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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

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Modern languages

**The Role of Teacher Talk in Creating Learning Opportunity in EFL Classroom in the
Libyan University Context**

By

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Thesis for the degree of PhD in Applied Linguistics for English Teaching

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ABSTRACT

Teacher talk as an area of research is less emphasised than the learner talk in the literature, because the focus in classroom interaction research has been on learner talk within a language learning acquisition framework. Teacher talk has been viewed as obstructing, or at least reducing opportunities for learner-learner interaction. In the teacher education literature, teacher talk, viewed from a quantity perspective, is presented as problematic. There is a considerable difference between language teaching practices and those employed when teaching other subjects, such as geography, physics. Teaching a foreign language involves complex and multi-layered issues, as it is both the aim and the means of the process, and so demands interactional competence and awareness. Therefore, instead of focusing on the quantity of teacher talk, this dissertation focuses on the quality, and how learning opportunities can emerge from the teacher talk, and the interaction around it, for students. With a focus on teacher talk, and drawing on the social-cultural theory of learning, this research investigates the nature of teacher-students' interaction in English as a foreign language classrooms in the Libyan university context. Furthermore, the concept of learning opportunity has been used widely in the literature in an undefined way. Hence, throughout this research, I aim to consolidate and conceptualise the notion of learning opportunity as a cognitive interactional space for learning within effective social and emotional dimensions.

This is a qualitative discourse analysis study, and the data were collected through audio-recorded classroom interaction, recall questionnaires, focus groups and field notes. The analysis employs principles of conversation analysis (CA) approach, and some features of teacher talk that were used by Walsh (2002; 2006 and 2011) and Walsh and Li (2013) in their framework for investigating classroom discourse. A content analysis was carried out during the analysis process for looking at the questionnaire, focus group and field notes datasets. Overall, the study suggests that there is a relationship between the discourse features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunities by the students. However, this is not always the case as there is a number of examples in the data of this study confirm that with the same discourse features of teacher talk, for example, the

extended wait-time, the students may choose not to be agentive or may not engage with the process of constructing the learning opportunity.

The study also reveals that engaging the learners in this kind of classroom talk where they have to think, reflect and interact might not be useful only for the students who participate in the interaction, but also for other listeners (learners) who were quiet and silent. In other words, it seems like some learners could profit from the interaction between the teacher and other students in the lesson without being verbally involved. In this case, it was not necessary for some students to take part in the verbal interaction (overt participation) to be successful in noticing recalling new learning items from the lesson.

The use of the first language (L1; in this study L1 is Arabic) was also found to play an important role as it served as an emotional mediating tool in constructing the learning opportunities. It was used for turning the students' attention for something important regarding the assessment criteria when it needed by the teacher. It was also used for scaffolding and languaging. This study makes a contribution to enhancing our understanding of the complexity of the concept of learning opportunity, and the ways classroom interaction facilitates learning. The study also suggests teacher education programmes should raise teachers' awareness of the ways their language use (including the use of L1) facilitates learning, as it has a direct effect on the construction of learning opportunities in EFL classrooms and an indirect effect on improving the quality of classroom life.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	i
Table of Tables	vii
Table of Figures	ix
Academic Thesis: Declaration of Authorship.....	xi
Dedication	xiii
Acknowledgements	xiv
Chapter 1 Introduction.....	1
1.1 Rationale for the Study	2
1.2 Personal Motivation	4
1.3 Main Focus	5
1.4 The Aim of the Study.....	6
1.5 Organisation of the Study	6
1.6 Chapter Summary.....	2
Chapter 2 Classroom Interaction Framework (Theories)	3
2.1 Classroom Interaction in Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT)	3
2.1.1 Introduction.....	3
2.1.2 Mediation	5
2.1.3 The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).....	7
2.1.4 Scaffolding	10
2.2 Chapter Summary.....	12
Chapter 3 Conceptual Framework	13
3.1 Classroom Interaction and Teacher Talk.....	13
3.1.1 Introduction.....	13
3.1.2 Historical Overview of Teacher Talk and Classroom Interaction	13
3.1.2.1 IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation).....	16
3.1.2.2 IRE or IRF.....	20
3.1.2.3 Teacher questions	23

Table of Contents

3.1.2.4 Features of teacher talk.....	26
3.1.3 The Use of Learners' Native Language (L1)	28
3.1.4 Learning Opportunity and Classroom Interaction	32
3.2 Chapter Summary	37
Chapter 4 Research Design.....	39
4.1 Introduction	39
4.2 Research Summary	39
4.3 Research Paradigms.....	41
4.3.1 Philosophical Assumptions of This Research.....	42
4.3.2 Defining Qualitative Research	46
4.3.3 Justification for Using Qualitative Research	47
4.4 The Value of Reflexivity in Qualitative Research	49
4.5 Issues of Trustworthiness	50
4.6 Generalization.....	52
4.7 The Setting of the Research	53
4.7.1 The Course	54
4.7.2 Criteria for Sampling and Participants.....	54
4.8 Chapter Summary	55
Chapter 5 Research Instruments	57
5.1 Introduction	57
5.2 Observation.....	57
5.3 Field notes.....	61
5.4 Questionnaire	62
5.5 Focus group.....	64
5.6 Ethics Consideration	65
5.7 Data Analysis Methods	66
5.7.1 Conversation Analysis.....	66
5.7.2 Content Analysis	68
5.8 Pilot Report	70
5.9 The Observer Presence	71

5.9.1 Piloting the Observation Instrument and Learning from this Phase	72
5.9.2 Piloting the Questionnaire and Focus Group Instruments and Learning from this Phase	73
5.10 Overview of Conducting Data Analysis	74
5.10.1 Data Analysis Framework.....	74
5.10.2 Transcribing and Translating the Data	75
5.11 Chapter Summary.....	79
Chapter 6 Constructing Learning Opportunity.....	81
6.1 Introduction.....	81
6.2 Analysing the Recall Questionnaire	82
6.3 Categorising the Excerpts Taxonomy	87
6.3.1 Vocabulary:.....	90
6.3.1.1 Meaning.....	91
6.3.1.2 Spelling and pronunciation.....	100
6.3.2 Grammar:	101
6.3.3 Topic area:.....	104
6.3.4 Skills and Strategies:.....	106
6.4 Chapter Summary.....	109
Chapter 7 Connections between Teacher Talk and Learning Opportunity.....	113
7.1 Introduction.....	113
7.2 Extended wait-time	114
7.3 Teacher Questions.....	118
7.4 Scaffolding	122
7.5 Content Feedback	126
7.6 The Use of Discourse Markers.....	133
7.7 Chapter Summary.....	138
Chapter 8 The of the Native language (L1)	141
8.1 Introduction.....	141
8.2 L1 for Scaffolding.....	142

Table of Contents

8.3 Emotions and L1.....	146
8.4 The Use of L1 and Turning Students' Attention	150
8.5 Findings and Discussion of Focus Group and Teachers' Comments in Field Notes.....	153
8.5.1 Explanation and Clarification.....	154
8.5.2 Balance in the Classroom.....	157
8.5.3 Creating Less Intimidating Environment.....	159
8.6 Chapter Summary	161
Chapter 9 Discussion	162
9.1 Introduction	162
9.2 Summary of the Study and its Findings	162
9.3 Discussion of Findings.....	163
9.3.1 Capturing learning opportunity	163
9.3.2 Links between Teacher Talk and Constructing Learning Opportunity	166
9.3.3 The use of L1	171
9.3.4 Discussion of Focus Group and Teachers' Comments in Field Notes.....	174
9.4 Chapter Summary	176
Chapter 10 Conclusion	177
10.1 Introduction	177
10.2 Thesis Overview	177
10.3 Contributions of the Study.....	181
10.3.1 The Concept of Learning Opportunity	181
10.4 Limitations and Difficulties Experienced During Research	183
10.5 Implication and Further Avenue for Research.....	184
Appendix A Questionnaire.....	186
Appendix B Focus Group Guide.....	188
Appendix C Arabic Consent Form.....	191
Appendix D English Consent Form.....	193
Appendix E Participant Sheet	194
Appendix F Transcription Convention.....	199

Table of Contents

Appendix G Field note sample.....	200
Appendix H Focus Group 2 (Use of L1).....	201
Appendix J Field notes (Teachers comments) Sonya	203
Appendix L Classroom Observation Sample (Transcription)	205
List of References	277

Table of Contents

Table of Tables

Table 4.1 Research Summary.....	40
Table 5.1 Classroom observation contextual information.....	59
Table 6.1 Questionnaire transcription.....	87

Table of Figures

Figure 1.1 Organisation of the Study	7
Figure 5.1 The Process of Accessing the Data.....	77
Figure 6.1 Learning Opportunity Episode Taxonomy	90

Academic Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

I, Rima Eshkal 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.

The Role of Teacher Talk in Creating Learning Opportunity in EFL Classroom in the Libyan University Context

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 have;

Signed:

Date:

Dedication

This work is dedicated to

My country **LIBYA**, my sponsorship.

My mother **Souad Mahmoud**, a strong and elegant woman who taught me to trust Allah, believe in hard work and myself.

My father **Albarrani Eshkal**, for being my role model, for earning an honest living for us and for the unconditional love and support.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Language classrooms are highly complex places as language is the means and the aim at the same time and experience tells us that no two classrooms are the same (Hall, 2011, p. 38). Language teachers around the world have been criticised for the amount of teacher talk to the extent that some studies such as (Brown, 2001; Robinson, 2013) claim that teacher talk accounts for two thirds of classroom talk. Such these studies argue that the aim of language classroom is to enable students to practise the new language, which is might not be accomplished if the teacher talk occupies most of classroom talk time. However, some researchers show that the excessive use of teacher talk is the reality of a significant number of language classrooms around the world (Berlin, 2012; Ogunleye, 2011). Moreover, even with the emergence and the theoretical dominance of CLT (communicative language teaching approach), task-based approaches and learner-centeredness within CLT, teacher talk still takes up a great deal of time in many classes... '60 per cent of class time is typically given over to teacher talk' (Huang 2016, p. 187). Therefore, instead of focusing on the amount or the quantity of teacher talk, we should focus on the quality of teacher talk and how learning opportunities and the space for learning can be created from the teacher talk and the interaction around it for students. (Walsh & Li, 2013; Walsh & Seedhouse, 2010). With a focus on teacher talk, this research intends to examine and investigate how patterns of teacher-students' interaction may affect the construction of learning opportunity in an English as a foreign language classroom in a Libyan university context.

Throughout this research, I aim to consolidate and operationalise the notion of learning opportunity as a key concept in understanding classroom learning, so readers can understand learning opportunity as a unit of analysis of classroom interaction that can be constructed jointly by teacher and students in a language classroom. Then to provide implications for future teaching. The theoretical framework of this study is based on the concept of socio-cultural theory. The fundamental concept of this theory is that human beings are social by

nature and that learning develops first through social interaction. In other words, learning and development take place while the learners interact with the more capable and knowledgeable members of community within specific and cultural context (see Chapter 2 for more details). Five sections are included in this chapter: the rational of this study, the personal motivation, the main focus, the aim of this study, which includes the research questions and finally, the organization of this study, which explains the structure of this research.

1.1 Rationale for the Study

The rational of this study stems from three areas in the literature, which are teacher talk, learning opportunity and students' perspective towards their teacher talk. Firstly, teacher talk as an area of research is less emphasised in the literature for different reasons. For being obstructing to learner participation if it has been used excessively and for teachers' relying on IRF pattern (Initiation, Response, and Feedback) (see section 3.1.2 for more details about this interaction pattern) (Berlin, 2012; Szendroi, 2010; Xiao-yan, 2006). However, currently, there have been considerable number of interesting investigations from a Vygotskian perspective (see Chapter 2 for more details) of how teachers or caregivers interact linguistically with the students or children; yet, these have mainly focused on small-group or one-to-one interaction and have been carried out in first language learning contexts (Cazden, 2001, Hellermann, 2005; Marshall et al. 2009). Even when similar studies have been conducted in second language environments, researchers more often investigate classroom discourse in lower-level language classrooms (Hall, 1995, 1998, 2004; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Ho, 2006).

