R- como un reto pero que puede ser una ventaja al final
- CS2- al final
- R- uhu
- CS2- si es que es un reto y el reto es que tu te pongas en sí las pilas y te pongas a echarle ojeada de buscar <imitating> mira pues esta palabra no la entiendo pues vamos a ver que dice en español para qué se emplea <- imitating> y eso
- R- uhu ok ok y en ese sentido del libro y de esto tú recomendarías algún otro tipo de material? que que tu digas por ejemplo esto podría servirnos más adelante no sé
- CS2- um

- R- no sé esten de acuerdo a lo has hecho con tu trabajo por ejemplo que has interactuado con gente algo no sé
- CS2- **que se- por ejemplo no sólo que se haga una exposición al final o este delante de un maestro por ejemplo porque no ha- yo sé que está bien el maestro no? pero porqué no hacerlo delante de otros? de hecho nosotros tenemos de intercambio de Canadá y de otro porqué no invitarlos invitarlos? y por lo menos ya sé que nos va agarrar el pánico escénico no? pero por lo menos ellos también nos pueden corregir nos pueden ayudar a aportar ideas a eso**
- R- o sea que tengan invitados extranjeros que escuchen que los escuchen a ustedes en su presentación en inglés
- CS2- uhu y nos- y nos- ponerlos que nos ayuden a corregir porque bueno ellos vienen ya vienen visto lo que es negocios y todo entonces yo digo que sería otra opción otra opción hay una que me gustaba cuando la maestra esten de hecho con la maestra de inglés um no me acuerdo su esposa del profesor *Teacher 2* no me acuerdo su nombre esten *Teacher 3 Teacher 3* esten **ella nos hizo hacer unas entrevistas en el centro en inglés a otros americanos entonces eso es otra opción porque te lleva a la práctica te lleva esten a a poder dialogar frente a frente y a quitarte la pena porque más que nada nosotros en mi caso yo soy muy pe- um penosa para poder hablar en inglés por lo mismo que le digo que no me sé las palabras no me sé vocabulario yo lo reconozco me falta vocabulario**
- R- ok oye pero cuando dices en el centro con americanos es- he- he escuchado o sea hasta ahorita has pronunciado que americanos americanos americanos es porque llegan más americanos que de otros países o porqué? o o te refieres en general a los turistas
- CS2- um: en general en general a los turistas yo me refiero en general a los turistas
- R- ah ok ok no realmente porque sean de Estados Unidos
- CS2- no no realmente sino que me refiero en general porque llegan de varias partes del mundo me ha tocado le digo me ha tocado de Canadá me ha tocado de otros lados

- R- ah ok ok si lo que pase es que cuando dices ah es que nos mandó con los americanos nos mandó con los-
- CS2- no no
- R- pero entonces si ya ya entendí tu término
- CS2- es en general
- R- en general
- CS2- ok muy bien
- R- bueno eso es con respecto a lo del libro pero ahora vamos un poquito más a la parte de comunicación como cuando tú te comunicas con otras personas en tu trabajo e inclusive en la clase como quieras verlo por ejemplo um y esto va un poquito más a la cuestión de si es claro el mensaje si se entienden las personas y eso no? entonces por ejemplo cuando tú estás hablando en inglés con tus um
- CS2- clientes
- R- clientes o cuando estás hablando un inglés en la- en la- aquí en la escuela con el maestro esten si tú te das cuenta que que la persona con la que estás hablando no te entendió lo que tú estás diciendo qué es lo que haces?
- CS2- **esten trato de repetirlo con otras palabras o sea con otras palabras o por lo menos hacerle señas de lo que yo quiero enten- que entienda o esten a veces por lo general les prendo una computadora y les pregun- y le digo que me escriban qué es lo que quieren y ya yo ya trato de darme a entender con ellos o mayormente esten preguntar soy muy de preguntar si está bien dicho lo que dije** o por ejemplo ha llegado a veces por ejemplo que no sé y veo que ellos están hablando entre sí y veo que señalan el objeto y yo les pregunto que qué es y por ejemplo ellos la la lean <smack lips> a la engrapadora le dicen <En> /skillboard skillboard/ </En> algo así
- R- <En> stapple </En>
- CS2- <En> /stabrook/ </En> ah ya vio? ni me acordaba <En> /stabrook/ </En> y entonces yo eso lo aprendí de ellos porque me- yo les preguntaba y

cuando me lo dijeron la primera vez yo me quedé así {face expression} y hasta que me señalaron el objeto ya ví que era

R- ok bueno eso es en el caso que tú no entiendes lo que ellos dicen pero cuando es al revés que tú te das cuenta que la persona no entiende

CS2- si por lo menos le hago señas le hago señas honestamente y ya le hago señas por ejemplo **si es un número que no puedo pronunciar y ya con con mis manos le digo que número es o si no le escribo y ya sé que está mal escrito pero por lo menos él le entiende**

R- ah ok ok y y esta situación es un poquito diferente y cuando tú estás hablando y te das cuenta que la persona no es que no haya entendido sino mal entendió lo que tú dijiste que agarró otra interpretación que mal interpretó lo que tú dijiste o sea no es lo que tú realmente lo que tu querías decir lo que él entendió

CS2- le- se le pue- podría **se le podría proporcionar un ejemplo de lo que yo quiero dar a entender o esten mostrarle por ejemplo por ejemplo si estoy en una exposición mostrarle imágenes de lo que en sí trata el tema que estoy explicando esten ponerle un video o por lo menos volvérselo a explicar pero con palabras menos esten difíciles sino algo más sencillo**

R- ah ok

CS2- **más que nada algo más sencillo porque si no me sé pronunciar la palabra y está larga ni um cuando yo trate de decir voy a decir una una otra cosa que no es ni yo ni yo voy a poder pronunciarle ni ellos me van a poder entender entonces tengo que buscar palabras que yo pueda pronunciar y que ellos puedan entender y entonces a la misma- a la misma vez se de esa comunicación**

R- ah ok ok wow está muy bien @@@

CS2- @@@

R- y si por ejemplo en otra situación donde tú te das cuenta que con la persona que estás hablando no tiene tanta fluidez de hablar inglés como tú o sea tú estás hablando hablando pero la persona te das cuenta que no o sea que no habla tan rápido o que no procesa tan rápido como tú qué es lo que haces para entablar esa comunicación?

CS2- em: hablar más despacio yo por lo general soy de hablar muy rápido hablo muy y hablo y hablo

R- hablas hablas hablas no?

CS2- uhu entonces yo quiero **hablar más despacio fijarme en lo que estoy diciendo para que no yo no vaya a decir algo porque también como son personas de otros lados no sabes que palabra vayas a decir le vaya a ofender o le vaya- o lo vaya a tomar a mal entonces tienes que tener más que nada la delicadeza de tomarte el tiempo de qué estás diciendo y si ves que no te entiende y de plano así pues ya si la persona por ejemplo si el americano o la persona o el cliente con el que estoy le pregunto <En> do you speak in English? </En> y si me este <En> do you speak Spanish? </En> y si me dice que si que <En> a little I so so </En> o algo así entonces ya entre español inglés nos comunicamos entonces**

R- ok usas así como que el cambio del idioma como de repente para que te pueda

CS2- uhu si para que me pueda entender o yo hh lo pueda entender

R- bien

CS2- uhu **yo sé que está mal pero pues esa es una forma de que yo me pueda comunicar con ellos**

R- pero por qué piensas que está mal?

CS2- porque bueno

R- dime bueno qué es lo importante en el servicio um dar el servicio?

CS2- dar- no más que nada que el cliente se vaya satisfecho con lo que- con lo que estás dando y hasta ahora no he tenido queja

R- si no has tenido queja aunque uses esa alternancia de idiomas porqué dices que está mal?

CS2- **porque s- porque a lo largo de la carrera de- esten te dicen que no**

R- que no hay que hacer

- CS2- **bueno no es que te lo digan directamente no? pero a como vas es que no hay que hacerlo o sea porque se supone que estás hablando- aprendiéndolo o hablando con alguien que sabe inglés entonces porque le vas a meter español si tampoco te va a entender entonces**
- R- ok eso es lo que te han dicho en la escuela
- CS2- uhu
- R- pero la situación del del trabajo en sí realmente aplica eso que te han dicho?
- CS2- **no no porque si el cliente no me entiende en mi inglés pues en- por lo menos en el español y el inglés como le digo en espanglish me va a entender y entonces si hay esa comunicación fluye la comunicación así como así como va entonces hasta ahora le digo entre mi espanglish y todo he tenido propinas** la máxima propina que me he llevado en un día han sido 15 dólares
- R- a mira que bien
- CS2- han regresado mis clientes de fuera para platicar conmigo decirme cómo les fue en sus vacaciones esten me han traído esten souvenirs han ido a mi casa a comer entonces
- R- ah mira que bien
- CS2- **entonces entre mi espanglish y todo ha: esten ha creado un vínculo de amistad con otras personas a mi me ha traído amistades**
- R- entonces realmente no es algo tan mal
- CS2- no no viéndolo así no está mal
- R- @@@
- CS2- no @@@
- R- porque entonces no es algo malo porque- bueno a lo mejor en las clases de inglés de por sí eso es lo que te piden no? pero ya aplicado en el trabajo
- CS2- **pus no no en sí no y creo que no he de ser la prim- la única que lo haga si no entonces habrá otras personas que apliquen el espanglish**

R- @@@ pues si puede ser que si ok bueno entonces pues ya pasando un poquito mas a estas partes de cómo aplicar la alternancia de lenguas de cómo hacer que se repitan las cosas o o que se parafrasee o se refrasee lo que-

CS2- uhu

R- con otras palabras estás diciendo lo mismo que no te entendieron bueno todo eso es lo que yo estudio así muy a detalle y eso es lo que analizo en las clases que voy con ustedes y de ahí saqué algunos pedacitos para que veas em para que te escuches como eso lo lo realmente se hace en la clase y entonces me interesa mucho saber por ejemplo de lo que escuches que tú me digas cuál es la función de eso que hiciste o porqué lo hiciste pero además ya después no sólo en cuestión de la clase um después a future o en tu lugar de trabajo cómo funciona eso mismo entonces sería que me dieras tu opinión de lo que se está dando en la clase pero también de lo que realmente se usa en el trabajo o sea una cosa es lo que se estudia y otra cosa lo que se- realmente se aplica en el trabajo

CS2- uhu

R- entonces vamos a ver por ejemplo este primero aquí estás haciendo un: como una alternancia de lenguas

CS2- @@@

R- estás hablando en inglés pero de repente

CS2- usé español

R- uhu dices aquí en este caso dijiste un para en lugar de <En> for </En> o <En> tu </En> o algo así

CS2- uhu algo así

R- pero rápido lo cambiaste y después repites la palabra similar

E1-

CS2- si

R- uhu

E1-

- R- ok
- CS2- porqué lo hice?
- R- uhu
- CS2- porque ah bueno **en ese momento e: se me se me fue que estaba yo en clase de inglés y entonces agarré y metí español y pues esten como lo he hecho en el trabajo entonces creo que se me quedó entonces pero cuando sentí que esten si me sabía la palabra pues dije pues es esta @@@ es esta entonces**
- R- uhu entonces por eso dijiste <imitating> para <En> for </En> <imitating>
- CS2- por <En> for </En> para <En> for </En> y: @@ no ma- **a veces no me doy cuenta de mis errores a veces honestamente yo hablo y pues dejo de que que fluya lo que- y mas cuando siento que estoy hablando bien entonces es como que dejo que corra entonces y ya si lo dije mal pues que me corrija como ahí pues ya vio que me corrigió el profesor entonces porque me dijo como decir <En> similar </En>**
- R- uhu
- CS2- **entonces ahí me corrigió entonces para mi es bueno porque por lo menos ya sé pronunciar otra palabra ya entonces no no me desagrada el hecho de que me corrijan me gu- no lo veo mal**
- R- uhu y en este caso esta repetición piensas que es una corrección porque no sólo lo repite el profe sino que tú luego lo repites y lo dices correctamente
- CS2- si si para mi yo siento que lo aprendí
- R- ah ok muy bien bueno este otro ejemplo
- CS2- uhu
- R- es también otro:
- CS2- otro espanglish @@
- R- uhu de español que- donde dicen <imitating> va de la mano </imitating> creo que lo intestaste decir en inglés pero al final creo que no quedaste satisfecha no sé y dijiste <imitating> va de la mano </imitating> y ya

E2-

CS2- uhu si no no no pude: no me sabía como decir <imitating> lo van- van de la mano </imitating> por ejemplo a veces le digo a mis clientes que presionen te por ejemplo le digo <imitating> <En> alt Q and alt control and alt Q is together </En> </imitating> pero cómo le digo que vamos de la mano van juntos entonces ahí si esten (.) por lo menos cuando ya les maestro mis dos deditos a los clientes uhu yo ya sé que me entienden pero yo no no sabía si me iban a entender en clase entonces es lo que yo no- yo por eso major dije <imitating> va de la mano </imitating> por ejemplo ahí la otra vez había otra palabra que yo me tomé la molestia de buscar <@> qué significaba </@> porque no le entendí igual les di el significado a ellos porque yo dije si yo no le entendí pues me imagino que ellos tampoco le van a entender entonces y **por lo general soy muy dada a eso de que si no me entienden por lo menos digo en español en español**

R- uhu y ya ellos hacen el vínculo no? de qué es

CS2- de qué es

R- muy bien muy bien @@@

CS2- @@@

R- bueno este otro ejemplo este ya es más que de una repetición es de la palabra <En> relationship </En> esten has de cuenta que alguien dice <En> relationship </En> y tú lo- y lo repite alguien más

CS2- uhu

R- tú lo repites de alguien más pero también hay varias repeticiones de <En> is is is </En> o algo así a ver vamos a escucharlo

E3-

CS2- **no sabía eh no sabía que otras pa- palabras unir ahí** entonces no no yo

R- crees que lo hiciste entonces como para ganar tiempo para pensar

CS2- para pensar porque **no sabía cuál otras palabras unir y estaba yo muy nerviosa cuando me tocó exponer estaba yo muy nerviosa porque esa creo que fue una exposición que no estudié no um no me preparé**

**antes de clases salí tarde de trabajar no me dio chance de prepararme entonces** como que mi cacahuete no coordinaba bien

R- @@@

CS2- y ya esten no sabía que- **entonces fue así que como un tiempo para pensar y no sé si en ese momento creo que si llevaba una hoja entonces lo leí y ya fue que ya pude más o menos explicarlo porque quería tratar de decir lo que decía la hoja entonces al querer tratar de decir la hoja por eso me quedé <En> is is is </En>** y ya no ya no pude

R- querías ganar tiempo entonces

CS2- si ya no pude si ahí fue mi error no fue mi error fue

R- más fue una estrategia

CS2- de tiempo y ya no sé

R- ok está bien

CS2- yo no sé si- maestra usted no sé si me ha entendido cuando yo expongo

R- si si bastante bien uhu

CS2- sí?