Secondly, the concept of learning opportunity is widely used and found in the literature, typically without showing what it might look like in the discourse data (Allwright, 2005; Anderson, 2015; Crabbe, 2003; 2007). Moreover, identifying learning opportunities is considered significantly a complex issue by a number of researchers, yet it is something crucial for classroom that we need to understand, as learning opportunity is the best thing that can happen in classroom (Allwright, 2005; Zhu, 2016). Therefore, throughout this research, I aim to consolidate the notion of learning opportunity as a key concept for understand language

learning in instructed settings, and understanding how classrooms work. Hence, readers can understand learning opportunity as a unit of analysis of classroom discourse that can be constructed jointly by teacher and students and has salience for students' learning.

Finally, because the main aim of this research is to investigate how learning opportunities can be co-constructed by the teacher and students in EFL classrooms with a focus on teacher talk, students' voice in this study has a great importance in identifying what kind of potential learning opportunities become realised to the students. Therefore, including the students' voice in this study is needed in order to find out which learning items in the classroom discourse are salient to the students. Moreover, from socio-cultural perspective, which this research is based on, co-constructing learning opportunities is a partnership. Teacher agency and learner agency have important role to play so that it is not just the teacher pushes the information but also the student has to pull the information. Thus, learning opportunity which is the focus of this study, does not cover only the language based construct of learning opportunity, but also covers the social aspects such as teacher agency and learner agency, which are important factors that affect the construction of learning opportunity (Allwright, 2005).

This kind of teacher agency can be for instance represented by the teacher when the latter through her/his use of language does not transmit the knowledge to the learners but taking the position of more competent other by interacting and scaffolding learners' contribution in order to co-construct the knowledge. The learner agency can be represented through his/her participation or through the uptake of information even if the learners do not take part or participate overtly in the interaction.

Henceforth, the contribution of this research is to bring a stronger conceptualisation of the notion of learning opportunity as a cognitive interactional space for learning within effective emotional dimensions. Throughout the analysis process, I aim to explore these learning opportunities through the ways students participate in the discourse. Furthermore, it seems also worthwhile to investigate whole-class interactions, and attempt to understand ways in

which teacher-with-many student interactions might be constitutive of learning opportunities (Bruner, 1990; Markee, 2004).

1.2 Personal Motivation

As explained above, it is quite common in Libya as in different parts from the world that language classroom is teacher led and the amount of teacher talk is occupying nearly two thirds of the language classroom. Having said this, criticising the excessive use of teacher talk might not solve the problem, as this is what happens most of the time in the real practise of most EFL classrooms (Szendroi, 2010). Instead of that, as researchers we should turn to focus on the quality but not the quantity of teacher talk. One of the ways to do so might be by investigating classroom discourse and exploring how learning opportunities in EFL/ESL classroom can be created and constructed jointly in classroom interaction. Moreover, it can be clearly seen that because of the necessity to improve the learning and teaching quality in higher education, it is unavoidable that teachers and instructors should consider not only the content and products (curriculum, exams, assessments) but also the process issues such as (classroom interaction). Hence, as an EFL teacher in a Libyan university I was advised as other teachers to use group work and make the students use the language as much as possible. However, I always wondered do learners learn more when they use the language or verbally interact with the teacher or with other students and in case of there is no interaction in the classroom where teacher tends only to lecturing, do students learn anything. If so; what kind of learning opportunities that are available during the daily classes for the learners to uptake; what kind of language use that makes these learning opportunities salient to the students.

As I was student for four years and have six years of teaching experience in the same university, I decided to conduct my research in this context so I selected two classrooms to be the research site of this study. I am interested to see a kind of practice that characterises the language classrooms in the Libyan higher education. Thus, these two classrooms these teachers and these students are largely typical of what found in Libyan higher education. However, I expected to find different situation now in Libya, as it is an exceptional disruption

time compared with the time when I was a student and a teacher. There is a significant social disruption of university life and uncertainty because of the current security situation in Libya, and what happened after 2011. Perhaps the most pressing problem Libya faces currently is the militarization of some civilian groups, which caused serious instability in Libya. This made the context hugely different now from what it was when I was student and teacher. Nevertheless, during the data collection period, I have found that teachers are largely trying to teach in the way that they were doing that in years ago.

1.3 Main Focus

To investigate classroom interaction with a focus on teacher talk, and the important role that it plays in constructing learning opportunities in EFL/ESL classroom, this research is guided by the interpretive research paradigm which is also known as qualitative research. I decided to adopt qualitative research design because in my study I am interested in investigating and describing what is going on during the interaction in naturalistic settings of EFL classroom, and to understand how teachers, by their use of language, facilitate learners' contribution and create learning opportunities. The data are collected through recall questionnaire distributed to the students. I also conducted classroom observations, audio recording of classroom interaction and the focus is on whole-class interaction because it is likely to occur more frequently than dyadic interaction and is therefore a major site for L2 learning and teaching in the everyday reality of these classrooms. The audio-recorded data is supplemented with field notes. Using field notes enabled me to write notes about details that will not be evident in the audio-recorded data such as non-linguistic behaviour and body language including gestures (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011). Finally, a number of focus group discussions are conducted with students as well to investigate learners' preference towards their teacher talk and their evaluation of their teacher talk in order to have a reflection from another perspective. It is believed that close investigation on teacher-students interaction together with contextual information from the classroom and the perspective of the students might yield better understanding into how learning opportunities can be created out of

teacher talk and the interaction around it and constructed jointly by the teacher and the students.

1.4 The Aim of the Study

The main aim of this research study is to conceptualise and operationalise the term of learning opportunity as a unit of analysis so that people can understand from the analysis of classroom discourse how learning opportunities in EFL classrooms can be constructed jointly by the teacher and the students. However, the importance of this study lies in enhancing our understanding of the complexity of the concept of learning opportunity, and the ways classroom interaction facilitates learning. In other words, this research is about improving learning outcomes of language classrooms, and it is about teachers' development. In order to improve language classroom, the teachers need to enhance their understanding about the complexity of classroom interaction and learning opportunities. Therefore, this research aims to raise teachers' awareness and to enable them to understand the details of classroom discourse, which as a result might enable them to be reflective practitioners for the sake of improving the quality of language classroom life. In order to approach this objective, I aim to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What kind of learning opportunities do students construct from classroom interaction and teacher talk?

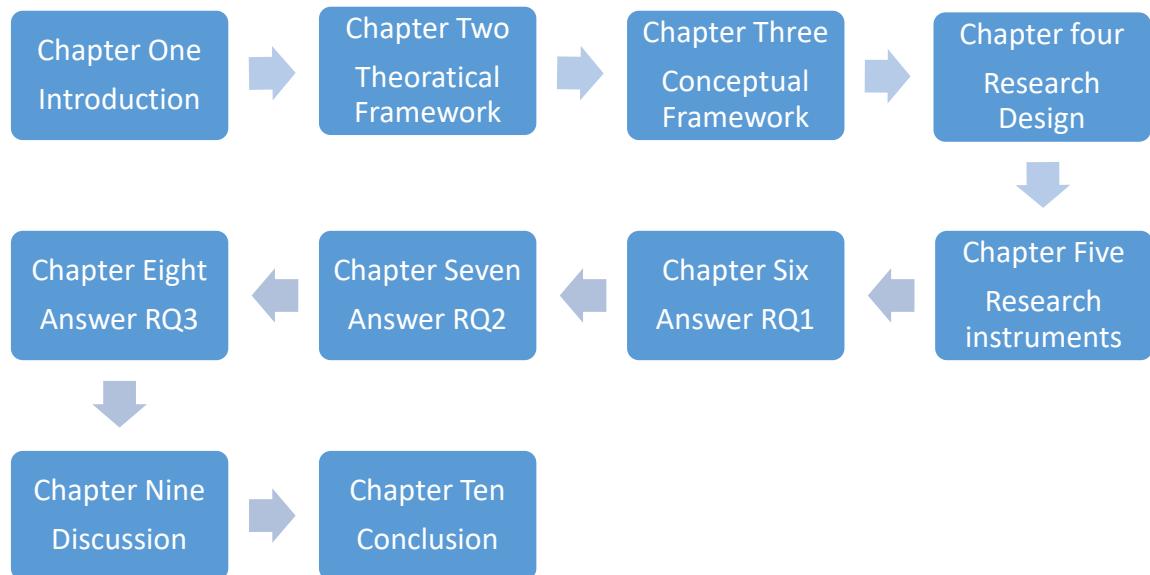
RQ2: What is the relationship between features of teacher talk and the experience of learning opportunity?

RQ3: What functions does the L1 serve in teacher/students interaction in the creation of learning opportunity?

1.5 Organisation of the Study

This research study is divided into nine chapters as shown below in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Organisation of the Study



Chapter 1 provides the introduction and an overview of the entire study.

Chapter 2 in this chapter, a discussion about the theoretical bases of this study. It is important before starting this research to show familiarity with some approaches to researching and understanding classroom interaction and teacher talk. Therefore, this chapter focuses on one perspective regarding the classroom interaction: sociocultural theory and its constructs. Then, it explains how this study is based on Vygotsky (1978) social-cultural theory of learning.

Chapter 3 offers key definitions of the terms and themes used in this research. It explains the conceptual framework, underlines concepts from the general education literature regarding classroom interaction and teacher talk, and classroom interaction and learning opportunities. It also provides a review of previous investigations of classroom interaction and teacher talk in relation to L2 learning.

Chapter 4 provides a description of the research design. It gives a discussion about the philosophical assumption of this research and different definitions and Justification for using qualitative approach. It also discusses some points such as the value of reflexivity in qualitative research, Issues of trustworthiness and generalization. Then it provides the background of the setting of the research, the course and the criteria for sampling and participants of this study.

Chapter 5 this chapter provides explanations of the research instruments used in this study, which are classroom observation, recall questionnaire, focus group and field notes, also a rational for using these methods and procedures during the data collection. The methods used for data analysis is also provided (conversation analysis and content analysis). The last section in this chapter is dedicated to explain the pilot study that is conducted in the first week of data collection. It also explains how the data is accessed and analysed.

Chapter 6 this chapter was set to answer the first research question. It is generally descriptive as it presents the analysis of students' recall questionnaires and then locating what is found in these reports in the transcription of the recorded classes.

Chapter 1

Chapter 7 the analysis in this chapter aims at answering the second research question. In this chapter, I look in detail at some features of teacher talk in these learning opportunities episodes that were identified based on students' feedback. It aims at investigating the relationship between some discourse features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunities to find out what made the recalling items (questionnaire data set) salient to the students.

Chapter 8 provides the answer of the last research question. This chapter aims to explore the role that the first language (L1; in this study L1 is Arabic) plays in constructing learning opportunities in the particular situations that I examine, in EFL Libyan university context with a focus on teacher talk.

Chapter 9 this chapter offers an overview of the whole study and a discussion of its findings and a specific answer of each research question.

Chapter 10 this chapter concludes the study. It starts with the thesis overview, and then it presents the limitation and the difficulties and challenges that experienced during the PhD journey. The implications and the recommendation for further research were also provided in the last part of this research.

1.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has offered an introduction to the study. A description of what the study entails had been provided. A background research rational was also enlightened. The study outline has been mentioned including the aims of the study, personal motivation of research and the focus of the study. The research objective and research questions were also addressed. Finally, this chapter provided an overview of the organization of the study, explaining the structure of the study including all chapters. In the next chapter, I provide a discussion about the theoretical framework that underpins the study. The chapter explains the theoretical bases of this research study through bodies of literature from one perspective regarding classroom interaction, which is socio-cultural theory.

Chapter 2 Classroom Interaction Framework (Theories)

2.1 Classroom Interaction in Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT)

2.1.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the discussion will target classroom interaction and teacher talk from a socio-cultural viewpoint. It starts by locating this study in the socio-cultural framework; the tenets of socio-cultural theory will be examined as well. Finally, I discuss relevant constructs of SCT in order to explain classroom interaction and teacher talk.