R- bastante bien a todos los que han pasado realmente unos más lentos que otros pero si tratan de de

CS2- de decirlo

R- de decirlo bien si se les entiende bueno vamos a ver este el último de de <En> repetition </En> aquí también repites uno de dices <En> study market </En> o algo así

CS2- um: porque creo que lo dije <En> market study </En>

R- uhu

E4-

R- <En> study study studying the marketing </En>

CS2- @@@ <@> no sabía como decirlo </@> no sabía como decirlo era- fue la última clase no sabía como decirlo porque yo yo tenía en mi cabeza que

era <En> /market market/ study </En> y luego creo que el maestro me corrigió y el me dijo que era estudio de- <En> study market </En>

R- <En> study market </En>

CS2- entonces yo no sab- **todavía no no cachaba cómo pronunciarlo y entonces tenía que decirlo tres veces hasta que me saliera**

R- hasta que saliera

CS2- hasta que saliera @@@

R- ah ok

CS2- hasta que me saliera porque todavía no yo yo en mi cabeza tenía <En> mar- market study </En> y um y se decía <En> study market </En> entonces yo tenía que para mi repetirlo varias veces para que se me pudiera quedar

R- ah ok ok como para tratar de recordarlo memorizarlo tal vez no?

CS2- si si

R- ah ok muy bien

CS2- um no- **de hecho cuando no entiendo las palabras o algo así y las tengo que repetir para- es repetir repetir repetir hasta que se me quede cómo pronunciarlo**

R- ah ok ok muy bien bueno y estos son son así como que estrategias de comunicación que vimos o que suceden en la clase

CS2- uhu

R- pero sucede lo mismo en tu trabajo? o crees que-

CS2- si

R- -pasa lo mismo? o?

CS2- si lo hago

R- si?

CS2- si lo hago

R- si?

- CS2- **si lo hago de hecho hoy en la plática con mi amigo creo que repetí varias veces las palabras porque él se quedaba- cuando se quedaba así de la cara de no te entiendo entonces ya decía creo que lo dije mal @@@ entonces volvía a repetirlo y ya hasta que él veía que ya no me salía la palabra me corregía y ya que me corregía lo repetía y él me decía y él ya me decía que estaba bien entonces entonces no sé si para mi es una estrategia o no o yo: ya: para que:**
- R- naturalmente lo haces
- CS2- uhu ya lo hago
- R- ah ok ok no pues es es natural es natural al final de cuentas cuando uno repite a veces es inconciente a veces si es conciente porque pues por ejemplo en la clase si cuando lo repites a lo mejor dices ah como en este caso no? que dices el profe me lo dijo así yo lo repito hasta que me salga bien es conciente la repetición pero a veces puede ser inconciente o sea no
- CS2- **no a veces a veces yo le- por ejemplo a veces me toca algo que no sé pronunciar y lo pronuncio pronuncio por ejemplo como le digo con lo del <En> /stapple/ </En> yo primero lo pre- lo este lo pregunté la primera vez que lo dije los muchachos me corrigieron y lo volví a decir y me volvieron a corregir y lo volvie- lo volví a decir y ya me salió y me felicitaron todos**
- R- ah mira que bien
- CS2- entonces mi trabajo me ha servido para aprender para yo enseñar y no sé y relacionarme con los demás entonces en ese otro- yo cuando esten estaba en la secundaria yo dije <imitating> ay que voy a estudiar inglés si no me va a servir como para lo que yo quiero </imitating> pero pues ahora que lo veo si sirve @@@
- R- claro que sirve si no no tienes trabajo
- CS2- si exactamente si sirve
- R- si si si bueno pues esto es toda la entrevista esten quisieras comentar algo más en cuento tus estrategias de comunicación o algo así
- CS2- eso de estrategias de comunicación más que nada es- no son- yo no le llamaría estrategias de comunicación si no va de cada persona de la

persona de cómo es porque si siempre va a estar así penoso y todo y no se atreve a preguntar entonces creo que ahí se va a quedar entonces yo digo que **a veces hay que hacer un lado la pena preguntar y aunque esté mal aunque lo digas mal intentarlo porque si no lo intentas de nada sirve**

R- o sea tú crees que influye mucho la actitud para que-

CS2- la actitud si

R- puedan hacer este tipo de estrategias de repetir-

CS2- si

R- parafrasear o-

CS2- para mi si

R- cambiar de idioma

CS2- para mi si yo: lo veo así **sí influye mucho la actitud y la persona la persona en sí porque si la persona tiene de <imitating> ah es que no me lo dijo ah es que no se decirlo ah es que no sé que significa </imitating> entonces si tú como persona no te- si es para bien tuyo mismo y no te preocupas por mejorarlo y vas a esperar a que venga el mundo y te lo resuelva pues entonces ahí no entonces yo digo si **tienes tú como persona motivarte échate ganas y aunque lo hagas mal inténtalo dicen****

R- inténtalo otra vez

CS2- dicen por ahí esten mientras más piedritas en el camino trata de brincarlas brincarlas brincarlas hasta que lo logres

R- claro claro pues si qué más nos queda no? @@@

CS2- pues si @@@ pues si

R- bueno pues muchas gracias

<end CS2-IC1-FA-01.04.14\_43:43>

**Transcription Interview TB**

TB = female Mexican teacher from group B

R = researcher

E = Extract

<end TB-E IB1-TB-21.02.14\_00:46>

TB- bueno mira

R- cómo aprendiste inglés?

TB- yo este: aprendí inglés en la ciudad de México en un instituto que se llama instituto mexicano norteamericano de relaciones culturales A C que: ya no existe por cierto se transformó a otro instituto pero en donde se empezaba de cero

R- uhu

TB- y ibas avanzando niveles hasta llegar a: a un avanzado y después empezabas con un <En> teacher´s </En>

R- uhu

TB- yo lo hice llegué hasta <En> teacher´s </En> e: todo eso me llevó como tres años y medio

R- uhu

TB- después e: cuando terminé mi preparatoria decidí estudiar la carrera de computación administrativa (.) sistemas de computación administrativa en la *university 3* (.) estudié tres años de cuatro no terminé a razón de que pues la universidad era un poco cara

R- uhu

TB - yo me la costeaba y tenía yo una media beca desafortunadamente mi promedio iba excelente como con 9.6

R- excelente

- TB- pero el problema fue que me topé con dos profesoras que: sin echarle la culpa a ellas daban dos materias a las cuales inclusive se les conocía como las coladeras
- R- uhu
- TB- porque eran materias en donde la mayoría se atoraban
- R- uhu
- TB- te lo platico rápido éramos unos 45 alumnos en el grupo y sólo pasaron creo que tres de ambas materias
- R- uhu uhu
- TB- entonces si era muy e: muy difícil el aprobar entonces lo fui dejando dije el próximo semestres me quitaron mi media beca y ya no continué
- R- uhu
- TB- por x o y me gustó ya daba clases de inglés porque ya había terminado mi <En> teacher´s </En> y empecé dar clases de inglés y me gustó el dinero
- R- tu tu <En> teacher´s </En> de qué? de-?
- TB- es un <En> teacher´s </En> diploma no es un <En> teacher´s degree </En> como <En> master </En> no no no es un <En> teacher´s diploma </En> que tú obtienes después de hacer unos avanzados haces un año y medio más y te dan un <En> teacher´s diploma </En> que está avalado por la: embajada americana
- R- ok
- TB- y está registrado en la Secretaría de Educación Pública hasta hace unos años podía yo dar clases perfectamente o- obtener inclusive una plaza en *high school 1* con ese diploma
- R- ah muy bien
- TB- podía haberlo revalidad inclusive con el famoso e: <En> COTE? </En>
- R- el <En> COTE </En> que están- uhu
- TB- exactamente y podía haber dado clases en una universidad pero nunca lo hice aparte de que pues me desenganché al irme yo a *City 4* cuando

terminó la universidad bueno que me salí me quedé un año más en *City 8* e: en la misma escuela donde iba yo a dar clases una escuela particular de monjas y me fui a *City 4* porque mi hermano se me adelantó y me invitó a ir a *City 4* bueno me fui a *City 4* allá empecé a trabajar como maestra de inglés igual pues porque no tenía mucha experiencia en turismo y poco a poco fui ahí agarrando la (.) la la pues la idea de qué era trabajar en turismo los puestos y demás

R- uhu

TB- de hecho les comentaba en la clase no? que pensé- vi el anuncio que decía <En> steward </En> y decía no pues <En> steward </En> no hombre! excelente suena excelente y era pues el lava platos sorpresa no es para mujeres era para hombres bueno DE *City 4* estuve ahí: bueno en ese en dos hoteles como tres años y medio o cuatro y después me fui a trabajar a: a lo que es el turismo en agencia de viajes y ya de ahí estuve unos cuatro años y decidí: conocí a alguien de aquí de *City 3* tengo unos parientes aquí y dije por qué no? y me vine a *City 3* me hice de amistades y de algunos conocidos y me vine para acá a dar clases de inglés igual en la uni- en la: *Language school 1* con el *name 1* ahí estuve año y medio en el inter conocí a alguien más que me llevó al *university 4* que también es a nivel universitario ahí di clases como dos años y medio y: después e: por problemas familiares me retiré de *City 3* por como cinco meses mi mamá se enfermó y tuve que salir a México y luego regresé y ya que mi mamá desafortunadamente falleció este me volví a ubicar acá en el *high school 1* igual dando clases de inglés pero después de tres años pues se surgieron algunos ras- rocecillos ahí con la coordinadora y: pues ni modo ya no pude seguir ahí y alguien me me dijo <imitating> en la UQRoo están buscando </imitating> pues vine a la universidad e: llené unos eh no sé requisitos que ellos necesitaban como exámenes entrevistas de hecho entre los trece que vinimos yo fui la treceaba porque iban a entrevistar sólo a doce y número de la suerte trece entré yo y fui la más alta

R- ah qué bien

TB- y me dieron contratos nada más para ayudarlos en el *language school 3* pero se acabó eso y cuando eso se acabó yo dije no pues yo necesito retomar mis estudios e investigué todo lo que necesitaba para entrar a lengua inglesa pude revalidar algunos niveles con el con el <En> First

Certificate de Cambridge </En> y entonces entré ya a la carrera y la hice en cuatro años en vez de cinco

R- uhu

TB- y ya terminé y obviamente como había dejado buena imagen de mi vaya de mi-

R- de tu aprovechamiento

TB- si de de de la forma en que yo había enseñado a los alumnos los comentarios de los ex-alumnos que eran pues bastante buenos mis calificaciones eran muy buenas pues e: dijeron <imitating> en cuento tú termines te reincorporas </imitating> y efectivamente en cuando yo terminé hablé con las personas que estaban a cargo que eran prácticamente las mismas de cuando yo entré y me me volvieron a colocar

R- a qué bien

TB- en niveles del *language school 3* hasta hace dos semestres que ya me dieron un nivel dos de lengua inglesa inglés de lengua inglesa y ahora este curso de inglés para negocios QUE por cierto este libro yo lo localicé por internet cuando trabajé para ellos en esos meses en el *language school 3* me pidieron que hiciera pues toda una investigación de los recursos que se podían jalar o de con los que se contaban inventario para poder armar esto de <En> English for Specific Purposes </imitating> ves?

R- ah ok ok

TB- entonces yo conseguí no sólo ese libro sino que es toda una serie porque es <En> English for business English for humanities English for um medicine English for engineering English for:: </En>

R- todos-

TB- <En> uh: history </En> algo así um no <En> archeology </En> o algo así

R- todos son relac- como de la misma serie de este mismo libro

TB- es la misma serie es la misma serie los encuentras los encuentras en el internet a través de bueno no lo traigo el mío pero pero es a través de: de Thomson Thomson Heinle son personas que- bueno es un publicista que lo maneja e: otro otro distribuidor en *City 12* y yo con ellos me comuniqué a

través del internet y a través del teléfono y ya los mandaron fue que les gustó y entonces ya los aplicaron a a la carrera de de sistemas comerciales como parte de de de los material que se lleva

R- además de este material encontraste algún otro?

TB- pues en el *language school 3* tienen muchos de- desafortunadamente ya están muy: muy obsoletos

R- pero así de <En> business? </En>

TB- mmm había varios y había varios pero eran más avanzados

R- pero- porque yo fui pero pero no encontré

TB- ahí en el *language school 3*?