The theoretical framework of this current study is based on socio-cultural theory. Although Vygotsky's work focused on the cognitive development of children in L1, according to some researchers (Lantolf, 2000; Swain, Kinnear & Steinman, 2015), the theory can be validated to L2 learning in formal and informal instructional settings. These researchers also claim that his approach has been one of the most effective approach to study language learning and teaching within social-cultural contexts in recent years. The idea that says the second and foreign language learning and socio-cultural contexts are inseparable was confirmed by a significant number of research studies (Chaudron, 1988; Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf and Pavlenko, 1995; Anton, 1999; Wells, 1999; Duff, 2000; Takahashi et al., 2000; McCormick and Donato, 2000; Lantolf, 2000; Watson-Gegeo and Nielsen, 2003; Donato, 2004; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006).

Both social interaction and talk have a key role in SCT. Although studies of classroom interaction and teacher talk based on the socio-cultural theory are concerned mostly with the learning itself, this theory emphasises the process as well as the product, which goes in line with the aim of this research which is tracking and analysing the construction of the learning opportunity and not just the learning accomplishment (learning outcomes). It attempts to operationalise learning opportunity as a theoretical concept and the role of the teacher talk (the more competent other) in creating these opportunities throughout classroom interaction. In other words, it focuses on how teachers' discourse and instructional decisions affect the creation of students' learning opportunities. Thus, in this

Chapter 2

section, first, a brief account of the origins of the socio-cultural theory will be provided, then, I explain some of its key concepts and relating them to the area of classroom interaction and teacher talk.

A sociocultural theory was established by Vygotsky (1978), and extended by his followers and colleagues. The fundamental proposition of SCT is that cognitive development (i.e. learning) originates in social interaction. Means, learning is a social activity. The trajectory of cognitive development in this theory was formulated by Vygotsky (1981) as from the interpsychological plane (the social plane) to the intrapsychological plane (the individual plane) by stating:

Any function in the child's cultural development appears twice, or in two planes: first, it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane; first it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category. This is equally true with regard to voluntary attention, and the formation of concepts and the development of volition (p. 163).

In other words, learning first takes place between a child and an expert (parents or teacher) when they both engage in joint task. The expert adult assists the young child to appropriate the child's skills and greater knowledge in relation to the undertaking at hand and gradually the expert hands over the task to the child. As a result, part or all of the expertise of the expert will be internalized by the child and the latter will transform it into his/her own resources, that can be utilised for individual thinking and problem solving.

In the present study, I would refer to adult-child interaction as teacher-student interaction (Lantolf, 2000). In other words, the more knowledgeable person or the expert will be represented by the teacher and the child will be represented by the learner. From socio-cultural perspective, the assistance from the expert mainly mediated by means of talk. Vygotsky claims that talk is the most widely used as an important means for human beings to organise social interaction, to regulate oneself, and others so that higher mental functioning in an individual is mainly rooted in social life (Wells, 1999, p. 117; Wertsch, 1991, p. 25). With effective interaction, particularly through talking to their teacher or

peers, the learners eventually extend and develop their linguistic knowledge. Vygotsky's perspective emphasises teaching and the role of the expert (e.g. teacher) rather than joint learning (peers interaction). Therefore, SCT can be applied to this current research, so in order to examine this interactional process, with a focus on teacher discourse, I draw upon the following theoretical constructs from socio-cultural theory, which are mediation, the zone of proximal development and scaffolding.

2.1.2 Mediation

At the heart of Vygotskian socio-cultural theory lies the notion of mediation, which says that people do not act directly to the physical world; rather, human beings make use of signs and symbolic tools to mediate and regulate their relationships and activities with themselves and with others. In other words, mediation is the main construct, which unites all varieties of SCT and it is rooted in the idea that human beings do not act directly to the world, but, their mental and cognitive activities are mediated by symbolic artefacts (such as languages, and forms of rationality and logic). One of the main symbolic tools at our disposal is that of language. From early ages, people learn to use language in order to mediate their mental and physical activity. For example, when a child cannot reach something from a cupboard. The child will ask someone who is taller (e.g., a parent) to get it for her/him. In this way, language assists the mediation effort and is an essential mediational tool by which human will carry out an activity.

Vygotsky's concept of mediation can be divided into human mediation and symbolic mediation. The former is more relevant to this research. As it was mentioned above, human mediation, as defined by Vygotsky (1978), is the idea that every psychological function appears twice in the development. First, it appears in the form of actual interaction between human beings (referred to as the social plane or interpersonal interaction). Then, it appeared again in an internalized form, (referred to as individual plane or intrapersonal interaction) (Kozulin, 2003). Therefore, human mediation primarily depends on the assistance of another person, which in the case of this research will be the teacher and the other student. However, over time, the need for another's assistance (for particular activities) will be reduced because the learners might be able to confront and solve problems on their own.

Chapter 2

When applied to the context of language classrooms, the socio-cultural perspective posits that students are exposed to a variety of cognitive problems to solve during each class. Some of these problems are recognised through linguistic puzzles in the target language, such as the ability of a learner to understand complex grammatical structures used in L2 text. However, regardless the nature of difficulty, the students in the language classroom will firstly rely on the mediation of the MCO (more competent other, principally the teacher) for guidance in order to construct meaning of what is not understood on their own. Finally, the learner might be able to overcome these problems on her/his own.

What is important to emphasise here for the focus of this study is that a SCT view insists that the development of higher mental processes or functions is initially mediated by the assistance of another person. Based on this idea, In the case of analysing classroom discourse between the teacher and student(s) in the language classroom, it is the teacher who will take on the role of the main mediator to guide the learners to mediate their own cognition and knowledge in constructing the learning opportunities. Therefore, it is important to understand how learning opportunities are constructed with the mediation of the teacher. Moreover, to understand the way in which teachers in these L2 contexts serve as important mediators to help in guiding the students via a variety of difficulties and eventually allow these students to solve similar problems by themselves in the future. This research also aims to identify the different ways of teacher mediation for students' involvement within the IRF format (Initiation-response-feedback) (see section 3.1.2 for more details). Hence, the development of these higher psychological functions that comprise human cognition are first attained through social interactions with others (in this case the teacher and may be other students) and then eventually go inward through the process intrapersonal interaction. However, to explain how mediation relate to language learning and teaching, I need to turn now to the constructs of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding. The concept of ZPD, which is central to Vygotskian theory, refers to a metaphor for the dynamic space in which learning occurs and takes place. These concepts are explored further in the following sections.

2.1.3 The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

As this study aims for examining how learning opportunity can be constructed with the help of the teacher (the more competent other) in EFL classroom, it is very important to discuss the notion of zone of proximal development (ZPD). The latter defined as 'the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in cooperation with more capable peers' (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). ZPD according to Vygotsky is the gap between a child's low point of development, as measured individually, and high point, as measured on social tasks. In second language acquisition research often used to refer to 'the gap between the learner's current stage and the next point on some development scale the learner is capable of reaching' (Cook, 2013, p. 27). The latter argues that the unique aspect of Vygotsky's ZPD is that the gap between the current state of the learners and their future development is bridged by assistance from more competent others (e.g. teacher). Means that learning requires social interaction so that knowledge can be internalized out of external action. With the ZPD, Vygotsky (1978) put into short and concise form his more general notion that 'human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them' (p. 88). According to Vygotsky, there are two modes of (ZPD), namely child-child and adult-child interaction. In the current study, the foci is on teacher/ students interaction. Thus, I would refer to (adult-child) interaction as teacher-students' interaction.

Vygotsky was specifically interested in the complex effects that schooling have on cognitive development. One of Vygotsky's significant findings is that instruction, particularly formal instruction shapes and proceeds development. Therefore, ZPD is not only 'a model of the developmental process but also a conceptual tool that educators can use to understand aspects of students emerging capacities' (Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2014, p. 78). When used productively, teachers use the ZPD in a productive way to be as a diagnostic, it may have the potential to create condition that might give rise to specific forms of future development. Means, for intellectual growth to take place in the learner, the expert (in this case the teacher) should afford mediation through helpful and supportive dialogue within the learner's ZPD. In the classroom, the teacher should establish first the potential and actual levels of development of the student and then structure the assistance to help the learners operate at their potential level of development. However, it might be difficult for

Chapter 2

the teacher in the classrooms to specify and identify the ZPD to work with it as a concept and tool (Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2014).

The ZPD plays a crucial role in Socio-cultural Theory, which identifies that knowledge is embodied in interactions with the environment or culture. The participation on the part of the learner can be made available by the teacher's support and assistance in different forms. For instance, it can be manifested when teacher adjust their talk to a level that is comprehensible to the students, by providing linguistic resources when the student gets stuck or by extending the learner's turns or attempts. This supportive dialogue was called the metaphor scaffolding, this term was used first by Vygotsky and later on explored by Bruner (1978). I return to this construct in subsequent section. Based on Vygotskian perspective, this study seeks to analyse how learning opportunities are co-constructed by the students as they talk and interact with the teacher in the context of language classroom. Thus, learning opportunity is not something happened to the student individually, yet it is something happens between people (in this case between teacher and students) as they interact. However, I focus on the teacher talk particularly as there are a significant number of studies address that the teacher has a powerful role whether it is direct or indirect in constructing the learning opportunities with the student (Hall, 2011; Walsh, 2002; 2006; 2011).

Chaiklin (2003) claims that the concept of ZPD is the most commonly used and least understood of the central concepts of socio-cultural theory. He identifies two general misconceptions about this concept, and both of these assumptions are problematic. The first assumption is that it is similar to Krashen's input hypothesis of $i + 1$ (Krashen, 1982). The latter defined comprehensible input as language that is heard or read and is slightly beyond or ahead a learner's current level of interlanguage development ($i+1$) (Krashen, 1985). Regarding to this misconception about the similarity between ZPD and Krashen's $i + 1$, the essential problem is that the ZPD emphasises the nature of concrete dialogic relationship between expert and novice, which aims for moving the novice to self-regulation throughout a new language. The focus of input hypothesis is on the language and the language acquisition device, which is expected to be similar for all learners with

very little room for the individual differential development (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998; Thorne, 2000). Krashen's hypothesis assertions that language develops as a result of learners' input comprehension that encompasses features of the new language, which are a little beyond their current development level. Researchers pointed out; there is no way of determining accurately the $i + 1$ of any given language learner in advance of development. This because in the real practice, the ' $i + 1$ ' concept is not operationalisable 'that is, we cannot define with confidence what $i + 1$ consists of and therefore we cannot know whether or not these teachers were operating at the same level of complexity' (Allright & Baily, 1991, p. 140). It can be only predicted or assumed after the fact. With regard the ZPD, language development can be predicated in advance for any given learner based on his/her reaction and responsiveness to mediation. This is exactly what it means to say that what an individual learner is capable of with mediation at some point in time; s/he will be able to do it without mediation at a future point in time.

The second assumption is that the concept of ZPD is the same of scaffolding (or assisted performance) and this assumption is problematic as well. Scaffolding, which is the term that will be discussed in the following section, is a term promoted by Jerome Bruner (1978) and his colleagues four decades ago (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976). This term refers to any kind of adult-child (teacher-student) assisted performance. Unlike the ZPD, scaffolding is thought of in terms of the quantity and the amount of assistance offered by the more competent other (the expert) to the novice rather than in terms of quality, and changes in the quality, of mediation that is negotiated between experts and novice (Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner, 2000). Thus, in construction of knowledge by the students with the teacher, assistance and help is provided when needed and in the quantity and quality required, and then is gradually withdrawal when the individual (the student) can mediate and regulate her/himself. Therefore, it is this scaffolding that constructs a learner's ZPD.

Regarding the connection between scaffolding and ZPD as concepts, the scaffolding and ZPD support each other conceptually and syntactically. Scaffold seems a useful verb to operationalize the concept and the meaning of a ZPD (Wells, 1999). Therefore, the metaphor of a scaffold (noun or verb) or scaffolding (noun or verb) is a vivid one.