R- uhu fui pero no había

TB- **bueno en el *language school 3* había pero son muy obsoletos estamos hablando de libros publicados en 1980 y tantos 70 y tantos y casi todos enfocados al secretariado**

R- ah ok

TB- <En> English for secretaries </En> ves?

R- no no realmente como negocios

TB- no era más- decían algunos <En> English for Business </En> pero todo lo que se planteaba tanto en <En> readings </En> como en <En> writings </En> co- era labor de una secretaria (.) y de uno que otro um um: (.) e: responsabilidad de los gerentes pero así que se planteara en forma más um (.) abierta general sobre temas en sí que cubran todo lo que es un negocio no entonces por eso me dijeron <imitating> tenemos que conseguir otro tú búscale que que más o menos se adapte a a lo que tenemos aquí en esta región y que sea vaya que los chavos también aprovechen </imitating> porque la primera unidad tú sabes que

R- claro

TB- está enfocada pos a eso a que ellos sepan cómo (.) cómo um iniciar en esta vida laborar no? darles el empujoncito

- R- exactamente entonces realmente más que negocios es más como vida laboral
- TB- como vida laboral sí porque es- tiene mucho vocabulario de negocios de hecho tiene un- una atrás su co- su compendio de palabras el famoso glosario (.) que que obviamente están dentro de las lecciones pero que por lo regular no: no va- no se cubre dentro del programa cosa que a mí me me gustaría hacerlo pero como te das cuenta **es muy poco tiempo del semestre si lo quieres poner así en tu estudio como que es no son ni semestres *name 2* estamos hablando de cuatrimestre ni siquiera cuatro meses estamos hablando de tres meses y tres semanas**
- R- exactamente son como que-
- TB- tres punto tres
- R- se supone que son 16 semanas pero realmente de esas usan dos como de exámenes
- TB- y ahorita que se nos atraviesa Semana Santa e: los alumnos obviamente también se van a ese <En> break </En> y el maestro igual y regresa todo mundo <imitating> en qué nos quedamos? </imitating> como que te desconectas
- R- ok si si realmente ahí (xxx) largo
- TB- entonces he ahí
- R- ahora un poquito más sobre sobre ti e: me has platicado ahorita como tu experiencia con lo que has estado estudiando y toda la cosa no? pero como usante del idioma inglés o sea como como que usuaria del idioma inglés qué experiencias has tenido donde realmente has tenido que aplicar la lengua
- TB- bueno **donde he tenido contacto directo con gente de habla inglesa NATIVOS de habla inglesa es *City 4* y ahí si no lo hablaba si no: eh eh vaya un inglés cotidiano un inglés básico intermedio bien hablado no comes porque dependes del idioma entonces es e- es algo que que en la zona norte del Estado sí se requiere que se TENGA eh bien cimentado esto de que tú puedas expresarte y que ENTIENDAS lo que te expresa la gente de habla inglesa en ese sentido pero aquí en *City 3* mi experiencia ha sido que a la gente no le interesa**

- R- ah sí? o sea no?
- TB- eso es lo que a mi- ese sentir me da en en general en la población del sur del Estado porque se le han abierto varias oportunidades de tomar cursos como e: *language course 1* que yo también estuve participando en ese programa y fui a cursos me entrenaron y demás y no se hizo nada después está *language course 2* que hace poco hace como un año se trató de poner junto con la *university 1* en el centro y la gente tampoco respondió respondió muy poca gente a ese programa y **aquí dentro de la cuestión universitaria del ambiente universitario yo veo que los alumnos el inglés lo ven como un mero requisito** no? y sobre todo ciertas carreras caro obviamente por razones muy obvias lengua inglesa eh lo va a tener como como pan nuestro de cada día y y quien esté en lengua inglesa y no: le le guste o no le le tome el saborcito aunque no le encante pero que le tome el sabor y la importancia al idioma simple y sencillamente no la va a hacer (.) te- no termina la carrera (.) o mi experiencia ha sido que la mayoría de los alumnos que les cuesta mucho el inglés (.) se cambian de lengua inglesa a otra carrera la abandonan porque se dan cuenta que después del tercero cuarto semestre todo es en inglés y y como no pueden con el idioma porque piensan que es nada más <imitating song> pollito-chicken gallina-hen lápiz-pencil y pluma-pen </imitating song> y y uno que otro eh vaya (.) tiempo sencillo como presente pasado futuro no se ponen a ver que después NO es la gramática lo que se les exige sino que se puedan de- desenvolver de una forma coherente y con un idio- con un lenguaje ya más académico y entonces ahí es donde muchos se desesperan y dicen <imitating> es que yo ya no puedo con esto </imitating>
- R- claro claro no pero además no sé tú como ves? los de lengua inglesa de por sí ellos su enfoque es el inglés
- TB- sí
- R- pero por ejemplo en este caso de inglés para negocios donde- a mi se me hace muy raro ver gente de todos lados de todas las carreras en este curso cuando está destinado a sistemas comerciales
- TB- posiblemente posiblemente ves gente de diferentes carreras porque esto es el sistema lo que está provocando eso primero que nada esta materia debió ser planeada únicamente para la gente que está en finanzas

- R- y en sistemas
- TB- y en sistemas comerciales NO tiene nada que ver ahí gente ni de RI ni de lengua inglesa ni de derecho porque se dan casos que la gente dice </imitating> yo tengo un buen inglés o me defiendo o ya tomé mi nivel intermedio que es el que me piden para poder retomar bien este este esta materia </imitating> y se inscriben (.) porque se los permite el tutor porque no hay- el sistema está abierto para que tú tomes materias de x o y carrera y que no tiene nada que ver con tu carrera para que tú hagas los famosos créditos
- R- cuando tú dices el sistema te refieres a-
- TB- al sistema hecho por la *universidade 1* el sistema abierto
- R- donde te inscribe?
- TB- no no el sistema de la universidad por eso te decía que si tu ibas a grabar esto el sistema tiene muchas fallas y una de esas fallas es esa
- R- ok ok bueno pero enfocándonos un poquito más a la parte de-
- TB- de la cuestión del inglés del idioma
- R- uhu
- TB- bueno lo chicos de sistemas comerciales y de: finanzas (.) ellos piensan que terminando la carrera sobre todo los que están estudiando aquí en *city 3* la mayoría es la mayoría (1) que no lo necesitan (1) porque te voy a decir cuál es la mentalidad de un alumno a mi parecer de de in- de de de sistemas comerciales aquí en *city 3* (4) perdón <coughs> yo salgo de mi carrera pongo un negocio (.) o cervecería o vendo una- o abro una zapatería o abro:: no sé renta de sillas y de: mesas para fiestas (1) desafortunadamente muchos piensan así MUY rara vez de diez alumnos tal vez dos tal vez tres y con mucha suerte tengan ambición de irse a otro lado a ver que hay en el comercio que les puede aportar el viajar el salir de su huevito *City 3* (.) para que ellos se desarrollen profesionalmente porque piensan que terminar la carrera es eso y que entonces como sólo voy a tener un un negocio o que mi papi me lo hereda o que mi abuelo lo dejó y ahora yo lo tengo o que ya lo abrí porque mi-tengo dinero o porque tengo esa iniciativa y ya lo abrí no es un negocio que esté abierto a gente de habla inglesa sino que es para la población local por ejemplo muchos

tienen esa mentalidad te acuerdas cuando le pregunté yo a a *student 11* que qué pensaban hacer y que fue lo que me dijo voy a abrir una zapatería vas a usar el inglés en la zapatería? si sobre todo está aquí en la *avenue 1*?

R- no

TB- muy rara vez

R- entonces realmente tu percepción del sur es que no se usa el inglés fuera

TB- no hay

R- pero en el norte-

TB- pero a PESAR a pesar *name 2* a pesar que tienen como vecino que tienen un país de lengua inglesa de le- que es un país en donde la gente habla el inglés como primera lengua segunda lengua es el español tengo entendido Belice si? son idiomas oficiales es el idioma oficial el inglés en Belice entonces es increíble que muchos ni siquiera conocen la *free zone 1* o van a la *free zone 1* y obviamente como los empleados ahí hablan también español ellos aunque sepan preguntar algo en inglés prefieren utilizar su lenguaje a ese a ese tipo de de comportamiento me refiero yo

R- ah ok

TB- entonces es obvio que ven que el inglés está como parte de los requisitos de su carrera y lo ven como meramente <imitating> me va a servir para qué? para tener créditos y poder terminar esto más rápido </imitating>

R- ah ok

TB- eso es el caso de este muchacho del que estábamos hablando hace rato

R- bueno y algo que mencionaste hace un ratito relacionado con lo que tú decías que trabajabas y tenías oportunidad de hablar e:

TB- el inglés en *City 4*

R- inglés con gente nativa

TB- claro

R- tuviste oportunidad de hablar inglés con gente no nativa? o sea por ejemplo alemanes franceses italianos

- TB- muy rara vez mira en la agencia de viajes donde yo eh trabajé bueno en el hotel si llegaba gente de Italia llegaba gente de de Brazil pero la mayoría trataba de hablarme en su idioma porque no hablaban inglés
- R- ah ok
- TB- curiosamente te digo muy rara vez algún italiano me habló en inglés muy rara vez o sea me hablaban yo creo que por el parecido con el idioma no? me hablaban en italiano algunas palabras en español igual hacía yo con los de Brazil <cough> perdón ahora si llegué a tener en UNA o dos ocasiones Alemanes claro hablábamos en inglés pero te te estoy hablando te estoy hablando te estoy hablando de (.) no sé uno o dos casos de entre mil casos
- R- ok ok entonces generalmente-
- TB- eran eran personas nativas del inglés porque el mercado que manejaba la agencia de viajes y el hotel donde yo trabajaba en su mayoría eran canadienses americanos e ingleses
- R- ah ok
- TB- uno que otro australiano pero casi siempre los que yo manejé en la agencia de viajes eran canadienses o um estadounidenses americanos
- R- bueno eso es interesante porque uno piensa pues tu sabes por estadísticas de turismo y demás piensa que hay más cuestión de interacción con otras personas que son no nativas
- TB- no nativas y-
- R- pero que hablan inglés
- TB- y si hablaba con gente que venía- había una cuenta que nos llegaba de California había mexicanos bueno chicanos que le llamamos gente que pochos no sé como quieras decirles que ya radicaban en Estados Unidos que ya trabajaban allá que ya vivían allá y que hablaban el español ya ya medio aporreado
- R- uhu uhu
- TB- el inglés medio lo lo con- lo lo hablaban sobre todo los hijos ya hablaban inglés pero yo con los adultos que eran con los que yo me entendía

hablaban español y fueron muy pocos casos pero pero hablaba en español con ellos NO hablábamos en inglés

R- ah mira que interesante

TB- uhu venían de de *city 13* de *city 14*

R- bueno ahora pasando un poquito más a cuestiones del inglés como lengua en general un poquito cortando la conexión con la escuela o como usuario tu percepción acerca del uso del inglés o del inglés en el mundo cuál es?

TB- **pues para mí que estamos si no es que ya en las puertas de: que sea nombrado el idioma universal yo creo que: (.) definitivamente la persona que hoy en día no habla inglés está: cerrándose a una gran oportunidad de comunicación con otras personas porque pues si mientras se mueve en un círculo donde todo mundo habla su propio idioma pues no sé estamos hablando tal vez de una persona ya mayor que no lo va a utilizar ya laboralmente que ya no va a tener un desarrollo en una empresa por ejemplo pero lo jóvenes pensando en gente menor de 35 años para abajo pues si no lo habla se está el mismo cerrando puertas importantes me entiendes? y eso es lo que le trato siempre de decir a mis alumnos ustedes tienen la oportunidad de no salir hablando en inglés maravillosamente porque eso no lo vamos a lograr jamás ni un <En> native speaker </En> habla el inglés al cien por ciento eso es un tabú eso es una creencia que <imitating> hablo el 20% hablo el 50 hablo el 80 </imitating> son aproximaciones hasta cierto punto ridículas que no para eso están las autoridades y los organismos que te evalúan mediante exámenes y demás entonces yo pienso *name 2* que**

R- que es es muy importante

TB- que es muy importante el que la persona lo sepa

R- y crees que el inglés sea una así como tu dijiste que es universal sea un idioma podrías tú considerar el inglés como un idioma internacional?

TB- claro que lo es

R- sí?