2.1.4 Scaffolding

The term of scaffolding is another teacher-friendly concept, which is connected with socio-cultural theory although not named by Vygotsky. In other words, scaffolding is one of the teaching approaches that associates with Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD. Scaffolding is located at the heart of learning and teaching. In terms of teaching, scaffolding can be defined as the assistance that the teacher provides for a student to step beyond her/his current understandings or capabilities to a new or higher level (van Lier, 2004). Inside the classroom, whether it is implicitly and explicitly, the teacher plays an essential role as scaffolder. Moreover, Walsh (2002; 2006; 2011) considers scaffolding one of the features of teacher talk that facilitates students learning, and it is one of the component of Walsh's framework (This framework will be discussed in Chapter 3) that has been adapted in this study for analysing teacher talk and classroom discourse. In addition, this study also sheds light on the concept of (Languaging), which has a relationship with the notion of scaffolding. The concept of languaging was named by Swain (2000). Yet it is based on Vygotsky's claim that language is the most important symbolic system that the human beings have at their disposal in the development and mediation of voluntary. Swain in her work (Swain, 1997, 2000, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2001, 2002) has adopted a Vygotskian sociocultural approach to language learning, and she recommends sociocultural theory that can deal with the complexity of language classroom learning. In her research, she shows how the students scaffold their learning by the use of languaging that is conducted in L1 as a mediating tool to produce L2 forms.

However, it is not an easy task for the teacher to keep the balance and not 'slipping from a scaffolding teacher role into controller, actor, dictator, thinker, and main doer. Students will then be viewed as vessels to be filled' (Rajab, 2013, p. 34). Wood et al. (1976, p. 90) provides the following definition of scaffolding as 'those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capacity, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence. Thus, Scaffolding refers to the gradual withdrawal of the expert support and control in direct relation to a novice increasing mastery of a given task. In an attempt to offer a classification of

scaffolding, Wood et al (1976) offers a classification of scaffolding that comprises six functions:

1. Operationalising interest in the task
2. decreasing the degrees of freedom (simplifying the task)
3. maintaining direction toward the targets of the task
4. marking the essential features
5. managing and controlling frustration
6. modelling the preferred procedures by clarifying and demonstrating (Wood et al. 1976, p. 98)

Based on Wood et al's classification, Van de Pol, Volman and Beishuizen (2010) provide the following six means to support the learning activities:

- Feeding back involves the provision of information regarding the student 's performance to the student him/herself.
- The giving of hints entails the provision of clues or suggestions by the teacher to help the student go forward. The teacher deliberately does not supply the entire solution or detailed instructions under such circumstances.
- Instructing involves the teacher telling the students what to do or explanation of how something must be done and why.
- Explaining refers to the provision of more detailed information or clarification by the teacher.
- Modelling includes the demonstration of particular skills.
- Questioning involves asking students questions that require an active linguistic and cognitive answer. (Van de Pol, Volman & Beishuizen, 2010, p. 277)

Nevertheless, not all the types of assistance and help provided to the students in the classroom can be considered as scaffolding. Bodrova and Leong 1998 propose two criteria

in identifying if a particular example of assistance can be considered as scaffolding or not. First, if a learner completes the task successfully with the teacher's assistance. Secondly, if the learner achieved a greater level of independent competence as a result of this assistance. However, in the context of large classrooms, these two criteria might not be practical in terms of understanding scaffolding effects of teacher talk.

2.2 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, classroom interaction and teacher talk were discussed from the Vygotskian perspective. It started by locating this study in the socio-cultural framework, then an overview about the relevant constructs of the socio-cultural theory were examined as well. The next chapter provides a detailed discussion about the conceptual framework, which includes the concepts that are relevant to this current research study.

Chapter 3 Conceptual Framework

3.1 Classroom Interaction and Teacher Talk

3.1.1 Introduction

This literature review summarises the concepts and themes in the classroom interaction, teacher talk and learning opportunity and identifies key concepts relevant to the present research study. These include the IRE and IRF classroom interaction patterns, teacher questions, features of teacher talk and the use of learners' native language. Finally, a discussion of the concept of learning opportunity and classroom interaction is addressed as well.

3.1.2 Historical Overview of Teacher Talk and Classroom Interaction

In the history of education, teaching a foreign language represents a challenge activity, as it involves a very complex and multi-layered issues, and demands interactional competence and awareness (Jenks, 2010; Mori & Hasegawa; Walsh 2006; Walsh & Seedhouse, 2009). According to Thornbury (2000) in a language classroom, the communication patterns are complex and unique, differing from those found in content-based subjects such as mathematics and geography. Language in the language classroom represents both the aim and the means to achieve that aim, which is the process and the product, are the same. Therefore, what makes the complexity is that language in EFL/ESL classroom is simultaneously 'the vehicle and the object of instruction' (Long, 1983, p. 9). However, in the EFL context, there is a consensus that universal features mean that 'teachers control both the topic of conversation and turn-taking, students take their cues from the teacher through whom they direct most of their responses, and L2 teachers control most of the patterns of communication' (Walsh, 2006, p. 5). So it is the teacher who 'orchestrates the interaction' (Breen, 1998, p. 119). Moreover, other researchers around the world confirm that teacher talk accounts for two thirds of EFL classroom speech (Berlin, 2012; Brown, 2001; Johnson, 1995; Szendroi, 2010; Xiao-yan, 2006). Teacher talk is the talk of language use linked to the traditional role that teachers play in the classroom (Cazden, 1988; Chaudron, 1988). Rod Ellis (1985) defines teacher talk as 'the special language that teachers

use when addressing L2 learners in the classroom' (p. 145). In other words, research on classroom discourse has reported that classroom talk tend to be dominated by teachers. Wintergerst (1994) claims that two-thirds of class time is attributed to talk, and two-thirds of this talk time is dominated by the teacher. Some other statements claim that 'teacher talk is bad' (Nunan, 1991, p. 190) because students have fewer opportunities to produce output in target language, while the teacher dominates the class talk (Chaudron, 1988, p. 52). However, it can be argued that in many second language classrooms, 'teacher talk is important in providing learners with the only substantial live target language input they are likely to receive' (Nunan, 1991, p. 190). Thus, one primary concern with language learning in classrooms is the role of teacher talk (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Therefore, instead of criticising language teachers for dominating classroom talk, more research has to be focused on the quality but not the quantity of teacher talk.

Walsh (2006) argues that the focal concern should be the quality with regard providing learning opportunities to the language learners rather than the quantity of teacher talk, 'as handing over responsibility for communication to learners is not guaranteed to facilitate L2 learning' (Walsh, 2006, p. 4). As this research is based on socio-cultural framework, so learning opportunity is not something happens to student in isolation and individually. It is something happens between people (in this case between teacher and students or between students themselves). However, the focus of this research is on the teacher as a number of studies address that the teacher has a powerful role whether it is direct or indirect in constructing learning opportunity with students. Dornyei and Malderez (1997) in their study, showed that group and peer interaction might not be the only way to facilitate S/FL acquisition in language classroom, as was thought before. Thus, Walsh (2002) suggests that as researchers we should investigate how teachers by their use of language facilitates learners' contribution in the EFL classroom, and how learning opportunities, which is the main focus of this research, can be created from the teacher talk and the interaction around it for students.

Some other Researchers have previously examined teacher talk and classroom interaction including (Cancino, 2015; Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 2012; Nunan, 1991; Robinson, 2013;

Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh; 2002; 2006; 2011; Wright, 2005; Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010). Their statements claim that Teacher talk plays an important role not only for the organization of the classroom but also for creating the learning opportunities for students' contribution, and it is by the use of language teachers can either successfully or unsuccessfully implement their teaching and learning goals. Moreover, Martin-Beltran (2012) argues that even during peer interaction in student-centred classrooms, it is always the teacher role that adds value to the learning opportunities. Allwright (2005) claims that even the approaches that arising from the critique of teacher-centred pedagogy such as computer-mediated learning and task-based learning have unwittingly reemphasised the centrality of the teacher. Nevertheless, teacher talk as an area of research is less emphasised in the literature (Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010). Chaudron (1988) states that 'greater rigor and a well-defined research agenda are needed for further studies of L2 teacher talk' (Chaudron, 1988, cited in Hall, 2011, p. 87). Furthermore, much research is yet to be conducted in a context with limited resource environment and the teacher talk might be the only key for learning. Thus, in this research the author's intention is to conduct a study focusing on the role of EFL teachers' talk and the interaction around it in constructing learning opportunities jointly with students in one of the Libyan universities.

As stated above, classroom talk is predominantly teacher talk (Alexander, 2001; 2006; Cazden, 2001; Mehan, 1979) and the majority of this talk orients to a three-part sequence encompassing an initial teacher question (usually closed) that linked to (usually brief) learner response, and finally followed by the teacher's indicative turns as to the suitability or not of a learner's response (IRF). Therefore, in the next section, a detailed discussion is provided about the work on classroom spoken interaction, where nearly all classroom interaction can be analysed and described according to this three-part exchange. In the rest of this chapter, a discussion is offered about a number of research areas that looked at teacher talk and classroom interaction, which are teacher questions, discourse features of teacher talk, the use of learners' native language. Finally, with teacher talk and classroom interaction in mind, a discussion about the concept of learning opportunity, which is the core of this study, is provided as well.

3.1.2.1 IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation)

Using interaction in language classroom in recent years has become the standard at least as far as it is concerned by language teachers in the Western world (Dobinson, 2001). Earlier studies on classroom interaction have been conducted in order to identify the most common format of interaction between the teacher and students (Cazden, 1988; Lemke, 1985; Mehan, 1979). They found that the teacher usually starts conversations, the students answer, and the teacher offers evaluation. After finishing one sequence with one student, the teacher moves on into another round by asking a follow-up question to the same student or the same or even related question to another student. Thus, among several language patterns of classroom discourse, the three-part sequence structure is perhaps the most ubiquitous and universal discourse format anywhere around the world (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Thoms, 2012). Because of its ubiquity, researchers suggest that this three-part exchange, which called IRE to be the unmarked mode of classroom interaction and a default mode, which adopted by teachers (Cazden, 2001; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). IRE is also known as triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1985) and recitation script (Walsh, 2011). For this research, it is very crucial to talk about this sequence because it enables the researchers to understand 'the special nature of classroom interaction' (Walsh, 2011, p. 18). Furthermore, it explains why teacher in classroom talks more than learners as for each utterance made by a student (R), the teacher normally makes two (I and E).

Including the IRE/IRF sequence in this study might be useful in explaining how learning opportunity for learners' involvement can be constructed. For example, expanding the F move by asking a question and allowing adequate wait-time for student to answer). In language classrooms, teachers control turn taking by the use of IRE, not only they initiate response, but they also provide an evaluation, which is further evidence of control. Some researchers regard IRE as a typical means of monitoring and checking learners' understanding and knowledge, and achieving the aims of education (Mercer, 1992; Newman, Griffin, & Cole 1989). In other words, we can find the importance of the teacher's role reflected on her/his utterances with the language learners. Of particular significance are the discourse patterns that the teacher uses in the classroom, such as the IRE (initiation,

response and evaluation) and IRF (initiation, response and feedback or follow-up move). However, IRFs do not represent the other types of classroom talk involving different patterns of exchanges (e.g. students initiate to the teacher or other students). Nevertheless, as mentioned above, among all types of talk, IRFs have been observed as a common feature in classroom discourse from kindergarten to university contexts around the world (Edwards & Mercer, 2013).

This teaching practice has largely been criticised over the years for its teacher-centred approach. Hardman (2008) for example argues that IRE usually takes place at a fast pace and 'predictable sequence of recitation... student responses are evaluated and commented on by the teacher who has the right to determine what is relevant within her pedagogic agenda' (p. 139). Some classroom interaction researchers claim that the IRE sequence is detrimental for fostering meaningful student participation (Lemke, 1990). Cazden (1988) considers the IRE/F exchange as the 'default pattern - what happens unless deliberate action is taken to achieve some alternative' (Cazden, 1988, p. 53). In this work, Cazden reviews research findings, which show that deviations from the IRE/F pattern of discourse are very rare and fleeting. Instances of student initiation, conversational-type discussion, student-student exchanges and symmetrical teacher/students interactions are uncommon and unusual occurrences. Yet it seems to 'yield most in terms of level of learner engagement and exploratory talk giving rise to real thinking' (Cazden, 1988, p. 92).

Moreover, Wood (1998) debates that the detrimental nature of this asymmetrical discourse pattern of interaction is clear if a research conducted based on sociocultural perspective of learning; creating, as Cobb, Yackel and Wood (1992) point out, 'a powerful barrier to the achievement of interaction in which children display initiative, curiosity or negotiation' (p. 207). Furthermore, a considerable number of L2 studies highlight the negative influence on levels of students' participation observed in teaching dominated by teacher talk following an IRE/F pattern (Consolo, 2000; Mantero, 2002). In spite of this, this three-part exchange appears to be very popular among teachers. It has been argued that 'teachers instinctively adopt an IRE mode of instruction because it is perceived, perhaps unconsciously, to be a powerful pedagogical device for transmitting and constructing knowledge' (Cullen, 2002, p. 118). The following example is showing how teachers use this pattern in language classroom.

Teacher:	What's this?	(teacher initiation)
Students:	A tower.	(learner response)
Teacher:	Good, yes, a tower.	(teacher follow-up-comment)

(Lee & Ng, 2010, p. 304)

In addition to describe this typical pattern of classroom discourse, this body of research has sought to uncover a connection between the IRF as a pattern of language use and language development. Barnes (1992) for example, in a study of classroom discourse of a number of language arts classrooms was able to show how the use of the IRE so often facilitates teacher control of the interaction rather than students learning. Barnes (1992) also claims that the repeated use of this pattern of interaction did not allow for complex ways of teacher/students interaction. Rather, when students could take a turn, the teacher decides who would participate, and how much they could contribute. He concluded his study by stating that the extended use of the IRE repeatedly hinders students' opportunities to talk through their understandings and try out their ideas that related to the topic at hand, and even to become more proficient in the use of practically and intellectually complex language. Perhaps in the most comprehensive research on classroom interaction and language learning, in a study of 112 eighth and ninth grade language arts and English classrooms in the United States, Nystrand et al. (1997) point out that the use of the IRE structure of interaction was negatively correlated with language learning. Students whose classroom interaction was nearly exclusively limited to the IRF, could not understand and recall the topical content as the students who were involved in more complex interaction patterns. Additionally, they found that the use of this pattern of interaction was more dominant in lower-track classes. Consequently, the researchers argued, to significant inequalities in learners' opportunities to develop intellectually complex knowledge and skills.

By the same token, Hall (1997), in his research of a high school Spanish language classroom, claims that the teacher most often uses IRE pattern in her interactions with the students. This teacher typically initiates the sequence with a display question (question that she knows the answer), and her responses to students, which is the third part of IRE sequence, is most of the time an evaluation of the grammatical correctness of their responses to the initiated question. Hall adds that the excessive use of IRE pattern in this academic semester led to topically, mechanical and even monotonous disjointed talk. Besides, this pattern disabled students to use the Spanish language to listing, labelling and recalling. Hall concluded that extended student participation in exchanges of this type might not lead to learners' development regarding the cognitive, linguistic and social aspects of communicative competence in Spanish. Lin and Mei (2000) report similar findings in their study that was conducted in junior English language classrooms in Hong Kong. Furthermore, as Nystrand et al. (1997), Lin (2000) uncovered that the IRE pattern of interaction so often took place in classrooms comprised mainly of students from backgrounds, which are socio-economically disadvantaged. In addition to restricting learning opportunities for these learners, such use of the IRE, Lin claims that it pushed them 'away from any possibility of developing an interest in English as a language and culture that they can appropriate for their own communicative and sociocultural purposes' (p. 75).

Despite all criticisms however, in 2008 (nearly 30 years after Sinclair & Coulthard, 1979 first reported the IRF pattern) Hardman made his comment that the use of IRF appears remarkably embedded in teaching and learning practices around the world. Hall (2000) states that subsequent studies on classroom interaction has shown the ubiquity of this IRF pattern schooling, from Kindergarten to the university. He further argues that although most of the classroom interaction research have conducted in first language classrooms, a number of recent studies have revealed the ubiquity of this pattern in second/foreign language classrooms and they documented its constraints on language learning as well. However, Alexander (2001) found that although IRE seems to be used globally, it has been used in various ways, and this is perhaps essential and crucial to any consideration, and a reframing of its possible and potential value. The latter argues that the same basic IRF pattern can take a variety of forms and can be recruited by teachers for a variety of functions according to the goal of the discourse.

Alexander went further to say that each turn of this sequence has to be examined on its own merits because once it serves its purpose; it might yield to other ways of structuring student's participation, which as a consequence might lead to the construction of learning opportunity. Cullen (2002) suggests that this sequence could be made more communicative and learner directed if the third part of this chain, which is the Follow-up Move (F-move), of IRF carries 'discursal (content-focused)' rather than just 'evaluative (form-focused)' functions. This indicates that pedagogically teacher-centred classrooms are not necessarily not communicative and form-focused. More explanation about this argument will be offered in the following section.

3.1.2.2 IRE or IRF

More recently, researchers have investigated more thoroughly the IRE and, based on their findings, they have suggested that this pattern has to be reconceptualised. Earlier studies proposed a different understanding of the IRF from what has been mentioned in the previous section. For example, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) referred to the third move of this chain as Follow-up and Mehan (1979) and others called it Evaluation. Sinclair and Courtland developed a discourse structure model, and they made a distinction in the third part of the sequence, Evaluate act and Comment act, elucidating that the teacher's initiation leads to learner' response and this learner' response in turn results in the teacher's feedback. Yet, they continued bound to the IRE, and a reconceptualization of the IRE pattern has not been done until recently.

Wells (1993) was one of the researchers who made a re-evaluation of the IRE pattern. He conducted a study in a third grade classroom 'in order to gain a better understanding of the various functions performed by the discourse genre of triadic dialogue' (p. 1). The study found that within an IRE structure that usually allows the teacher to control students' participation; some changes were noticeably recognizable in this pattern. These changes were found particularly in the third move, and they were considered to cause more active students' participation. In the third move, the teacher was checking the students' knowledge of what they were doing during the class, which is a typical evaluation. Nevertheless, in dealing with specific topics, the F move functions as an opportunity to

extend the student's answer, to draw out its importance, or to make 'connections with other parts of the students' total experience during the lesson" (p. 24).

Wells called this a follow-up, and he concluded that when the third move of the IR chain contains a teacher evaluation (E) of a student response, the IRF severely inhibits students' learning opportunities. However, if the teacher in the third part follows up on student responses (F) by asking question to expand on her/his thinking, explain their opinions, comment on what others contribute, students' learning opportunities through interaction would be enhanced. Therefore, he concluded that the same basic 3-part interaction exchange found in classrooms is neither completely good nor entirely bad, as each turn has to be investigated by its own. Moreover, sometimes it depends on the type of follow-ups that teachers provide in response to student contributions. Thus, a number of studies focusing on the teacher third turn have pointed out that it can comprise a much wider variety of functions than being just evaluative. The following example which was taken from Cullen (2002) shows how the F move when it turns to be 'Discoursal follow-up', it can yield to other ways of structuring learner's participation. (p. 121)

T:	Yes, please	I
S9:	I won't do anything, I'm going to die	R
T (f9):	She won't do anything. She'll just close her eyes... Laughter.... And say: 'Take me if you want-if you don't want, leave me.'	F
T:	Yes?	I
S10:	I will shout	R
T (f10)	You will shout. Aagh! Laughter. I don't know if Heaven will hear you. Laughter	F
T:	Yes, please?	I
S (11)	I will be very frightened and collapse...	R
T (f11)	You'll collapse? So you will die before the plane crashes. Laughter.	F

(Cullen, 2002, p. 121)

Barnes (2008) locates the IRF chain in a different and more positive light claiming that 'More recent commentators have insisted that IRF teaching is essential, and have shown how it can lead to developed discussion and not merely a recapitulation of authoritative

material (Alexander, 2004; Cazden, 2001; Wells, 1993, cited in Barnes, 2008, p. 13). Wegerif, Mercer and Rojas-Drummond (1999) for example refer to the 'spiral IRF', where a teacher built on and chained together learners' responses (R moves) to invite additional responses, in a more progressive and less teacher-centred frame. In fact, the latter proposal parts company with the idea of IDRF (Wegerif & Scrimshaw, 1997). The addition of 'Discussion' into the IRF sequence, refers to a shift in how this strategy can be operationalised in order to allow the same ultimate objective of shared understanding about a prompted concern or concept, but with more learner input into the final agreed information or knowledge.

Nassaji and Wells (2000) by using both quantitative and qualitative methods, they looked at a large corpus of data, which was taken from an action research project involving video-recorded data of English, science and history classes. In their study, they have found that what was crucial, which either restricting or stimulating pupil involvement in the discourse is the nature of the third turn in triadic dialogue. Nassaji and Wells (2000) conclude that 'Even when teachers are attempting to create a more dialogic style of interaction in their classrooms, triadic discourse continues to be the dominant discourse genre' (p. 400). They further argue that the same IRF structure can take a variety of forms and can be employed by teachers for different functions, depending on the aim of activities and lessons. It also underlines the teacher's role as a primary knower, manager and initiator throughout interaction with the students. Similarly, Boyd and Maloof (2000) argue that the reconceptualised IRF pattern from the IRE is very fruitful in the language classroom. They also focus on the third part of the IRF, the follow-up, as it has multiple functions of developing more discussions based on the students' response. In other words, the third move sometimes affirms, clarifies, confirms and extends learners' responses and might also lead them to different modes. Thus, teacher's follow-ups considerably contribute to facilitating learners' participation in classroom interaction.

It is difficult to discuss the IRE/F for too long without exploring the role of teacher questioning in more detail and realizing how teacher questions, which represent the first move in the IRF chain, elicit learner response and whether they have a role to play in constructing learning opportunity in EFL classroom. Therefore, it to this that I now turn.

3.1.2.3 Teacher questions

Teacher talk and teacher questioning particularly have been thoroughly examined in relation to classroom interaction (Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1994). In other words, discourse features of teacher talk such as feedback, error correction and especially the use of questions have been investigated for their roles in EFL/ESL classrooms because it is thought that when learners are being asked a question, they are in charge or responsible for responding (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Through asking questions, teacher talk assists to focus learner's attention explicitly on syntactic forms, which in turn might facilitate learners' development of linguistic knowledge of the foreign/second language (Schmidt, 1994). Moreover, teachers' questioning is the most salient and familiar form of discourse features of teacher talk (Nunn, 1999; Thamraksa, 1997).

An early study conducted by Barnes (1969) differentiated between display questions (known answer, test or recall) and referential, (unknown answer) and between closed and open questions in the first language classroom. Barnes's study is frequently cited and documented in other subsequent language research on teacher questions. The closed are typically brief questions or even monosyllabic responses that may disable learners' participation (Kerry, 1982). Lynch (1996) however, states that display questions serve a variety of functions in language classrooms including: checking understanding, concept checking, eliciting learners' response and guiding them towards a particular response. This type of questions (the utterances of others) 'typically be adequately dealt with in one or two words with that reply even being one of a limited range of options presented in the question itself' (Hargie, 2006, p. 127). In contrast, open, referential questions are credited as they generate more elaborated and longer responses (Tsui, 1995). It also tends to be unlimited 'leaving the respondent free to choose any one of a number of possible ways in which to answer, and at length' (Hargie, 2006, p. 127). Closed questions are asked more frequently than open questions (Ellis, 1994; Wood 1998) and some researchers argue that display questions far outnumber referential questions (Brock, 1986; Shomoossi, 2004).

The same categorization for convergent / divergent questions. Ozerk (2001) claims that most of teachers' questions in classroom are convergent, which are different from divergent ones. Convergent questions are narrow or closed questions, and constrain the response from a variety of possibilities. Divergent questions are broad and open questions encouraging a range of responses (Mollica, 1994). However, in a large pre-test/post-test

study Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur and Prendergast (1997) illustrate that authentic questions, which are open-ended and might have alternative equally valid answers, lead to higher levels of successful understanding. The mainstream of teacher questioning studies advocate the assumption that display questions limit the opportunities for negotiated interaction, language learning, learner output and that referential questions are to be privileged (Cullen, 1998; Long & Sato, 1983; Nunn, 1999; Pica & Long, 1986; Tan, 2007).