- TB- si porque desde que por ejemplo en India ya lo- es como su primera lengua te puedes imaginar todo lo que tuvo que haber pasado para que un país como India o como en África que hay un montón de idiomas un sin fin de lenguas el inglés sea ahorita punta de lanza y esté ahí como el principal medio de comunicación porque pues como son tantas tribus y tantas etnias que cómo te vas a comunicar con el que está a lo mejor de aquí a un kilómetro pero que ese no habla mi mi lengua pues a través de un idioma que sea eh eh que nos unifique y el inglés para mi es es es eso es un idioma que unifica es un idioma que reúne es un idioma que hace global es el idioma global de la comunicación
- R- y para qué- qué es- qué llega a tu mente cuando piensas que es algo internacional que el inglés es algo internacional? a qué- como qué- cómo cómo estableces tú el hecho de que algo sea internacional?
- TB- pues que atraviesa no solamente fronteras atraviesa también costumbres atraviesa también credos (.) porque no es lo mismo por ejemplo um que tú le expliques a una persona (.) que tiene una religión x por ejemplo volvemos a África no? que tiene unas creencias súper distintas a las occidentales que le expliques lo que es Dios por ejemplo lo que es la filosofía si tú se lo explicas en su idioma pues el va a entender no? conforme: le han enseñado siempre pero si tu le explicas a esa persona desde el punto de- en inglés lo que es realmente Dios lo va a comprender todavía en un grado mayor (.) porque van vas va vas va a captar el sentir de otras personas cómo sienten otras personas el significado de Dios por un decir es distinto eso es algo que que simple y sencillamente tan fácil como ir a ver una película que está doblada a tu idioma no es lo mismo que verla en inglés
- R- directamente en inglés
- TB- directamente tú la sientes diferente sientes diferente el actuar de los actores de las actrices suena más real te gusta más a MI me gusta más que que ver una película doblada así de fácil
- R- o con subtítulos
- TB- así oh menos

- R- ok ok entonces lo que estabas diciendo es que este tip- este este tipo de idea de que el inglés es de suma importancia hoy en día para- en general para una comunicación global como dijiste eh tú piensas que ellos por ejemplo no lo tienen inculcado realmente eh tal cual?
- TB- **NO de hecho he llegado hasta sentir si puedo decirlo así que hay alumnos que lo odian**
- R- sí?
- TB- y eso únicamente lo he visto yo aquí en *city 3* porque en *city 4* cuando yo tuve a mis alumnos obvio son alumnos que trabajaban en hotelería camaristas gente de bares
- R- claro tienen otro contexto
- TB- **tienen otro sentir dicen <imitating> esto es una herramienta que a mí me va a servir para ayudarme a mí misma y a mi familia </imitating> aquí NO aquí lo odian porque lo ven como un mero requisito** es muy raro el que te dice <imitating> no hombre yo lo quiero aprender </imitating> raro es el alumno que viene y te dice <imitating> maestra yo necesito aprenderlo porque sabe que yo tengo planes quiero estudiar fuera quiero conocer otro mundo </imitating> la gente que lo ve así es porque se quiere abrir fronteras y se quiere abrir diferentes escenarios *name 2* así de sencillo
- R- entonces es muy poca la población que te podría decir que diga <imitating> hay yo el inglés es importante </imitating>
- TB- muy poca al menos es con lo que yo me encontrado con lo que yo me he encontrado muy poca
- R- y tú llevas más o menos como cuánto tiempo trabajando aquí?
- TB- eh trabajando en la universidad tengo: a: bueno de trabajar fueron uno dos se puede decir que ya tres años tres años trabajando en la universidad dos años y medio o tres años
- R- ok ok entonces realmente piensas que por ejemplo los estudiantes podrían usar el inglés si están más en el norte que aquí en el sur de plano
- TB- definitivamente sí

R- de plano aquí en el sur

TB- sí es otra visión la del norte que la del sur

R- pero no yo no estoy hablando de la visión de los estudiantes sino la realidad o sea lo que real que sucede crees que aquí en el sur realmente pudieran tener esa interacción en el uso del inglés?

TB- de hecho lo pueden hacer porque te digo está ahí a un lado un país de habla inglesa la gente que nos visita de Belice pues la mayoría son gente de color tú lo sabes? no interactúan mucho pero:: de hecho **yo creo que la universidad necesita promover más intercambios si realmente quieren um que esto se se tome ya: que tome otro otro camino que tome otra- que el alumno tome otra idea por eso te digo es su visión que el alumno lo visualice de otra forma que no lo visualice como un simple requisito o que me va a servir nada más para mientras acabo mi carrera o hago mi tesis después ya no me va a servir**

R- claro uhu ok

TB- ves? entonces este si se cambiaría muchas muchas ideas

R- muchas las las ideas-

TB- muchas mentalidades muchos puntos de vista

R- ok muy bien ok ahora vamos un poquito más a profundidad en cuanto al libro acabas de decirme que tú fuiste la precursora principal para que-

TB- pues fui la que lo localizó me gustó porque es una serie y: porque no exactamente es sólo este libro no? o sea yo lo vi y dije <imitating> pues está muy bien <En> English for business </En> </imitating> pero mmm la idea que era que yo consiguiera libros para todos los- las carreras y pues obviamente la la serie es de cinco o seis libros que cubriría bueno <En> English for- for the- </En> mira es <En> English for the science </En> creo que es <En> English for science </En> algo así que cubriría todo lo que es ciencias de la salud enfermería farmacia y medicina y ya pronto creo odontología o psicología entonces pero no lo hicieron en medicina que se sigue dando? (.) el del *language school 3* no existe

R- no han usado el libro que recomendaste?

TB- NO no lo han implementado el único que han utilizado es éste

- R- ah ok
- TB- nada más en humanidades igual tampoco lo han usado
- R- ah bueno y y en cuestión de libros como para negocios encontraste algunos otros más que dijiste <imitating> estos no estos sí </imitating> o cómo fue?
- TB- muy pocos te repito no es fácil no recuerdo *name 3* ya hace tiempo de eso y: y déjame decirte eso fue hace seis años cinco o seis años
- R- ah ok ok
- TB- o sea estamos hablando ya de un tiempesito
- R- entonces no se ha hecho una renovación así como para ver-
- TB- NO que yo sepa no éste fue el que yo encontré y ese mismo fue el que se lanzó a los dos años o al año y medio que yo lo encontré no al AÑO que yo lo encontré yo estaba estudiando la carrera y me di cuenta
- R- ok ok pero qué bueno no? porque es tú aportación
- TB- pues si
- M - es tu aportación
- TB- ahora pues estoy dando la clase
- R- y ahora que das la clase lo encuentras útil para tus estudiantes realmente?
- TB- para mis estudiantes no
- R- no?
- TB- para los que tengo en este semestre no
- R- ok pero-
- TB- NO no para todos mira para los <En> native speakers </En> definitivamente no a excepción tal vez de *student 2* un poco y: nada más porque (.) definitivamente para *student 1* no lo encuentro-
- R- pero y para los demás?
- TB- **en general para los demás necesitaríamos situarlos en un mejor nivel de inglés porque eso es otro de los problemas que yo he identificado**

**los alumnos no están todos al mismo nivel** lo encuentro útil para gente como *student 3 student 4*

R- que son de lengua-

TB- um y *student 6* pero *student 6* no es de lengua inglesa

R- ah es de sistemas

TB- pero *student 6* pero *student 6* le pone le pone alma vida y corazón *student 6* se defiende bastante

R- si si si

TB- entonces es un grupo tan heterogéneo tan diferente unos de otros que yo no veo que ese libro sea el idóneo que pueda aplicarse para todos solamente para un grupo de dos o tres personas bueno un- una bina o tres- un trío

R- pero si podría aplicarse perfectamente si todos estuvieran al mismo nivel

TB- exactamente pero ni siquiera lo aplicaría para una persona de- nativa

R- ah ok

TB- definitivamente este libro no es para una persona nativa

R- no no esto se ve perfectamente-

TR- definitivamente no

R- en los objetivos es para los que están aprendiendo

TB- no para los que están aprendiendo en un nivel intermedio pos-intermedio el cuál no tienen la mayoría de mis alumnos a excepción de dos

R- ahora referente al programa yo veo que el programa que nos diste al principio e: ahí marca prácticamente como que describe el libro dentro del programa

TB- uhu

R- pero tú consideras que podría ser mucho mejor si realmente se diseñara un programa y se buscaran mejor los materiales entorno a ese programa?

- TB- definitivamente por ejemplo **podríamos implementar un (1) más a::: cuestión a::: audio-visual porque nada más se tiene audio que está prácticamente inmerso en las lecciones y que ellos pueden acceder a a un <En> script </En> donde lo pueden leer y a mí me gustaría que se hicieran adiciones de videos que cómo sirven los videos porque no solamente lo van a escuchar lo van a visualizar y que se elaboren ejercicios en base a esos videos y: y obviamente no dejar de utilizar lo que viene ahí pero si ha- habría que que hacerlo un poquito más más un comunicativo y al mismo tiempo más um um: funcional <En> FUNCTIONAL </En> eso es lo que se- a eso es a lo que me refiero me refiero a esto de que para qué voy a utilizar esto en mi vida cotidiana**
- R- uhu exactamente
- TB- por ejemplo yo aquí le pedí a ellos que trajeran su <En> application form </En> que me elaboraran su <En> resume </En> su propio <En> resume </En> y obviamente los proyectos ayudan bastante porque se se están enfocando a la realidad de empresas por ejemplo que fue el primero empresas que son de aquí que ellos conocen aunque sean empresas pequeñas medianas o grandes ellos están investigando acerca de eso y utilizando el inglés para presentarlo ahora las otras lecciones que vienen son todavía más interesantes porque ya es presentar productos dar opinión acerca de productos hacer que los que están escuchando la presentación también tengan manera de decir <imitating> estoy de acuerdo o no </imitating> o aportar
- R- ok más discusión
- TB- más discusión
- R- que presentación
- TB- así es y enfocado siempre a la realidad porque pueden hablarme de teléfono- comparar dos teléfonos celulares por ejemplo o dos tipos de computadoras o no sé algún servicio telefónico o algún servicio inclusive de alguna tienda con otra en cuanto a cualquier artículo
- R- o sea realmente tienen- los temas que vienen en el libro realmente tienen una aplicación real

TB- **una aplicación real pero necesitamos todavía más (.) o sea es- es- se se toma mucho el tiempo el libro en cuestiones de um: (.) vocabulario gramática que digo no está mal pero tendríamos que adicionarle adherirle otras cosas que se enfoquen a su realidad al mundo no nada más *city 3* hablemos del mundo (.) fuera de *city 3* puede ser *city 4* puede ser *city 8* puede ser cualquier país o el mismo país pero fuera de su de su um entorno**

R- en donde sea que puedan aplicarlo

TB- que ellos vean <imitating> ah pues si me voy acá lo voy a aplicar y cómo lo puedo aplicar y de qué forma va a ser la mejor forma </imitating> o sea

R- claro entonces tú piensas que en detalle tiene bastante información aplicable a la vida real y una de las cosas que he notado es como enfatizas en la clase por ejemplo la gramática y en eso sentido con lo que acabas de- así haciendo un vínculo con lo que acabas de decir de que a lo mejor necesitan un poquito más de cuestión comunicativa de qué manera relacionarías- qué tan importante es el que se comuniquen bien con esta parte de resaltar la gramática en la clase?

TB- bueno el libro obviamente es- em también va: dirigido a que el alumno obtenga un inglés más académico porque el el vocabulario se ve el tipo de de de de de expresiones y de frases y de palabras va enfocado a eso eh la famosa palabrita de esa de /indecisiveness/ porque podemos decir /indecision/ pero /indecision/ es (.) es algo muy gen- común no es lo mismo que tu digas /indecisiveness/ me entiendes? o sea ya es WOW no?

R- palabra más académica

TB- más académica más más de acuerdo al al al campo en el que se está estudiando que es el de los negocios el del- el de las ventas y el de la finanza no?

R- entonces qué importancia tiene el hecho de tener la gramática aquí para la cuestión comunicativa?

TB- pues yo pienso que- pues yo pienso que um al hacerlo más académico **el inglés académico definitivamente su base es la gramática o sea tú no puedes tener un inglés académico e: en toda la extensión de la palabra si no tiene una gramática bien cimentada si no sabes si un adverbio**

modifica a un sustantivo o a un verbo o si un adjetivo modifica a un adverbio o a un sustantivo porque ayer esa fue precisamente una una situación que no te- que que que ni siquiera este chico <En> native speaker </En> me pudo decir o sea si me dijo <imitating> un adverbio modifica (.) un sustantivo </imitating> y eso nunca va a ser ahí me di cuenta que que que el lado flaco inclusive de un <En> native speaker </En> es la gramática porque inclusive en español lo vemos hay veces que uno dice </imitating> bueno qué es un adverbio? y qué es un adjetivo? </imitating> entonces ve como también en un momento dado a él también lo lo lo lo envuelve no? aunque obviamente el dominio que él tiene sobre el idioma pues es es muy distinto a lo de los demás muchachos

R- pero entonces la gramática apoya a la cuestión comunicativa?

TB- es importantísima a no claro claro claro si si así es sin gramática o sea **no es que no no se deba ver gramática aquí no es que es es irrelevante NO hay que verla pero también hay que adherirle cosas que e- en la vida real (.) el uso** que esto que me estás dando a nivel gramática a nivel vocabulario yo voy a tener aquí y si lo puedo visualizar pues que padre que bueno pero si la gramática es-

R- es importante

TB- claro

R- muy bien muy bien ahora un poquito enfocándonos a la comunicación

TB- uhu

R- ahora una parte de lo que estoy investigando es precisamente es esa parte sobre las estrategias de comunicación que te platicaba antes y una de las cuestiones que trato de- o estoy tratando de averiguar es ahorita como estamos en el salón de clases es cómo por ejemplo e: un estudiante puede sobrevivir hacia un por ejemplo a un malentendido o cuando él está comunicándose y se da cuenta que la persona no le entendió o sea ese tipo de estrategias tipo pragmáticas dentro de la comunicación o sea cómo en ese sentido por ejemplo tú en tu caso si tú ves que una persona estás platicando con alguien y de repente te das cuenta estás platicando en inglés por supuesto y te das cuenta de que no te entendió algo cuál es tu reacción? qué es lo que haces? cuál es- qué?

- TB- **bueno en un momento dado trato de de de tra- vaya de explicarlo de otro de otro um en otra forma pero siempre sosteniendo mi punto de vista pero trato de explicarlos con ejemplos**
- R- ok ok
- TB- **los ejemplos están ahí porque digo em volvemos a esto de la visualización si tú visualizas no necesariamente un video pero si tú le pones en la- en la mente a alguien de lo que tú le quieres tratar de de de comunicar a través de un ejemplo la persona sabrá o no inglés pero lo va- su nivel será bajo pero lo va a visualizar lo va a ver dentro de su cabeza más fácilmente y entonces se va a dar la comunicación se va a dar el entendimiento**
- R- entonces tú lo explicarías en otras palabras y dando ejemplos
- TB- así es por ejemplo si yo puedo- estoy explicando que no e: um volviendo al tema de ayer por ejemplo en la clase si yo no me siento nerviosa o ansiosa antes de una presentación no? qué quiere decir eso? que yo soy una persona muy estable que soy muy segura de mi misma que no necesito que que me siento capaz de de de dominar cualquier- bueno si no me entiende lo que yo le estoy diciendo le digo </imitating> bueno por ejemplo en en tu caso si vas a dar una clase o si vas a exponer e: te sientes nervioso o no te sientes nervioso </imitating> como- trato de hacerle inclusive otra pregunta para ver si realmente <imitating> ah! </imitating> entonces cae a cuentas
- R- como que parafraseas?
- TB- como para- parafraseando pero al mismo tiempo le doy un ejemplo mira por ejemplo tú cuando vas a tener tu clase cómo te sientes? eh estás frente a tantas personas eh qué qué me puedes decir de eso? entonces ya entiende y dice <imitating> ah ok si <En> teacher </En> si me siento de esta forma o no me- </imitating> lo que pasó con *student 4 student 4* empezó a expresarse ves? Entonces pues haya dicho dos tres cosas incorrectamente gramaticalmente hablando no me interesó mucho sino que ella estaba apoyando su- MI opinión y al mismo tiempo estaba dando SU opinión y estaba diciendo esto es así porque todos sentimos lo mismo y entonces después entró *student 12* y dijo <imitating> si es cierto hasta los

actores y las actrices se sienten nerviosos <ono> ʃ ə lə lə ʃ ə lə lə </ono>  
</imitating>

R- exactamente y es el mismo caso cuando te das cuenta que por ejemplo en lugar de que- o sea estás platicando y la persona te malinterpreta o malentendiendo lo que tú dices es el mismo caso que haces? o sea lo vuelves a repetir o piensas que a lo mejor no es tan importante o si es importante?

TB- bueno porque ahí sería más bien choque de opiniones

R- no no no estoy hablando de choque de opiniones estoy hablando de que- una malinterpretación de lo que uno está diciendo

TB- ah bueno entonces si utilizas de nuevo **utilizas otras palabras y dices** <imitating> **mira déjame platicártelo de otra forma** </imitating> **y das otro ejemplo si si se puede decir que en esa situación lo vuelves manejar así mediante otras eh frases parafraseas das ejemplos si si si**

R- y esos son las micro estrategias que yo estoy observando cuando se habla entonces precisamente es eso en eso mi tema principal

TB- ese es tu tema de estudio

R- y cómo estas estrategias ayudan a la comunicación porque alguna cosa puede ser que por ejemplo te malinterprete alguien pero si no es algo tan importante pues tú sigues platicando pero si es algo importante entonces-

TB- si: claro tienes que decirle eh o **sobre todo cuando es un tema gramatical que no se ha comprendido no? yo- lo retomas de nuevo al día siguiente o aplicas otra otro um um: cómo decimos um si otros reactivos otros ejercicios de tal forma que ya les quede claro** y que los invites también a decir <imitating> sabe qué maestra no no no me ha quedado claro todavía </imitating> no?

R- claro claro muy bien y entonces en la clase yo ya vi como das muchos tips y todo para que se dé la comunicación para que puedan comunicarse los muchachos

TB- siempre los invito a que siempre lo hagan en parejas o en grupos de tres y que trabajen siempre en grupo de dos porque el libro no lo dice (.) yo estoy acostumbrada a que trabajen así desde que doy clases aquí en la en la *university 1* y desde *high school 1* porque el libro siempre traía <En> pair

work </En> y el <En> pair work </En> siempre ha sido para mi: pues una de las estrategias y de los de los recursos um a seguir no? sobre todo en grupos en donde pues a veces hay alumnos que no les interesa o sea a la mayoría no le interesa entonces siempre va a haber alguien y esa minoría tiene que jalarlos (.) no? y de repente como que ya les entre el gusanito y empieza la sensación de competencia y yo voy a hacerlo mejor que esta pareja y entonces se da eso de de las competencias de que yo puedo y si ellos pueden yo entonces nosotros podemos entonces se va haciendo una- pues un contagiadero de de de de um de interés que por lo menos le pre- le le pongan un poquito más de empeño a las cosas

R- claro claro no pero está muy bien y a mi me encanta por ejemplo mira personalmente tu clase porque les das muchos tips les enfatizas cosas

TB- pues a veces es difícil no te creas *name 2* porque- pero trato de- hubiera estado bien que me vieras en una de las clases del *language school 3* porque esto es es un libro te digo que yo lo he tenido que transformar porque no todo dice <En> pair work </En> casi todo es individual fíjate bien en el libro ya lo ya lo hojeaste?

R- si

TB- todo es <En> <reading> read and complete the sentences now match the phrasal verbs complete the sentences </reading> I don't see any- anything that says you know uh (.) pair work or work in groups of three </En> pero esto ya empieza ahí precisamente la idea del maestro ahí encaja ya el que el maestro dice <imitating> momento esto yo lo voy a transformar no lo voy a manejar así </imitating> (.) y lo adaptas

R- no y (xxx) sobre todo con los ejercicios que llevas y todo

TB- ahorita les acabo de mandar uno lo viste?

R- si si lo vi

TB- el de las <En> if clauses </En> primero fueron las las de cotidianas si te fijaste escogí como diez de inglés cotidiano pues para que se: (.) empapen un poquito de la estructura y ya las de abajo ya son más de inglés para negocios y las últimas definitivamente es inglés para negocios pero ellos tienen que crear ya su completar el <En> if clause </En> (.) entonces vamos a ver qué tal nos va para el martes me lo tienen que entregar

- R- yo espero que-
- TB- que lo podamos ver claro tú ya no vas a estar vas a *city 9* no?
- R- si pero- ojalá yo les deseo que les vaya muy bien tanto a ti (como a ellos)
- TB- esperemos en Dios que si
- 
- R- de todas manera la siguiente parte de la entrevista se refiere un poquito ya regresando un poquito a las estrategias que estoy analizando
- TB- ok
- R- este ahí si no sé a lo mejor es algo a lo mejor es algo complicado pero yo sé que tú eres muy buena en eso porque quiero me respondas
- TB- ah quién sabe @@
- R- me respondas con tu cachucha de maestra pero también quisiera que me respondas después de eso con tu cachucha de usuaria del inglés
- TB- ok ok
- R- una cosa es lo que le haces en la clase como maestra como le das énfasis a estas estrategias y otra es cuando estás en- con tus amigos o platicando platicando fuera
- TB- <En> okey dokey okey dockey </En> muy bien bien bien bien a ver
- R- entonces para eso escogí unos pequeños ejemplos de lo que hacemos en clase sólo para que tengas un punto para que te acuerdes un poquito de algunas actividades de lo que dices en clase y entonces ya me des tu opinión
- TB- uhu uhu
- R- para que quede más claro a qué me refiero? por ejemplo en esta parte de acá por ejemplo:: um <En> repetition repetition </En> cuando estamos en la clase (.) no sé si lo vas a alcanzar a escuchar y le puse todo el volumen o prefieres que te ponga unos audífonos?
- TB- no no no
- E1-

R- ya ves así sencillito

TB- uhu uhu

R- <En> training and qualifications </En>

E1-

R- ese es un ejemplo de <En> repetition </En> o sea que que cada vez que das una instrucción o cada vez que estás repitiendo a los alumnos una respuesta cuál es el propósito de la repetición en tu clase?

TB- uh:: **yo creo que a veces no a todos les quedó claro la pronunciación o um (.) de qué se está hablando a veces cuando- hay unos que siempre están distraídos o están aquí casi siempre platicando con el celular o algo entonces a veces um hago esto como para llamar su atención (.) me entiendes? a veces lo hago para llamar la atención o para rectificar la la pronunciación um? o también para entablar esa comunicación de que te estoy entendiendo lo que tú me estás diciendo** porque el alumno me dice <imitating> <En> yes teacher I think eh I will buy I will buy this product OK you will buy the product why? </En> </imitating> entonces para que los otros digan <imitating> ah sí va a comprar el producto UHU lo va a comprar </imitating> y porqué (.) y y si me dice el porqué <imitating> <En> ah because it is a::: I think it is e:: um:: cheap and I think it is a: a reliable product or it's good </En> </imitating> y con sus propias palabras yo digo <imitating> <En> ah ok so for you this is an excelent product it works </En> </imitating> (.) **a lo mejor hasta uso otras palabras** y entonces el vu- vuelve otra vez ahí y dice <imitating> <En> yes it works it's good for me because this is um </En> me da todo lo que yo quiero: me provee de todo lo que yo andaba buscando es- </imitating> por ejemplo no?

R- y esa es la cuestión funcional para ti de repetition dentro del salón de clases

TB- si si si **si rectificar algunas cosas de pronunciación y de entendimiento**

R- y de entendimiento

TB- no cor- **a veces si ahí le- les tengo que corregir un poquito pero cuando estamos hablando *name 2* que nada más que den su opinión o algo así no me gusta mucho corregirlos** me entiendes? esa es uno de las cosas que estoy ahorita padeciendo (.) con con la situación que se está dando

con este chico que como no corrijo siempre él entra ahí para corregir haciéndome ver como que tú no corriges pero yo sí bueno <En> whatever </En>

R- no no pero eso ya luego platicamos

TB- sí así es

R- ahora otra otra estrategia que estoy analizando es esta la de <En> rephrasing rephrasing </En> de parafrasear o rephrasear lo que uno dice

TB- uhu uhu ya merito me tengo que ir

R- si

E2-

R- por ejemplo aquí el alumno dice

E2-

TB- quién es él? no recuerdo quién es él?

R- es *student 3*

TB- *student 3?* ah si si *student 3 student 3 student 3* si

E2-

R- por ejemplo aquí en este caso el dice <En> what you enjoy </En> y ya tu le le le apoyas porque lo siento como un apoyo um <En> what you enjoy doing or what you enjoy </En> y dices otra cosa no?

TB- uhu <En> you don't enjoy doing </En>

R- uhu entonces como que parafraseas

TB- uhu o le puedo decir de otra forma por ejemplo él dice <En> what you enjoy </En> o <En> you don't enjoy doing </En> algo así dice él y yo digo <En> what you enjoy doing or you don't enjoy doing </En> porque a lo mejor ellos pueden captar la primera parte y no la segunda o sea <En> what you enjoy </En> no? <En> and what you don't enjoy doing </En> entonces no recuerdo que dijo él

R- no si

- TB- pero es eso el parafrasear es como para (.) hígole dar una explicación todavía más detallada a lo mejor es así eso ya lo hago yo inclusive sin fijarme <@> natural </@> y con mis alumnos del *language school 3* a lo mejor si les repito mucho puede ser que esto me esté ayudando para que yo no les repita tanto pero eso es una de las cosas que me dicen mis alumnos <imitating> maestra usted usted nos explica y nos explica y nos explica </imitating> entonces no sé si eso está bien o si estoy siendo muy redundante
- R- no está bien no yo creo que está bien porque así como dices dependiendo del grupo en este caso este grupo detectas que ellos no no van a captar bien
- TB- uhu
- R- lo siento más como una estrategia
- TB- si porque no bueno sin mencionar el nombre del maestro yo tuve un maestro acá en la universidad que nada más cuando nosotros hacíamos así contestábamos alguna una pregunta o algo bueno uhu
- R- uhu entonces um (2) sobre sobre-
- TB- uhu yo te oigo
- R- entonces sobre el parafraseo entonces dices que es más como una estrategia no?
- TB- es mas como una estrategia si es- que en vez de corregir
- R- otra estrategia que estoy analizando también es por ejemplo e: la parte donde se hace alternancia de lenguas donde por ejemplo estamos explicando algo y-
- TB- tengo tres minutos
- R- ok entonces este es nada más un ejemplo donde se hace la alternancia
- TB- ok ok
- R- si quieres no lo escuchamos nada más e: es como cuando hacemos el <En> code-switching </En> y de repente metemos una palabra en español dentro de nuestro discurso en inglés o o de plano cambiamos para que puedan-

- TB- es <En> code-switching </En> de hecho si es <En> code-switching </En>
- R- si <En> code-switching </En> entonces-
- TB- **lo hago yo inclusive en la vida cotidiana con mis amigos en la casa inclusive perdón la comparación pero hasta com mis perritos lo hago de repente les hablo en español y de repente en inglés y me entienden son bilingües me entienden ambos y y con los amigos igual porque casi todos hablan inglés los que yo conozco casi todos hablan inglés o son maestras o maestros de inglés o han estudiado fuera**
- R- y cual es la función de esto dentro de tu de clase (1) por-
- TB- **pues es la función que en general tiene un <En> code-switching </En> que después ellos de forma natural después de tanto que lo hacen vayan dejando un poquito en su vida cotidiana el uso español y utilicen el inglés más y más y más porque así como nos han llenado que voy por un <imitating> <En> hot-dog </En> </imitating> bueno pues entonces ya después que hablen y digan <imitating> <En> oh it´s very easy </En> </imitating> es fácil en vez de decir es fácil <imitating> <En> oh easy </En> </imitating> con sólo que digan <En> easy </En> ya estuvo ya están esas personas ya se olvidaron de decir fácil ya saben que un adjetivo <En> easy </En> es fácil ya no tienen que estar utilizando el fácil lo que pasó el famoso fenómeno que pasa en Estados Unidos el famoso <En> borrowing </En> ya es <imitating> /rápido rápido/ </imitating>**
- R- <imitating> rápido rápido </imitating> y todo es rápido @
- TB- claro se olvidaron del <En> hurry hurry </En>
- R- bueno pues muchas gracias *teacher B*
- TB- no de nada
- <end TB-E IB1-TB-21.02.14\_53:27>

# Appendix J Questionnaire

## Datos Generales

Por favor, llena los espacios o escoge la opción apropiada.