Shomoossi (2004) found out that teachers use display questions 4.4 times more than the numbers of referential questions. Moritoshi (2006) shows that language learners sometimes could not answer the teacher's questions on their first initiative. Therefore, investing the F move as a follow-up strategy in teacher questions is effective in eliciting syntactically longer and more complex output. Additionally, in Asian countries students 'prefer to be 'modest' by providing short answers to questions so that their classmates will not gain the impression that they are 'showing off' (Tasaka, 1998, p. 33). Cotton (2001) says that the majority of classroom questioning studies invoked Socrates and they are keep reminding us that questioning has such a long history as an educational strategy (Hargie, 2006; Hunkins, 1989). In fact, according to the Socratic methods, using questions and answers to expose, and challenge lead to new knowledge. It was shown as is an effective teaching method. Many studies also document that asking questions is viewed as powerful medium of instruction to stimulate learners' thinking and rational (Myrick & Yonge, 2002; Ralph, 1999), as well as to manage conversational exchanges in classrooms (Dillon, 1982). Indeed, researchers found that teachers ask a considerable number of questions in the classroom throughout an average school day (Dillon, 1982) and the majority are recall questions which just 'involve the simple recall of information' (Hargie, 2006, p. 133).

Moreover, Long (1981) points out that questioning can facilitate interaction in establishing who is the next person to speak. This particular function is easily established by directed questions which is asked by nominating a specific student. If they are asked to the whole class without calling upon particular student, they are non-directed questions. The benefit of asking a non-directed question is that every student feels free to respond voluntarily. Nevertheless, Tasaka (1998) argues that in some EFL classrooms the directed questions

seem to elicit learners' responses than non-directed questions due to the cultural differences where no one normally would like to volunteer to answer teacher questions in front of the other students in the class. In addition, studies such as (Carlsen, 1993; Goffe & Deane, 1974; Hsu, 2001; McCormick, 1997; Tobin, 1990) try to account for learner outcomes as a function of teacher behaviours and this is accomplished by categorising teacher behaviours, counting these behaviours each lesson, and then relating these behaviours with each individual student.

Despite of the great value of all what have been mentioned above, studies that are conducted in order to examine the value of teacher questions in EFL/ESL classrooms, such a quantitative paradigm of analysis of teacher questions has been criticized by a number of studies (Banbrook & Skehan, 1990; McCormick & Donato, 2000). The above mentioned studies are 'in danger of reducing classroom interaction to a series of question types', also the studies that are focused on IRF have missed important points by focusing only on the linguistic dimensions of teacher questions (Shore, 1994, p. 159) and they ignore specific contexts where the questions are asked (Farrar, 1986; Hsu, 2001). Van Lier (1988) confirms the points discussed above and he concluded that 'An analysis must go beyond simple distinctions taxonomies such as display and referential questions, yes/no and open-ended questions, and so on... Research into questioning in the L2 classroom must carefully examine the purposes and the effects of questions, not only in terms of linguistic production, but also in terms of interactive purpose' (P. 225). Hence, studies such as (McCormick & Donato, 2000) examine how teachers use questions during whole-class instruction and have established and generated several discussions about the role of this discursive tool for involving learners in classroom conversations. This coincides with Cullen's suggestion of using the F move in the IRF structure as a 'Discursal follow-up' so that it can yield to other ways of structuring learner's participation. Therefore, this current research will find out if there is a role that teacher questions play in creating learning opportunity as well.

As mentioned above, within the IRF structure teacher ask questions, provide feedback, evaluation or comment, scaffold learner's participation, complete student's turn, or echo learner's contribution. These are some of the features of teacher talk that have been used by Walsh (2002; 2006; 2011) in his framework for investigating classroom discourse with a focus on teacher talk to identify learning opportunities for language learners' involvement.

Although the analytical framework of this study is based on this framework, the aim is not to focus on the learning itself or learning outcomes, but on the construction of learning opportunity. In other words, to identify what patterns of language use that made particular learning opportunities salient to the students. In the following section, a detailed discussion will be provided about these features of teacher talk.

3.1.2.4 Features of teacher talk

Walsh (2002) has identified two characteristics of teacher talk; the first constructs learners' contributions, which this what Walsh means by the quality of teacher talk, and the second obstructs or hinders learners' contributions. Therefore, teacher talk as the potential to enhance or inhibit learning opportunities for students' involvement. However, during the analysis process, this research will be open to uncover more features of teacher talk that might affect the construction of learning opportunity.

- Content feedback: 'personal reaction made to learners' (Ellis et al, 2008, p. 795). Feedback in general is an important feature of the IRF exchange since it allows learners to see if their response has been accepted or not. Regarding the content feedback, it is when the teacher provides feedback on the content of what the learner says, rather than the form it takes, thereby creating an environment that pushes the learner to contribute more, by requesting a clarification or a confirmation from the teacher. Consequently, there is more chances here to create learning opportunities for students' involvement in classroom interaction.
- Extended wait-time: this is the time teachers allocate for students to encourage them to answer questions. Many teachers struggle to allow adequate wait-time, (silence) time, in the classroom context. Sometimes silence can be deemed threatening, suggesting the teacher is not performing their job adequately (Brown, 2001). However, Walsh (2002) has advocated that EFL teachers extend wait-time for two reasons. First, the number of learner responses might then increase. Second, the learner is then more likely to produce answers that are more complex. Finally, it might extend learners interaction.

- Checking for confirmation: this is when the teacher checks if he or she has understood the learner's contribution correctly. Walsh argues that 'teachers who constantly seek clarification, check for confirmation and do not always accept the first contribution a student offers are more likely to maximise learning potential than those who do not' (Walsh, 2006, p. 113).
- Scaffolding: As discussed in chapter two, teachers utilise scaffolding, by providing the learner with linguistic support at the appropriate time (Kasper, 2001). However, the teacher should also consider what Walsh calls timing and sensitivity 'timing and sensitivity to learner's needs are of utmost importance and many teachers intervene too often or too early' (Walsh, 2006, p. 35). The role of the teacher is to alter the form of the learner's output, by shaping it into a more acceptable form to provide meaningful support, so the teacher needs to listen carefully and actively.
- Direct error correction: Seedhouse (1997) argues that learners prefer a direct approach to error correction, and it can be done through the IRF sequence, which plays an important role in creating learning opportunities. Musumerci (1996) states that the IRF sequence represents a conversation in classrooms, meanwhile Walsh (2006) stresses on its significance role in promoting learning opportunities in the classroom.

Features of teacher talk that have been demonstrated to limit learner's contributions are:

- Turn completion: when the teacher completes the learner's turn without allowing them sufficient time, thereby constraining the learner's attempt to reformulate her/his response, by failing to negotiate meaning and promote the learner's contribution.
- Teacher echo: Walsh (2002) argues that the teacher echo is a very common feature of teacher talk in most EFL classrooms; observing that it can be utilised by the teacher who repeats what one student has said to enable the remainder of the class to hear the utterance. However, when it is used excessively, the echo can limit participation from students and disrupt fluent discourse.
- Teacher interruption: When the teacher suddenly interrupts a learner's speech, they may forget what he/she is trying to say and focus on what the teacher is saying. Thus, the teacher by his/her interruption might cause a communication

breakdown. Therefore, Walsh notes, 'had the teacher simply waited and allowed the learner to finish her turn, the learner would have had an opportunity to produce a greater quantity of (possibly) more complex language' (Walsh, 2011, p. 19).

Teacher talk includes not only the features that have been mentioned above, but also some other features such as the use of learners' first or native speaker. In particular, if the teacher shares the same native language. Therefore, from my own experience as a student for four years and a teacher for more than six years at the same university, using the native language, which will be referred as L1, does exist as a phenomenon in this context where I conduct my study. Therefore, I need to be ready for its existence in my data and find out what functions does L1 serve in constructing learning opportunities in EFL classroom. In the next section, a historical overview of the studies that tackled the reasons and positions of using L1 in EFL/ESL classrooms is provided.

3.1.3 The Use of Learners' Native Language (L1)

The use of students' native language (L1) in language classrooms has been a controversial topic and an issue of ongoing debate in the field of second language acquisition (Hague, 1987; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Tang, 2002). While recent reactions against using L1 in language teaching have become less firmed and is gaining more provision and support from a number of L2 researchers. According to (Cummins, 2007; Littlewood & Yu, 2011), the prevailing approach in second language teaching has encouraged no use of L1 in teaching L2. Consequently, a significant number of language teaching approaches remain to assume that L2 instruction should be mostly through the L2 and if there is recourse to the L1, it should be kept at minimum as much as possible (Turnbull, 2001). Some researchers may even believe that teachers should avoid using L1 totally and that those instructors who use it might be inadequate pedagogues (Chambers, 1992; Cook, 2001).

A number of studies have also found a large variability of L1 use among teachers. Duff and Polio (1990) investigated the use of L1 in language classes at the University of California

and pointed out that L1 use ranging from 0% to 90%. In later study, Polio and Duff (1994) also found that teachers used L1 for a variety of purposes such as administration, classroom management and grammar instruction. This goes in line with a Chinese university (EFL) context, where Tang (2002) found that the main purposes for using L1 was for giving activity instructions or explaining culturally specific words. In a Japanese secondary school EFL context, Kaneko (1992) shows that teachers used L1 to offer activity instructions and explanations, and to manage the lesson. Macaro (2001) conducted a case study of six student teachers of French with teenage students across four state schools in southern England, found a low amount of L1 use, between 0 and 15.2%, with an average of 6.9%. On the other hand, in studying the use of L1 in L2 English classes at a Japanese high school, Kaneko (1992) found out that instructors and students used L1 51 to 74% in senior classes and 64 to 83% in junior classes. Therefore, these studies suggest that the teaching context may have an important influence on L1 use in L2 classrooms.

The L2-only position dates back to the 1880s, when most teaching methods adopted the (direct method) of avoidance of L1 use (Cook, 2001). Besides, other contemporary methods such as the total physical response method (Asher, 1993) and the natural approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) have embraced second language exclusivity. Influenced by Chomsky's theory of innate language acquisition, it is claimed that comprehensible language input triggers language acquisition. Teaching entirely through the target language makes the language real and allows learners to develop their own in-built language systems (Macaro, 2001). Nevertheless, this perspective has been questioned by some language researchers (Van Lier, 1995; Macaro, 1997; 2001; 2003; Turnbull, 2001; Cook, 2001). The researchers who are against the use of L1 have a number of arguments to advocate their position. They claim that the quantity of comprehensible L2 input, which is thought to hamper learners' L2 learning, will be reduced. In other words, they argue that the teacher use of L1 might have a negative influence on their use of L2, which consequently might affect the quantity of language input.

Means, L2 learning for adult should take place in a similar fashion as L1 learning for children so that the L2 should be 'largely acquired rather than consciously learned, from message oriented experience of its use' (Mitchell, 1988, p. 28). These arguments might have underpinned by some beliefs in naturalistic approaches of language teaching which stress a focus on learner's immersion in the L2 and offering abundant chances for exposure to the

target language (e.g., Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Hence, these researchers might consider the use of L1 in teaching L2 as characteristic of the grammar translation method, which mainly focuses on the translation from L2 to L1 as a way of L2 learning (Polio & Duff, 1994). These opponents of the use of L1 consider that teaching L2 should take place without L1 interference. It was thought also that L1 use is a signal of insufficiently trained teachers 'succumbing to pressure from students and colleagues not to use L2 all the time' (Harbord, 1992, p. 12). Consequently, for a considerable number of researchers and teachers, it was a given that the more use of L2 only, the greater the resultant proficiency in that target language (Carroll, 1975; Macaro, 2005).

Recently, from studies of discourse analysis viewpoint, how much, why, and when language instructors should use the L1 and L2 in their pedagogical practice is still a controversial topic that is highly contested. Macaro (2001) proposed three positions of L1 use in L2 language classes:

- a) 'The Virtual Position': to make the target language environment for the classroom, the exclusion of L1 is crucial, as the latter has no pedagogical value.
- b) 'The Maximal Position': L1 use has no pedagogical value. However, the perfect teaching and learning do not exist anyway hence teachers from time to time have to resort to L1.
- c) 'The Optimal Position': L1 use has some pedagogical value as some features of learning might be improved by the use of L1. Therefore, it should be more investigation of the quality of pedagogical principles concerning in what ways and to what extent the use of L1 is judicious.