1. Carrera que estudias: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Sexo: Femenino \_\_\_\_\_ Masculino: \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Edad: \_\_\_\_\_

4. Lugar de nacimiento: \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Lugar de residencia: \_\_\_\_\_

6. Por favor, señala los idiomas que hablas:

\_\_ Inglés \_\_ Español \_\_ Maya \_\_ Francés \_\_ Portugués \_\_ Chino \_\_ Otro \_\_\_\_\_

7. ¿Cuánto tiempo llevas estudiando inglés? \_\_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_\_ (años/meses) (todos tus estudios)

8. Indica el curso de inglés que estudiaste antes de tomar *Inglés para Negocios*:

\_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 1                      \_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 7                      \_\_\_\_\_ Inglés Intermedio

\_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 2                      \_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 8                      \_\_\_\_\_ Inglés Post-intermedio

\_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 3                      \_\_\_\_\_ Inglés Introductorio                      **Otro:**

\_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 4                      \_\_\_\_\_ Inglés Básico                      \_\_\_\_\_ I'm an English native speaker

\_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 5                      \_\_\_\_\_ Inglés Pre-intermedio                      \_\_\_\_\_ Pase directo por examen  
de ubicación

\_\_\_\_\_ Idioma Inglés 6

9. ¿Has viajado alguna vez a un país de habla inglesa? Si \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

Si tu respuesta es **SI**, por favor responde las siguientes preguntas:

- a) ¿En cuál(es) país(es) has estado? \_\_\_\_\_
- b) ¿Cuánto tiempo? \_\_\_\_\_
- c) ¿Esa experiencia te ayudó a mejorar tu inglés? Si \_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_
- d) ¿Por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

10. En México, ¿Has tenido oportunidad de usar inglés fuera del salón de clases? ¿En qué situaciones? ¿Dónde? ¿Con quién (amigos, familiares, conocidos, etc.)?

11. ¿Porqué estas llevando el curso de *Inglés para Negocios*?

12. ¿Cuáles son tus expectativas en cuanto a este curso? ¿De qué forma te ayudará para cuando egreses y estés ejerciendo en el campo laboral?

13. ¿En qué área de especialidad quieres trabajar cuando egreses y te titules? ¿Piensas que usarás inglés en ese trabajo? ¿De qué forma?

14. ¿Disfrutas interactuar con otras personas en inglés? ¿Por qué?

15. ¿Te gustaría participar en una entrevista respecto a temas relacionados con el uso de inglés para negocios en el ambiente laboral, importancia del inglés en nuestros días y estrategias de comunicación?

Si \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

Si tu respuesta es **SI**, por favor, déjame tu e-mail para contactarte \_\_\_\_\_

**MUCHAS GRACIAS**

## Appendix K Transcription conventions

Conventions have been adapted from Richards (2003) and VOICE (2007).

**Codes for speakers:** To be determined in each conversation

**Codes for transcription:**

(.)	: brief pause
(1)	: longer pauses are timed to the nearest second and marked with the number of seconds in parentheses; e.g. (1)
-	: abrupt cut-off or false start
[ ]	: overlapping speech. When it is not possible to determine the end of the overlapping speech, the final square bracket is omitted
(word)	: parentheses indicate unsure transcription
<b>CAPS</b>	: emphasis; all the letters in the emphasised syllable are capitalised
(xxx)	: unable to transcribe
?	: questioning intonation
!	: exclamatory utterance
:	: sound stretching
=	: latched utterances
<Sp> </Sp>	: utterance in another language e.g. Sp = Spanish; signals code-switching
< > </ >	: utterance spoken in a particular mode (eg. <imitating> </imitating>)
@@@	: laughter
{ }	: contextual information is given in curly brackets when it is relevant to the understanding of the interaction
//	: for phonemic transcription when pronunciation is deviant
	: all repetition of words and phrases are transcribed
<b>hh</b>	: noticeable breathing is represented by letter 'h'
	hh = relatively short; hhh = relatively long

<b>Anonymity</b>	: names of people (who are participants or non participants, but who are mentioned in the interaction), pets, schools, countries, cities, and certain locations <sup>4</sup> are substituted by aliases and these are italicised and numbered consecutively, starting with 1. When speakers involved in the interaction are referred to, their names are replaced by their <i>ID</i> .
<b>Onomatopoeic noises</b>	: when speakers produce noises to imitate something, these onomatopoeic sounds are rendered in IPA symbols between <b>&lt;ono&gt;</b> <b>&lt;/ono&gt;</b> tags
<b>Parallel conversations</b>	: when two or more conversations threads emerge only the main one is transcribed. The threads which are not transcribed are treated like a contextual event and indicated between curly brackets { }
<b>Speaker noises</b>	: noises produced by the current speaker are transcribed using <b>&lt; &gt;</b> . Noises produced by other speakers are only transcribed if they affect the intelligibility of the speech. E.g., <b>&lt;coughs&gt;</b> , <b>&lt;clears throat&gt;</b>
<b>Spelling</b>	: the tags <b>&lt;spel&gt;</b> <b>&lt;/spel&gt;</b> are used to mark words and abbreviations that are spelled out by speakers
<b>Transcription borders</b>	: the beginning and the end of the transcription are noted by indicating the recording ID (A01, A02, etc.) and the exact position of the track in minutes and seconds  e.g. <b>&lt; beg</b> recording A01_0:00> <b>&lt; end</b> recording A01_34:05>

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<sup>4</sup> Locations which contain a high level of foreign language influence are kept in the transcription for the purpose of the research. Contrary, locations that do not reflect a foreign language influence are anonymized in the transcript.

## Appendix L False Problem Indicators (PI)

Answering by code-switching into Spanish with no reason to do it	2/ FPI11-BS1, (PP)FPI23-CS2
Other-repair (that is usually done by the teacher) that is followed by utterances like 'ok', 'all right', 'uhu', 'right', etc. that signal understanding. Therefore, the other-repair is ignored:	
Vocabulary	2/ (D)172-CS1, (D)FPI-TB
Pronunciation	4/ (D)130-CS4, (D)120-CS2, (OT)24-CS4, (MP)FPI6-BS8
Grammar	1/ (D)FPI20-TC
Not hearing an utterance so continue talking	1/ (D)FPI14-BS3
When the speaker self-repairs the problem and continued talking	3/ (PE)1-FBS1 forgot data (D)FPI16-TC forgot a word (D)124-CS9 used code-switching
Pauses because:	
A teacher is checking/reading the textbook or teacher's	2/ (D)FPI1-TC, (D)FPI18-TC
A teacher is writing on the board	1/ (D-WF)FPI12-TB
A student is checking his/her notes	1/ (PP)FPI25-CS3
Filler to gain time to think of what to say next	
A phrase 'I don't know'	5/ (D)FPI2-CS6, (D)FPI10-AS8, (D)FPI4-BS11, (D)FPI19-CS1, FPI9-AS5
Cues like 'um:', 'uh', etc.	2/ (D)108-CS1, FPI7-B56
Disagreement phrase 'I don't know' (e.g. for controlling turns)	1/ FPI3-TA, (D)49-AS3
Signalling 'doubt' to prompt discussion	1/ (D)FPI13-TB
Repetition of previous utterance as question, but keeping the turn and continue talking	1/ (D)FPI-TC
Unwillingness to be the first at talking	1/ (OT)FPI15-CS7&4
Unnecessary questions when understanding is evidenced	1/ (D)FPI17-CS2, (D)168-TC
Question that serve to check understanding, and understanding is evidenced	1/ (D)FPI22-TC
Question to argue about instructions	1/ (PP)FPI24-CS2
When teachers leave a gap or say incomplete utterances in order to prompt student's answers of items	3/ (D)122-CS4, (D)7-allA, (D-WF)56-TB







	Answer 'no' ↓ PI (CS) + R Self-repair & CS Self-repetition & CS CS = Code-switching	<b>Unique case - A</b>
12	PI + R Other-repair & other-rephrasing	(D)37-AS2 <b>Unique case - A</b>
13	PI (CS) + R Answer not accepted Self-repair Other-repair	(D)68-B56 <b>Unique case - B</b>
14	PI + R Other-repair Answer 'yes'	(D)70-BS11 <b>Unique case - B</b>
15	PI + R Other-repair Other-repetition & self-repetition	(D)86-BS6 <b>Unique case - B</b>
16	PI + R Other-repair Self-repetition & other-repetition Other-repetition (3d party) Other-rephrasing	(D)99-BS1 <b>Unique case - B</b>

**Interactional-Mishearing (IM)**

1	PI + R Other-repetition & code-switching	(D)137-CS4, (D)141-CS4 <b>Total 2: C</b>
2	PI + R Self-repetition (& repair) (Answer)	(D)5-AS1, (D)27-AS7, (D-WF)9-AS4, (D)41-AS2, (D)1-AS1, (D)77-BS4, (D)53- BS2, (D)55-TB, (D)159-CS1, (D)163-CS1, (D)170-CS1 <b>Total 11: A (5), B (3), C (3)</b>
3	PI + R body language or realia	(D)182-CS10 <b>Unique case - C</b>
4	PI + R Self-rephrasing	(D)29-AS2, (D)194-BS11 <b>Total 2: A (1), B (1)</b>
5	PI + R Answer (apology) Self-rephrasing	(D)43-AS2 <b>Unique case - A</b>
6	PI + R Other-repair & self-repetition	(D)101-BS1 <b>Unique case - B</b>
7	PI + R Self-repetition Other-repetition	(D)60-BS3, (D)95-BS11 <b>Total 2: B</b>
8	PI + R Answer ↓ PI + R Self-repetition	(D)105-BS1 <b>Unique case - B</b>
9	PI + R Answer Answer & Other-repetition Answer	(D)92-BS6,4&9 <b>Unique case - B</b>
10	PI + R Self-repetition Other-rephrasing	(D)94-BS3 <b>Unique case - B</b>

**Interactional-Reference (IR)**

1	PI + R Other-repair ↓ PI + R Self-rephrasing ↓ PI + R Other-repair ↓ PI (Other-rephrasing) + R Self-rephrasing	(D)1-AS1&2 <b>Unique case - A</b>
2	PI + R Other-repair ↓ PI (Code-switching) + R Self-rephrasing Other-repetition Code-switching (3d party)	(D)2-AS2 <b>Unique case - A</b>
3	PI (x2) + R Other-repair Other-rephrasing (3d party) Self-rephrasing & other-repetition (3d party)	(D)8-AS5 <b>Unique case - A</b>
4	PI + R Other-repair (3d party) Self-repair Other-repair & self-rephrasing	(D)15-AS5 <b>Unique case - A</b>
5	PI + R Other-repetition & moving turn Other-repair (3d party) Other-rephrasing Other-repetition & Other-repair (cont.) Other-rephrasing	(D)20-AS2&5 <b>Unique case - A</b>
6	PI + R Other-repair (as support) Other-rephrasing	(D)22-AS4 <b>Unique case - A</b>
7	See below this table.	(D)38-AS2&4 <b>Unique case - A</b>
8	PI + R Other-repair (as support) Other-repetition	(D)72-BS1 <b>Unique case - B</b>
9	PI + R Answer	(D)54-BS1, (D)65-BS1, (D)69-B57 <b>Total 3: B</b>
10	PI (Other-RPHR) + R Other-repetition	(D)64-BS1 <b>Unique case - B</b>
11	PI (Self-RPHR & Other-RPT) + R Answer ↓ PI (Other-RPT) + R Self-repetition	(D)104-BS3 <b>Unique case - B</b>

7.

PI + R Reading textbook to confirm problem  
↓  
PI (Self-rephrasing) + R Self-rephrasing & self-repetition & CS (IR)  
Other-rephrasing in English (IR)  
Code-switching (confirmation)  
↓ (Continues)

↓ (Cont.)