Nonetheless, research exploring the connection between the first language (L1) and the second language use in a bilingual education for minority language children context (Cummins, 1981; 1993) shows that the maintenance of the L1 supports the development of the L2. This suggests that the more use made of L1; the more proficient become the L2 learners (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). This current study does not aim to provide an explanation for this seeming paradox, but to find out throughout the data what functions that L1 serve

in classrooms and its role in constructing the learning opportunities. Then, this data will be interpreted from a socio-cultural perspective. This theoretical perspective proposes that the L1 serves as a tool, which helps students: to make sense and understand the content and requirements of the task, to turn their attention to language form, and to establish the nature and tone of their interaction whether with the teacher or with their fellow. There are a considerable number of studies that are conducted in this area of research focused primarily on group and peer interaction. For example, (Swain, 1995; 1999; 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; 2000; Swain & Watanabe, 2012), based on socio-cultural theory, they have found that collaborative dialogue, in both the L1 and L2, enhances and mediates L2 learning. 'Collaborative dialogue is dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building' (Swain, 2000, p. 102). Swain argues that without their use of L1, the task that the students were exposed to, might not have been accomplished as successfully, or possibly, it may not even have been accomplished at all. The latter also highlights the importance of L1, as a cognitive tool in carrying out tasks that are cognitively and linguistically complex. Moreover, other researchers uncover a relationship between the use of L1 and emotions in classrooms. They claim that the use of L1 especially if it is shared between the teacher and the students helps in lowering student anxiety and achieving a good teacher-student rapport (Bakhtin, 1993; Reichert, 2011; Vitanova, 2005)

As mentioned earlier, one of the aims of this study is to explore the role of L1 in constructing learning opportunity in EFL Libyan university context with a focus on teacher talk. Up to my knowledge, there is no significant number of studies focused on the role of teacher talk from a discourse perspective with regard the use of L1 in teaching L2, particularly, if the teacher shares the same first language as in the case of this research (Storch & Aldosari, 2010). For example, De La and Nassaji (2009) in their study, uncovered the amount, the reasons and the purposes of using L1 by the teachers in L2 classrooms. They found out that the L1 has been used by the teachers in their classrooms quite frequently, and they used it for different purposes and reasons. These researchers concluded by suggesting that L1 should be used in teaching L2 as it facilitates L2 learning. Findings offered evidence that in spite of the disagreement on the use of L1 between L2 researchers, these teachers of German language used L1 in their classrooms for significant instructional purposes. In addition, Storch and Aldosari (2010) claim that the use of L1 might provide the students with a valuable cognitive tool and banning it from the language classroom would ignore the cognitive reality. They added that L1 helps in linking new

concepts to pre-existing knowledge. Storch and Aldosari, (2010) appreciate the value of using L1 for creating less intimidating environment in the classroom which as a result may create opportunities for language learning success. Moreover, L1 might be a valuable socio-cognitive tool as well to accumulate ideas that can in turn assist in mediating the L2 learning and promoting interaction among students in the L2 environment (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Thoms, Liao & Szustak, 2005; Wells, 1998).

This current study aims to explore further all these language patterns in the discourse including teacher questions, and features of teacher talk including the use of L1 in order to find out the links between these themes and the construction of learning opportunity, which is the foci of this research. In the final section of this chapter, I discuss the concept of learning opportunity and how it has been referred to in the L2 literature. A review of some studies that looked at the relationship between classroom interaction and the creation of learning opportunity will be offered as well.

3.1.4 Learning Opportunity and Classroom Interaction

The term of learning opportunity is commonly found in the literature, without showing what it might look like in classroom interaction data (Alwright, 2005; Crabbe, 2003; 2007). However, Kumaravadivelu (1994) promotes the notion of 'maximising learning opportunities' among learners in the language classroom, arguing that 'It is customary to distinguish teaching acts from learning acts, to view teaching as an activity that creates learning opportunities and learning as an activity that utilises those opportunities' (P. 33). Furthermore, the term of learning opportunities has been used by Spolsky (1989) as well. The latter suggests 74 conditions that are related to second language learning, yet seventeen of those conditions relevant to learning opportunities provision. For instance, the condition number 57 is dealing with learning opportunity as a unit of analysis of classroom interaction.

Spolsky states that 'opportunity for analysis: learning a language involves an opportunity to analyse it, consciously or unconsciously, into its constituent parts' (P. 23). However, the word of provision itself that Spolsky (1989) proposed, curries the sense of give and take,

which is different from the orientation of this current study as the focus is on the co-construction of learning opportunity by both the teacher and the learners. Classroom activities should be treated as social events jointly co-constructed by teachers and learners (Breen, 1985). Crabbe (2003) defines the term of learning opportunity as 'it refers simply to a specific cognitive or metacognitive activity that a learner can engage in that is likely to lead to learning' (P. 17). This definition indicates that the learning opportunity is not a social or interactive activity but only cognitive or metacognitive. Crabbe designed a framework of learning opportunity from cultural, theoretical and management inquiries for EFL teaching. Therefore, from his point of view the opportunity for L2 learning depends on activities that maximise language knowledge and skills (Crabbe, 2003).

Waring (2008) elucidates the concept of learning opportunity within three main paradigms which are the socio-cultural, the cognitive and the conversation analysis approach. In the first paradigm, learning takes place in the process of participation in the discourse of target language so that learning opportunity occurs in learners' engagement in language use. In the cognitive approach, the learners can be provided more learning opportunities through the input-output mode of language acquisition. In the CA approach, the emic perspective is essential and what the learners themselves consider as learning opportunity rather what researchers impose. Allwright (2005) suggests using the term of learning opportunity as a unit of analysis as an alternative for teaching points in planning teaching, and he argues that this opportunity is 'neutral' so that it can be managed and done. Furthermore, Hall (2011) says that 'learning opportunities are those occasions, from brief moments to longer-term opportunities, when learners may learn. They may result from conscious and imposed encounters with language, or they may be unconscious consequence of 'natural' language use' (P. 32). Anderson (2015), building on Crabbe (2003; 2007), makes a comparison between learning outcome and learning opportunity in lesson plan pro forma. The latter defines learning opportunity as 'potential acts of explicit or implicit learning that may occur during or as a consequence of the lesson' (Anderson, 2015, p. 11). He focuses on the word *may* as a key that separates learning opportunity from learning outcomes. In his study that was focused only on teacher questions, Zhu (2016) defines learning opportunity as an opportunity that teachers and students can grasp, discover, create and maintain cooperatively in social activity, which may lead to learning. Zhu considers learners' engagement in learning activity is very important condition for learning. Moreover, he

emphasises that the teacher and learners' agency play an important role as well in learning opportunity.

These different categorizations have some similar points such as; firstly, learning opportunity takes place in act or activity. Secondly, it might cause learning but not surely. Finally, learner's agency and learner engagement in an activity have important roles in the creation of learning opportunity in EFL classroom. Nevertheless, the concept of learning opportunity has not been conceptualised in a very concise way. Given that in EFL/ESL classrooms, language is the aim and the means at the same time, it is likely possible to consider all elements of language use in the classroom as a learning opportunity. Nevertheless, how to identify them exactly still unanswered question in the literature (Hall. 2011). This concept also has not been identified as a unit of analysis in the discourse from learners' perspective and this is what I aim to achieve throughout this research. As this research is based on socio-cultural and Vygotskian view, this perspective views learning as a process rather than product. There are different stages in this learning process and noticing is one stage of this process. This research aims to investigate what makes these learning opportunities salient, noticed and recalled by the students. Schmidt and Forta do not claim that 'noticing is the only condition for learning, but highlight its importance to the overall process of language learning' (Schmidt and Forta, 1986 cited in Hall, 2011, p. 113). Means noticing is an indicative of learning process in some stages but not the learning itself so that it is not the final product which represented by learning outcomes.

Moreover, the above mentioned studies suggest that the more interactive the classroom is, the more learning opportunities can be emerged or appeared to the language learners. In other words, from what has been mentioned in the previous section and from IRF studies, one can reach to a conclusion that classroom interaction is so crucial for language learning to the extent that some studies imply that interaction equals language learning. So does this mean that if the learner does not interact in the classroom he/she is not learning? Herein lies the focus of this study. The aim of this research is to take the discussion of learning opportunity in the literature further by finding out what kind of learning opportunities might be available in the discourse data for both types of students;

who do interact overtly and who do not interact or take part overtly in classroom interaction. In addition, how these learning opportunities are constructed jointly by the teacher and the students. This study aims also to find out what kind of features of teacher talk that make these learning opportunities salient to the students. However, I believe that it would be better from the beginning of this research to clarify that learning opportunity as a concept for this research is different from learning accomplishment or learning per se as 'encounters an opportunity to learn does not mean that learning necessarily takes place' (Hall, 2011, p. 32).

From socio-cultural perspective, which this research is based on, co-constructing learning opportunities is a partnership. Teacher agency and learner agency have important role to play so that it is not just the teacher pushes the information but also the student has to pull the information. Therefore, learning opportunity which is the focus of this study, does not cover only the language based construct of learning opportunity, but also covers the social aspects such as teacher agency and learner agency, which are important factors that affect the construction of learning opportunity (Allwright, 2005). This kind of teacher agency can be for instance represented by the teacher when the latter through her/his use of language does not transmit the knowledge to the learners but taking the position of more competent other by interacting and scaffolding learners' contribution in order to co-construct the knowledge. The learner agency can be represented through his/her participation or through the uptake of information even if the learners do not take part or participate overtly in the interaction.

Identifying learning opportunities is considered significantly a complex issue by a number of researchers (Allwright, 2005; Zhu, 2016), yet it might be identified by different ways. For example, when a student does not understand and asks for a clarification and the teacher scaffold this learner to get the right answer, I believe that can be considered as a learning opportunity as it is a cognitive activity scaffolded by the teachers. Moreover, the teacher's answer might have some information that is potentially useful for other students in the classroom not only to the original questioner. Thus, we should take into our consideration as researchers that learning opportunity is not equally available for all the learners in classroom, it is more individually. Consequently, it might be not possible to define the learning opportunity before it happens, it can be only defined in the very specific situation once it happens. Most of classroom interaction research have shown that students cannot

learn the same thing at the same time (Walsh, 2006). These learning opportunists could be for example, in student's questions or in teacher's feedback. Learning opportunities could be just a couple of seconds of teacher/student interaction, which might look sometimes just a messy talk and almost nothing is going on. However, when these seconds are transcribed and analysed by using conversation analysis, it might show a structure of what it looks a messy talk and a considerable number of a complex issues is going on in these couple of seconds, yet this is may be the case for the interactive classrooms.

In some EFL/ESL classrooms in different parts of the world, there is little or no interaction (Hasegawa, 2009). This might be for different reasons such as culturally students are not used to participate overtly as it might be not acceptable to interrupt the teacher in some contexts. Another reason might be due to the large classrooms where it is not possible for all the students to take part and interact with the teachers or their fellows. For example, Littlewood (2000) states that student from Asian background have been observed not to participate overtly in the interaction of a lesson. It was also the case for Saudi students in a study conducted by Storch and Aldosari (2010). These researchers state that there was poor overt participation by the students. However, it does not mean that the student who verbally interacts will learn more than the silent student will.

Schumann and Schumann (1977) and Allwright (1980) long time ago found evidence to advocate this idea. In these studies, it has been argued that one explanation for the apparent effectiveness of covert participation that what Schumann and Schumann (1977) called (eavesdropping) or Allwright (1980) (spectator interaction) might be mainly effective for learners of this kind in terms of recalling new learning items. Therefore, building on these studies with this focus, this research aims to operationalise the concept of learning opportunity as a unit of analysis in the discourse. To achieve this aim, the following steps will be followed: first, finding out what kind of learning opportunities might be available for the students and how these opportunities are co-constructed in both contexts: less interactive teacher centred and more interactive students' centred contexts. However, this study is not designed to be evaluative so that it will not compare between these two contexts but to provide thick description. Exploring how pattern of classroom interaction,

including teacher questions, feedback, the use of L1 and features of teacher talk may affect the construction of these learning opportunities.