PI (Code-switching) + R Other-repair (3d party, IR)  
Answer 'uhu' (FI)

**Interactional-Discourse (ID)**

1	PI + R	cue (e.g. uhu)	(D)121-CS4 <b>Unique case - C</b>
2	PI + R	Other-repair Other-repetition	(D)189-CS10 <b>Unique case - C</b>
3	PI + R	Other-repair Other-rephrasing	(D)47-AS4 <b>Unique case - A</b>
4	PI + R	Self-repair (idea)	(D)107-BS11 <b>Unique case - B</b>
5	PI (O) ↓ PI + R	Self-repetition Other-repetition & self-repetition	(D)133-CS1, (D)81-BS6 <b>Total 2: B (1), C (1)</b>
6	PI (most O)+ R	Self-repetition	(D)1-AS2, (D)2-AS2, (D-WF)9-AS4, (D)14-AS2, (D)88-BS5, (D)55-TB, (D)73- BS1, (D)80-BS1, (D)83-BS3, (D)95-BS11, (D)102-BS1, (D)138-CS1, (D)147-CS2, (D)157-CS9, (D)154-CS6 <b>Total 15: A (4), B (7), C (4)</b>
7	PI (O) + R	Self-repetition & other-repetition (overlapped)	(D)38-AS2&4 <b>Unique case - A</b>
8	PI (overlapping) ↓ PI (other-repetition) + R	Answer	(D)96-BS11 <b>Unique case - B</b>
9	PI (TC) + R	Self-repetition & moving floor	(D)20-TA <b>Unique case - A</b>

O=Overlapping, TC=Turn control

**Factual-Instructional (FI)**

1	PI + R	Code-switching	(D)134-CS1, (D)135-CS4 <b>Total 2: C</b>
2	PI + R	Self-rephrasing Answer	(D)12-AS5, (D)146- CS2 <b>Total 2: A (2), B (1)</b>
3	PI + R	Answer 'yes' (confirming answer)	(D)171-CS1 <b>Unique case - C</b>
4	PI + R	Code-switching Answer 'yes' (rectifying)	(D)185-CS10 <b>Unique case - C</b>
5	PI + R	Answer (example or explanation for clarification)	(D)184-TC <b>Unique case - C</b>
6	PI (x4) + R	Answer given & Code-switching Pause (15) Understanding  PI (answer 1), PI (answer 2), PI (not hear well), PI (phrase 'I don't know')	(D)186-CS5 <b>Unique case - C</b>

7	PI + R	Other-repair	(D)24-TA, (D)34-AS1 <b>Total 2: A</b>
8	PI + R	Other-repair & self-repetition	(D-WF)9-AS4 <b>Unique case - A</b>
9	PI + R	Other-repair (explanation) Other-rephrasing & self-rephrasing (3 <sup>rd</sup> party) Other-rephrasing & self-rephrasing Other-rephrasing (3 <sup>rd</sup> party)	(D)14-AS1 <b>Unique case - A</b>
10	PI + R	Other-repair (e.g. from book content) Other-repetition	(D-WF)11-TA, (D)6-AS2 <b>Total 2: A</b>
11	PI + R ↓ PI + R	Self-rephrasing Other-repair	(D)59-allB <b>Unique case - B</b>
12	PI ↓ PI (other-repetition) + R	Other-repair (3 <sup>d</sup> party) Explanation ↓ PI (other-repetition) + R Self-repetition Self-rephrasing	(D)63-BS7 <b>Unique case - B</b>
13	PI + R ↓ PI + R	Answer (x3) Other-repair Other-repetition Explanation (realia)	(D)92-TB <b>Unique case - B</b>

***Factual-Regulative (FR)***

1	PI + R	Answer Other-repetition	(D)45-AS2, (D)125-TC <b>Total 2: A (1), C (1)</b>
2	PI + T	Request Action	(D)85-BS9, (D)136-CS4 (speak up) (D)46-AS5 (in front class) <b>Total 3: A (1), B (1), C (1)</b>
3	PI + R	Location (through reading) Self-rephrasing	(D)38-AS2 <b>Unique case - A</b>
4	PI + R	Answer (location)	(D)16-AS5, (D)26-AS7 <b>Total 2: A</b>
5	PI + R	Answer 'yes' 'uhu'	(D)13-AS7, (D)39-AS1, (D)44-AS2, (D)51-AS2 <b>Total 4: A</b>
6	PI + R ↓ PI (CS) + R	Answer (instruction) Self-repair	(D)3-TA <b>Unique case - A</b>
7	PI + R	Other-repetition Action	(D)84-BS9 <b>Unique case - B</b>
8	PI + R	Other-repetition Self-repetition	(D)28-AS2 <b>Unique case - A</b>
9	PI + R	Other-repair	(D)48-AS1

		Other-rephrasing	<b>Unique case - A</b>
10	PI + R	Other-repair & self-repetition	(D)91-BS4 <b>Unique case - B</b>
11	PI + R	Other-repair Action	(D)97-BS4 <b>Unique case - B</b>

**Embedded cases**

1	PI + R	Other-repair & self-repetition (LV-LG) Other-repetition & self-repetition Other-repair (IR)	(D)138-CS1 <b>Unique case - C</b>
2	PI (CS) + R	Other-repair ↓ PI + R      Other-repair & self-repetition & CS ↓ PI + R      Self-repetition Other-repetition (IR & IM)	(D)119-CS2 <b>Unique case - C</b>
3	PI + R	Code-switching (LV & IR)	(D)121-CS4, (D)167-CS7, (D)189-CS1, (D)170-CS1 <b>Total 4: C</b>
4	PI (code-switching) + R	Other-repair in Spanish (LV) & CS Other-repair in English (IR) ↓ PI + R Self-repetition & Other-RPR Other-repetition (LM)	(D)132-CS1 <b>Unique case - C</b>
5	PI + R	Trying to locate the problem (FR) ↓ PI + R Other-rephrasing (FI) ↓ PI + R Other-repair Other-rephrasing (IR) ↓ PI + R Other-rephrasing	(D)50-AS2 <b>Unique case - A</b>
6	PI + R	Other-repair (as confirmation) (LV) Other-repetition (3d party) Self-rephrasing ↓ PI + R      Self-repair (LV) Other-repetition Self-repetition (LG) Other-repetition (3d party)	(D)35-AS5&1 <b>Unique case - A</b>



## Appendix N Unsuccessful cases

Non-understanding of the term, phrase, or idea <b>Total 14: B (3), C (11)</b>		(D)71-BS11, (D)98-BS4, (D)106-allB, (D)115-CS3, (D)116-CS3, (D)139-CS1, (D)156-allC, (D)158-allC, (D)164-CS1, (D)169-CS9, (D)176-CS1, (D)183-allC, (D)190-allC, (D)193-CS1
Understanding of the question, but limited English language proficiency to answer it <b>Total 8: B (1), C (7)</b>		(D)82-allB, (D)109-CS1, (D)113-CS7, (D)114-CS7, (D)126-CS1, (D)131-CS11, (D)140-C11, (D)194-CS1
There is no marker back that signals understanding <b>Total 7: B (3), C (4)</b>		(D)85-BS9, (D)89-BS6, (D)66-BSX (D)116-CS3 because the student just kept talking (D)148-CS2 due to teacher's low voice (D)166-C12 and (D)172-C51 because the teacher did not give the floor back
The teacher gives the floor to a third person: <b>Total 7: B (2), C (5)</b>	Despite the marker (non-understanding of the marker)	(D)79-BS4, (D)126-CS1, (D)131-CS11, (D)172-CS1
	With NO marker	(D)78-BS6, (D)116-C12, (D)192-C10
A third person answers back the question <b>Total 8: B (3), C (5)</b>		(D)87-BS3, (D)79-B10, (D)90-BS1, (D)109-CS2&3, (D)110-CSX, (D)113-CS2, (D)140-CS4, (D)155-CS6
Unwillingness to participate <b>Total 7: A (1), B (2), C (4)</b>		(D)30-AS2, (D)52-BS1, (D)53-BS2, (D)117-allC, (D)143-allC, (D)153-allC, (D)179-allC
The teacher gives the answer of an item <b>Total 9: B (2), C (7)</b>	After a (long) pause	(D)142-CS4, (D)156-allC, (D)178-CS10, (D)180-allC, (D)183-allC
	Without giving the floor back to the student so he/she can signal understanding	(D)93-TB, (D)188-CS10
	With a student previous answer by evaluating with 'no'	(D)93-BS10, (D)191-CS10
The teacher ignores a student's question <b>Total 3: C</b>		(D)139-CS1, (D)164-CS1, (D)188-CS10
The teacher knows there is a mistake but ignores it <b>Total 1: C</b>		(D)137-CS4

Teacher's unclear explanation <b>Total 5: A (2), B (1), C (2)</b>		(D)32-TA, (D)33-TA, (D)58-TB, (D)177-TC, (D)144-TC
When the teacher concludes a student's talk <b>Total 3: B (1), C (2)</b>	By inviting a third party to talk (or help that student)	(D)90-BS6 (after answering an item) (D)145-CS10 (after an interruption due to an external factor)
	Because of an external factor	(D)145-CS10 the teacher was required at the door
Students ignore the teacher (for a while) <b>Total 1: B</b>		(D)103-TB

## Appendix O Unique cases and other patterns cases

### Unique cases summary

Problem type	Number	Groups occurrences	TOTAL Summary
LP	6	Total 1-A	Group A: 16 Group B: 07 Group C: 06 <b>TOTAL: 29</b>
LG	1	Total 1-C	
LV	7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 16	Total 6: A (4), B (1), C (1)	
IM	10	Total 1-B	
IR	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7	Total 6-A	
ID	4, 7	Total 2: A (1), B (1)	
FI	6, 9, 11, 12	Total 4: A (1), B (2), C (1)	
FR	none		
E	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10	Total 7: A (3), B (2), C (3)	

### Other patterns

No.	Pattern	Problem type	Cases
1 1 C o n t.	PI + R Answer  <b>Total 14: A (6), B (4), C (4)</b>	IM-3	(D)182-CS10
		ID-1	(D)121-CS4
		ID-8	(D)96-BS11
		IR-9	(D)54-BS1, (D)65-BS1, (D)69-BS7
		FI-3	(D)171-CS1
		FI-5	(D)184-TC
		FR-4	(D)16-AS5, (D)26-AS7
2	PI + T Request Action <b>Total 3: A (1), B (1), C (1)</b>	FR-2	(D)46-AS5, (D)85-BS9, (D)136-CS4,
3	PI + R Answer ↓ PI + R Self-repetition	IM-8	(D)105-BS1
		IR-11	(D)104-BS3

	<b>Total 2: B</b>		
4	PI + R      Answer Other-repetition	FR-1	(D)45-AS2, (D)125-TC
	<b>Total 3: A (1), B (1), C (1)</b>	IM-9	(D)92-BS4
5	PI + R      Answer Self-rephrasing	IM-5	(D)43-AS2
	<b>Total 2: A</b>	FR-3	(D)38-AS2
6	PI + R      Answer (instruction) ↓ PI + R      Self-repair	FR-6	(D)3-TA
	<b>Unique case - A</b>		
7	PI + R      Answer (x3) Other-repair ↓ PI + R      Other-repetition Explanation (realia)	FI-13	(D)92-TB
	<b>Unique case - B</b>		
8	PI (CS) + R Answer not accepted Self-repair Other-repair	LV-13	(D)68-B56
	<b>Unique case - B</b>		

NOTE: other cases with Answer 'no' are LV-9 and LV-11, but these are indexed as complex.

## Appendix P Example of direct quotation analysis

### Repetition

AS1	it's something good and <b>it depends on the context those those strategies can help me to communicate</b> with someone who for example is having a <b>problem to understand</b> what I'm to say so I can <b>rephrase</b> I can- if I'm <b>trying to make a point I can make some repetition not too much but I can make repetitions</b> so it's (.) <b>it helps to make communication more easy</b>	<b>Language perception:</b> IPS can help depending on the context <b>Problem:</b> understanding <b>IPS strategy:</b> rephrasing <b>IPS strategy:</b> repetition, to try to make a point <b>Repetition quantity:</b> not too many <b>Language perception:</b> IPS helps to make communication easier
AS1	because I wanna it I wanna <b>to make a point</b> about the no refund and- but I don't know it <b>I didn't remember that I used that word so many times</b> so now I can see that I use refund <b>how many times? four?</b>	<b>IPS strategy:</b> repetition, to make a point <b>Repetition perception:</b> naturally occurrence without intension <b>Repetition quantity:</b> 4
AS1	I was trying <b>to make a point</b> but <b>not to be redundant</b>	<b>IPS strategy:</b> repetition, to make a point <b>Repetition perception:</b> redundancy
AS1	um I'm <b>trying to repeat something</b> to- that is um in my case it <b>would be a way to convince someone</b> <imitating> no refund no refund </imitating> and <b>based on repetition they maybe can understand</b> that there is no rep- there is refund	<b>IPS strategy:</b> repetition <b>Workplace perception:</b> repetition to convince or to persuade <b>Repetition perception:</b> helps understanding

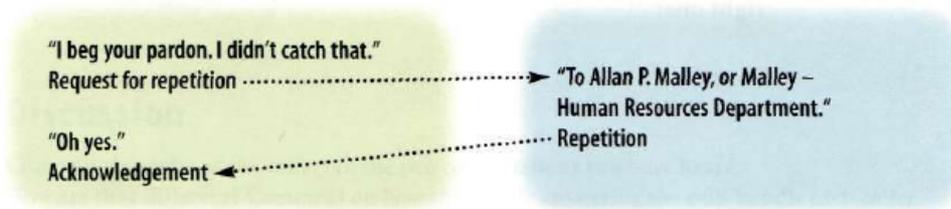


## Appendix Q Example of textbook tasks including IPSs

### Repetition

#### 4 Asking for and giving repetition

- 1 Listen to the recording of a conversation between a woman who calls the Human Resources Department in the Singapore branch of Michigan Insurance Inc. She has an appointment for a job interview.
- The first time you listen, say why she calls.
  - Listen again. Notice that there are four requests for repetition. Why?
- 2 In each request for repetition, the person asking for the repetition also acknowledges it. It is important that any repetition is followed by an acknowledgement. Look at the following example that you have heard:



- Listen again. Identify two other ways to acknowledge repetition.

(Sweeney 2003: 28)

### Rephrasing/Paraphrasing

#### Practice 3

Divide into groups of four. Each person should prepare, in about two to three minutes, part of a short presentation on any topic he/she knows well.

Describe just one or two aspects of the topic in some detail for about three to four minutes. Then end what you say with a brief summary and/or conclusion. Finally, move to questions/comments or discussion.

Your colleagues should:

- ask questions
- ask for more details
- ask for clarification / repetition
- paraphrase part(s) of what you said
- offer more information based on their knowledge and / or experience.

For each contribution, respond appropriately.

Repeat the exercise until everyone in the group has been *in the hot seat*.

(Sweeney 2003: 92)

## Repair

### 8 Error correction

#### 8.1 Parts of speech

Underline the unnecessary words in each of the following sentences and identify which part of speech it is. See the example given.

- 1 Remind me to telephone to my sister before the end of the day. *preposition*
- 2 We really need an information about flights to Skopje. ....
- 3 The modern life is complicated enough without more rules and regulations. ....
- 4 They hope to can arrive before the start of the conference. ....
- 5 Hadn't she been suggested creating two part-time jobs? .....
- 6 If you don't know the answer, why don't you ask to the teacher? .....
- 7 Prague which is a city I've always wanted to visit. ....
- 8 Paul was in the hospital for three months after the accident. ....
- 9 The shark which pushed silently through the seaweed and attacked the unsuspecting swimmers. ....
- 10 There was an ominous silence as they entered into the room. ....

#### 8.2 Error correction

In most lines of the following text there is one unnecessary word. It is either grammatically incorrect or it does not fit in with the sense of the text. For each numbered line, find the unnecessary word and then write it in the space provided. Some lines are correct. Indicate these with a tick (✓). The first two lines have been done for you.

### Mapping the mind's word processor

An area is deep in the left frontal half of the brain used to process language has been pinpointed by a new brain-imager. Dr Julie Fiez, who first reported the work, believes brain-imagers will one day help to show that the causes of problems like dyslexia and determine strategies to overcome language in difficulties. The new imaging technique shows that the parts of the brain which are working harder' because of blood flow has increased. When some people being studied were asked to lift their left index finger when they have heard a specific tone, word, syllable or vowel. Others were asked only to listen without doing anything. The brain's left frontal region was seen to be used only when subjects had to show they had heard of the specific sound, rather than just listened. Many regions are involved in listening but this one appears to be involved when parts of a sound have to be analysed to make up a decision, for instance how to correctly pronounce the words 'lead' and 'tears' in the different contexts.

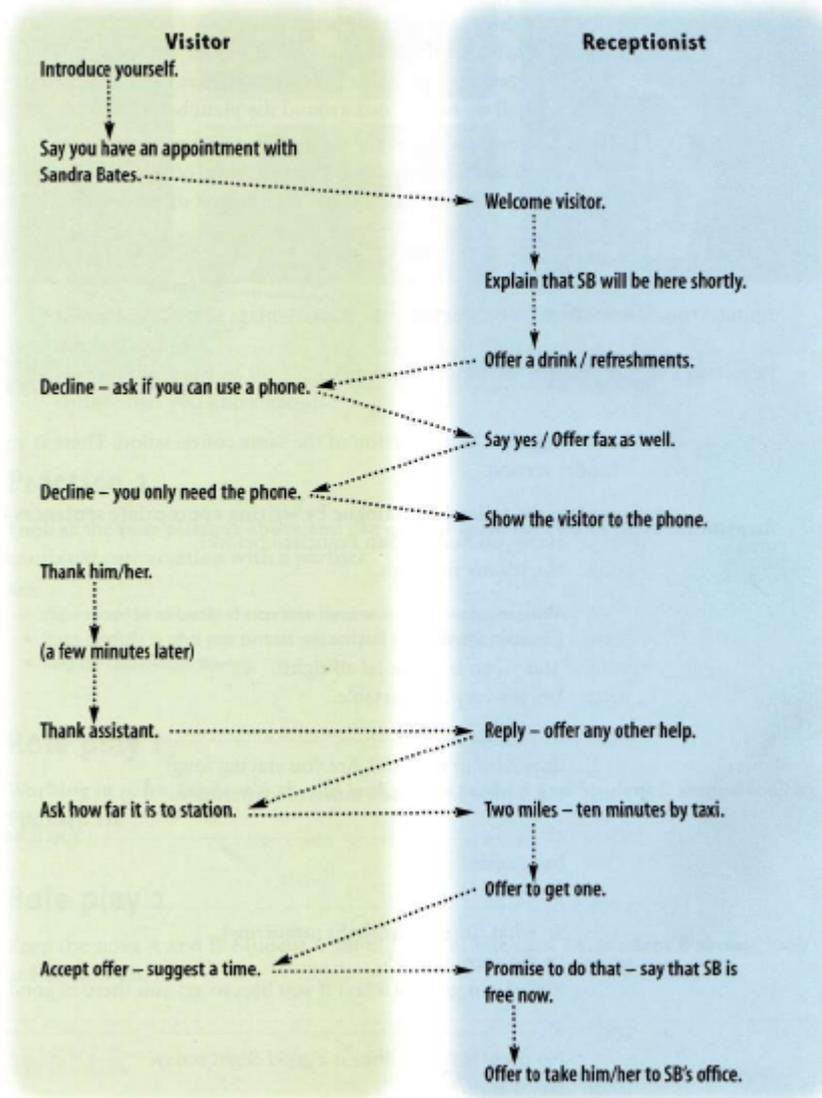
- 0 *is*
- 0 ✓
- 1 .....
- 2 .....
- 3 .....
- 4 .....
- 5 .....
- 6 .....
- 7 .....
- 8 .....
- 9 .....
- 10 .....
- 11 .....
- 12 .....
- 13 .....
- 14 .....

(Walton 1999: 10)

## Code-switching

### Practice 1

Make a dialogue based on the following flow chart. If you need help, look at the Language Checklist on page 12.



Now listen to the recording of a model answer.

(Sweeney 2003: 92)

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**Practice**

1 Students should work in pairs to construct a dialogue based on the flow chart. A recording of a model answer is provided, featuring a conversation at the end of the working day between two business associates, one of whom is visiting his partner in Lima, Peru. *Ceviche* is raw fish marinated in lemon juice.

---

**Tapescript**

HOST: Have you tried the local cuisine?  
 VISITOR: No – not yet, but I've heard it's very good.  
 HOST: Yes, in particular you should try *ceviche*. Raw fish marinated in lemon juice.  
 VISITOR: Hmmm. Sounds interesting! I've heard there are a lot of good local dishes.  
 HOST: Yes – and we have some very good restaurants. Would you like to visit one? We can try some of these specialities.  
 VISITOR: Oh, yes, of course, I'd like that very much.  
 HOST: Right, so do you like fish?  
 VISITOR: Oh, yes – I do, very much. I've heard that the fish is very special in Lima.  
 HOST: That's true. So, we'll go to one of the best fish restaurants we've got. Shall I meet you at your hotel this evening?  
 VISITOR: That'd be good, fine, thank you. What time?  
 HOST: Er ... Shall we say 8.30?  
 VISITOR: Perfect. Okay, we'll ... we'll meet again tonight then.  
 HOST: Yeah, 8.30 at your hotel. See you there.  
 VISITOR: Thanks very much. See you later. I'll get back to the hotel now, I'll get a taxi.  
 HOST: Okay, sure. Bye for now.

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**PHOTOCOPIABLE** © Cambridge University Press 2003

(Sweeney 1997b: 13)

Walton, R 1999, *Advanced English C.A.E.*, Essex: Longman.

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## Appendix R Observation records example

Week 1 NO AUDIO	
<u>Grupo 1 (1pm-3pm/001)</u>	<u>Grupo 2 (7am-9am/011)</u>
<p>Monday, 13/01/14</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The teacher introduced herself and asked students to introduce themselves by saying their names and their career. All this more in English rather than Spanish. So, there were 8 students in this first session:</li> </ul> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Carlos – Spanish career – exchange student</li> <li>2. Luna – Spanish career – exchange student</li> <li>3. Ella – Spanish career – exchange student</li> <li>4. Yanet – Natural Resources – home student</li> <li>5. Monse – English career – home student</li> <li>6. Andrea – English career – home student</li> <li>7. Adan – English career – home student</li> <li>8. Naomi – English career – home student</li> </ol> <p>Students 1, 2 and 3 are exchange students of the Spanish career and they need to decide whether to stay in this module or to choose other modules. They need to attend 3 modules in total this term. Their first language (L1) is Mandarin Chinese. They are learning Spanish in this university; however, they are considering in attending one English course as well. So they are trying out this one.</p> <p>Student 1 seems very fluent in English, while Students 2 and 3 do</p>	<p>Tuesday, 14/01/14</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The teacher introduced the course by using English most of the time. Here, she only provides the general info about the course such as timetable, material to be used, administration in the communication with group in out-of-hour days/possible homework or extra practice. The material to be used in this class is:</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;">English for Business O'Brien, Josephine Thomson/Heinle 2007</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Then, the teacher introduced herself in a detail way, and asked students to do it as well, as detailed as possible (detailed= name, age, career, family, pets, etc.) This part of the day was very communicative as the teacher interacted with the students like in a normal conversation while students were introducing themselves.</li> </ul> <p>Here, a situation of 'negotiation of meaning' happened when one student said she had various pets at home that one of them was a <u>cuyo</u>, which is a kind of hamster but larger. Nor the teacher or the students knew how to say</p>

not. They even express it was difficult to say something in English in this session.

Student 4 likes English that is why she joined to this session albeit she does not belong to the Commercial Systems career. It is very peculiar her case as she is studying Natural Resources.

Students 5 and 6 are from the English Language career (LI). They want to gain credits (in 'apoyo') with this course, although it is a module of another career (Commercial Systems).

All home students have Spanish as their L1.

- Then, the programme was introduced. This time in Spanish as it is written in that language.

See appendix 1: Paquete de Inglés para Negocios

- Then, the teacher provided with details of the material to be used in the module:

English for Business  
O'Brien, Josephine  
Thomson/Heinle  
2007

- Finally, the class closed with an oral activity that consisted in two phases: the first one, the teacher prompted with questions referring to where students look for a job. After some answers she asked about what would be your ideal job. Then, she divided the group in pairs, where students had to find out their partner's ideal job,

cuyo in English, but the teacher offered to look for it and bring it next class. However, another student asked what a cuyo was. Then, the student who owns that pet answered that it was a kind of hamster but larger. The student who asked understood what a cuyo is, as well as the teacher. As well, other pragmatic strategies could be seen such as repetition, rephrasing, and code-switching, mainly by the teacher.

- Students in this session were:

1. Liliana – Commercial Systems – Home student
2. Alexis – Commercial Systems – Home student from Peru
3. Luisa – Spanish Career - exchange student from Brazil
4. Avi – Commercial Systems - Home student
5. Raúl – Commercial Systems – Home student
6. Ashanti – English Career – Home student
7. Mara – English Career – Home student
8. Jorge – English Career – Home student

- After everybody's introduction, the teacher started to introduce the course, this time in Spanish, as this document is written in the official language of the country.

See appendix 1: Paquete de Inglés para Negocios

- Then, an activity related to how to search a product by internet was done. So, they worked on looking for how a Nokia mobile was advertised, and look at its features. For this, students used their own mobiles to do the activity. This, time, there was not a lot of interaction between

## Glossary of Terms

**Code-switching** - Interactional pragmatic strategy related to ‘the alternation of language choices in conversation’ (Li Wei 2002: 164).

**Communication breakdown** - ‘Trouble occurring in interactive language use’ (Seedhouse 2004: 143).

**Communication strategies** - ‘The employment of verbal and non-verbal mechanisms for the production communication of information’ (Brown 2007: 137) that implies conscious planning to solve problems or to achieve communication.

**Classroom Communicative Competence** - Study of ‘the ability to communicate intended meaning and to establish joint understandings’ (p. Walsh 2011: 160) throughout interactional devices.

**English as a Lingua Franca** - The ‘means of communication between people who come from different first language backgrounds’ (Jenkins 2012: 486).

**False Problem Indicator (False PI)** - False PIs are the utterances that might resemble a Problem Indicator –like causing a break in communication– but they are considered false because the course of the conversation stays fluid and, most importantly, there is mutual understanding between speakers.

**Flooring control** - Teachers’ control of interaction (Walsh 2011).

**Interactional Pragmatic Strategies** - Communicative tactics such as repetition, rephrasing, repair, and code-switching among others, that are used strategically in order to success communication.

**Input** - Teacher’s language (Tsui 2001) or all what learners hear or read (Davies and Pearse 2000).

**Misunderstanding** - Occasions when ‘the listener thinks they know what is said but gets it wrong’ (Deterding 2013: 13).

**Non-understanding** - Instances in the conversation when ‘the listener does not know what is said’ (Deterding 2013: 13).

**Output** - Learners’ production of language (Tsui 2001).

**Paralinguistic adaptation** - Techniques in which body language and gestures are used.

**Parallel interaction** - Communication that takes place between people with two same shared languages (Bolton and Kuteeva 2012).

**Paraphrasing**- Interactional pragmatic strategy that helps clarifying through rewording and to 'address potential problems of understanding' (Kaur, 2009: 110), and/or helping to modify complex questions in a lesson (Tsui 2001), interchangeable with rephrasing.

**Perception** - General term in which attitudes and beliefs are immersed, meaning those thoughts, ideas or opinions.

**Pragmatics** - It is the meaning that is gained in context.

**Problem Indicator** – Problem indicators can be identified through a question, a cue, a pause or period of silence or a statement within a conversational transcription that causes a communication breakdown.

**Repair** – 1) Repair theory may be defined as the treatment of trouble occurring (Seedhouse 2004). 2) Repair is also considered as an interactional pragmatic strategy, similar to repetition and rephrasing.

**Repetition** - Interactional pragmatic strategy that refers to the action of saying an utterance twice or more in the course of a conversation (Mauranen 2012).

**Rephrasing** - Interactional pragmatic strategy that helps clarifying through rewording and to 'address potential problems of understanding' (Kaur, 2009: 110), and/or helping to modify complex questions in a lesson (Tsui 2001), interchangeable with paraphrasing.

**Result** - Result is path that includes the interactional pragmatic strategies speakers use in order to reach mutual understanding.

**Speech modification** - Teachers' speech adaptation through slowing down pace, making pauses, emphasis, among other actions in order to gain understanding.

**Understanding** - A process that is constructed by interactants as a way of 'building common ground and joint knowledge' (Cogo and Dewey 2012: 115) in a conversational environment.

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