3.2 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the concepts and themes in the classroom interaction, teacher talk and learning opportunity and identifies the key concepts that are relevant to the current study. These include the IRE and IRF classroom interaction patterns, teacher questions, features of teacher talk and the use of learners' native language. Finally, a discussion of the concept of learning opportunity and classroom interaction is provided. The next chapter is dedicated to discuss the research design of this study. It includes an overview of the research questions. An account of the rationale of adopting the qualitative discourse analysis approach, the role of reflexivity, the issues of trustworthiness and generalisability in this research and finally the course, the research sitting and the criteria for sampling and participants are described as well.

Chapter 4 Research Design

4.1 Introduction

This research set out to examine and investigate the nature of teacher-students' interaction in EFL classrooms in the Libyan university context in order to understand how learning opportunities can be jointly constructed with the students in a classroom with limited resource environment. Moreover, to identify features of teacher talk that shape and affect the creation of learning opportunities in teacher-student interaction, then to provide implications for future research and teaching practices. This chapter is devoted to the research design in which the following sections will be provided: an overview of the research questions, and methodological strategies summarised in table 4.1 below (see Chapter 5 for more details). An account of the rationale of adopting the interpretive paradigm. A discussion of employing a qualitative discourse analysis study as a design frame for this research including the role of reflexivity. The issues of trustworthiness and generalisability in this research will be provided as well. In further sections, the course, the research sitting and the criteria for sampling and participants are described as well.

4.2 Research Summary

In the Table 4.1 below, I provide the research summary for this study, which includes the research questions, justification for each question, the type of data from different sources, the research instrument and method used for analysing the data.

Research questions	Data sources	instruments	Data analysis
RQ1 What kind of learning opportunities do students construct from classroom interaction and teacher talk?	Students' feedback report data Transcribed recorded data	(Questionnaire) (Classroom observation)	Content Analysis Conversation Analysis
RQ2- what is the relationship between discourse features of teacher talk and the experience of learning opportunity?	Students' feedback report data Transcribed recorded data	(Questionnaire) (Classroom observation) (focus group) (Field notes)	Content analysis Conversation Analysis Content analysis
RQ3- what functions does the L1 serve in teacher/students interaction in the creation of learning opportunity?	Students' feedback report Transcribed recorded data focus group transcription	Questionnaire Classroom observation Focus group Field notes	Content analysis Conversation Analysis Content analysis Content analysis

Table 4.1 Research Summary

4.3 Research Paradigms

For viewing and interacting with the world and its surroundings, each researcher has a different understanding. Consequently, the ways in which the researchers conduct their research might be varied from one another. Nevertheless, there are specific standards and rules, which guide the actions of researchers. The technical word used to define these standards, rules and the ways in which we think about the field of research is 'paradigm' (Tomas, 2013, p. 72). However, the term paradigm itself requires clarification. Willis (2007) states that "a paradigm is thus a comprehensive belief system, world view, or framework that guides research and practice in a field" (p. 8). It refers to two approaches to knowledge: how we pursue knowledge and how we use it. These two approaches (paradigms) are positivism and interpretivism, which will be discussed in details further. The paradigm from a philosophical perspective, encompasses a disciplined approach that generates the knowledge (methodology) (Taylor & Medina, 2013), a view of the nature of reality (ontology) whether it is internal or external to the knower and a related view of the kind of knowledge that can be generated and the standards for justifying it (epistemology).

in his 1970 book 'The Structure of Scientific Revolutions', Kuhn is one of the researchers that contributed to the notion of paradigms and the significance that associated to paradigms in behavioural and social sciences. The latter explains that a paradigm can be considered an 'accepted model or pattern, as an organizing structure, a deeper philosophical position relating to the nature of social phenomena and social structures' (Kuhn 1962, cited in Feilzer 2010, p. 23). Moreover, other researchers have contributed to this field and have offered their illustrations of how they define and view a paradigm. Guba and Lincoln (1994) as an example, view paradigms as conception of the world, a philosophy of life or a belief system that guides and assists researchers in conducting their studies. By the same token, Feilzer (2010) considers a paradigm as a mean or a way of looking at the world. Additionally, Taylor, Kermode, and Roberts (2007) regards a paradigm as a broad perspective of something. Similarly, Bryman (2008) defines a paradigm as 'a cluster of beliefs and dictates which, for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done and how results should be interpreted' (p. 453).

Thus, Creswell (2013) stresses the significance of questioning the research paradigm employed in conducting a study as it considerably affects how a researcher undertakes a study and understands the social phenomena. Likewise, it is very essential for a researcher to comprehend the philosophical and theoretical assumptions of the research paradigm they operationalise because failure to do so might have serious consequences for the intended research enquiry (Richards, 2003). Even so, the research paradigm should be the servant of the research focus and questions, but not its master. Therefore, the researcher should use research design that is proper for the research questions, rather than 'invoking any quantitative-qualitative division' (Taylor & Medin, 2013, p. 83).

For educational and applied linguistic researchers, a number of major paradigms guide their inquiries into the policies and practices of these fields. Each research paradigm carries associated theories of learning and teaching, and assessment, etc. (Taylor & Medina, 2013). According to Migiro and Magangni (2011), the paradigm that a researcher chooses depends on the researcher's philosophical beliefs (e.g. positivist, constructivist, interpretive or pragmatist), type of knowledge pursued (e.g. subjective/objective information or personal experiences) and the research instruments for collecting data that will be used to find out this certain knowledge (e.g. observations, questionnaires, experiments and interviews). There is also the consideration of the nature of the investigation as in the case of this current research the discourse is involved so that an interpretive stance is necessary. Hence, following these propositions, I recognise that competing world views that shape and frame social inquiry, and in this recognition, the following section begins by discussing in detail the interpretive paradigm that best fits this current study and a justification for choosing to adopt this paradigm as a guidance for this study.

4.3.1 Philosophical Assumptions of This Research

This study aims to investigates classroom discourse with a focus on teacher talk in order to understand how learning opportunity as a phenomenon can be constructed jointly with the

students. It also sheds light on the role that the first language, which is shared by the teacher and the students, plays in creating learning opportunity in EFL classroom in the Libyan university context. To approach this topic, an interpretive research paradigm was chosen as a mode of inquiry. In this section, I clarify theoretical assumptions that underline the interpretive research paradigm. This paradigm is known under different terms such as, naturalistic, interpretive and qualitative (Gage, 1989; Robson & McCartan, 2016). Consequently, the terms interpretive and qualitative will be used interchangeably in this research.

Thomas (2013) claims that the interpretivist paradigm has been used in educational and language research during the late 1970s; yet only recently this humanistic paradigm became recognised as valuable in educational and language research, influenced by anthropological research that aims to investigate and understand other people's cultures from the inside. In other words, 'to understand the culturally different 'other' by learning to 'stand in their shoes', 'look through their eyes' and 'feel their pleasure or pain' (p. 75). In addition, here I would like to use a metaphor that was used by Taylor and Medina (2013) to describe this paradigm 'The interpretive fisherman enters the water, establishes rapport with the fish, and swims with them, striving to understand their experience of being in the water' (p.3). In contrary with positivist paradigm where 'A positivist fisherman standing on a river bank describes (without getting his/her feet wet) the social properties of species of fish by observing the general tendency of their group behaviour as they swim around' (p. 4). This because knowledge about the social world for positivists, can be obtained objectively. What they hear and see is almost straight forwardly recordable and perceived without too many problems. The phenomena of the psychological and social world can be observed, measured, and studied scientifically nearly the same way that physicists study atoms, levers and so on. Mertens (1998) states that the social scientists developed the interpretive paradigm as an alternative view to show that the world, in which we are interested, is constructed by each of us in a different way so that it is not straightforwardly perceivable. Therefore, it might not be adequately to employ the same methods that are used for physics and chemistry research.

The main point about interpretive research is that researchers are interested in people and the way they interrelate. How their world is constructed, what they think and how they look at the world differently. Given that this is the case where the researchers should look closely at what people are doing by using their knowledge of the world. For this purpose, researchers should immerse themselves in the research contexts in which they are interested. For instance, talking to people in depth, listening and paying attention to the actual words that are coming out of their mouths and attending to their blinks, hums and hahs, as well as their nods and this is where studies for investigating discourse might be a proper choice as in the case of this current research.

The idea of the interpretive paradigm is that process and meaning are very important in understanding human actions. Furthermore, knowledge is captured through individuals talking about their meanings. It is structured within personal values and biases so this requires a consideration of the researcher as participant, with attention to a reflexive analysis of data as well. Knowledge also emerges, develops and cannot be taken out of the context in which it is studied (Bryman, 2008; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013; Lincoln & Denzin, 2000; Scott & Usher, 1999). As Bogdan and Bilden (1998) have proposed, these assumptions 'provide the parameters, the tools, and the general guide of how to proceed' with interpretive research (p. 55). Correspondingly, Smith (1983) claims, 'for interpretive approaches, the object field to be studied is the acts and meanings ascribed to events by actors in a particular social context' (p. 140). This coincides with Marshall and Rossmans (2014) position in which they argue that 'for a study focusing on individual lived experience, the researcher could argue that one cannot understand human actions without understanding the meaning that participants attribute to these actions, their thoughts, feelings, beliefs, values, and assumptive worlds' (p. 57). Applied to educational and language research, Thomas (2013) suggests that this paradigm allows researchers to construct local rich understandings of the life experiences of teachers and students in classrooms, schools and the communities they serve.

Based on the above discussion, the qualitative/interpretive paradigm contributes to this current research in the following ways:

- It offers the author the opportunity to approach and study the participants (teacher/students) while working in their natural setting (EFL classrooms)
- It enriches my understanding of participant members' perspectives and the meanings that underpin their actions.
- It enables the researcher to develop and establish a rapport with the participants in this study.
- It provides the flexibility to employ different methods to enhance the understandings of the phenomenon undertaking.
- It allows investigating classroom discourse as the transcribed classroom interactions will be the main 'access' route to interpretations for this study.
- It allows a reflexive space in the research.

This study aims for exploring classroom discourse to identify and understand the construction of learning opportunity in the real practice of the classroom, and to allow a space as well to explore the students' perceptions towards what they might have learnt from the teacher talk and the interaction around it. Therefore, I have chosen to adopt qualitative research to approach this area of research. In other words, my methodological viewpoint was determined by the aim of the current research. Holliday (2007) says that in qualitative research knowledge is socially constructed. All types of information are worthy of the term knowledge. Particular accounts inform each other and the act of trying to pursue the knowledge; it should be associated and connected so that the researcher or knower's own value position is taken into consideration in the process. In the following section, definitions and justifications of using qualitative will be offered.

4.3.2 Defining Qualitative Research

Corbin and Strauss (1990) point out that qualitative research is commonly defined as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (p. 17). Holliday (2007) add that qualitative research enables the researcher to study a phenomenon in its natural setting without trying to control or manipulate the situation. It allows for the 'collection of data that is rich in description of people, the investigation of topics in context, and an understanding of behaviour from the participants' own frame of reference' (p. 10). Additionally, Davis (1995) illustrates that the qualitative studies are emergent rather than 'tightly prefigured' and is primarily interpretive (p. 429). Holliday (2007) claims that there is a supposition that qualitative research is "going to be 'open-ended', to look deeply into the participants' behaviour within the specific social settings" (p. 5), and Best and Kahn (2006) point out that qualitative research includes asking and watching in order to describe people and events in detail without using of any numerical data (p. 6). Flick (2002) argues that qualitative research is useful for investigating (why) rather (how many) (p. 4).

Dorney (2007) clarifies that, 'the qualitative data analysis is done with words', as in the case of this current study where the primary source of data is transcribed discourse (p. 38). One of the disadvantages of qualitative research is ending up with too much information, but there are number of techniques, such as content analysis, that can be used to overcome this problem. However, Richards (2009) argues that the numerical and non-numerical division does not provide us enough clear guidelines as qualitative researcher can also collect numerical information (for example, participants' age), likewise, quantitative researchers also would collect some non-numerical information (for example, participants' nationalities or genders). Therefore, as the latter concludes, 'qualitative and quantitative data do not inhabit different worlds. They are different ways of recording observations of the same world' (p. 36).

4.3.3 Justification for Using Qualitative Research

This research does not simply focus on the input or the output of the classroom. By focusing on the discourse, it tries to investigate what happens inside the classroom when the teacher and students work together, since the principal theoretical stance of this research is that learning opportunities happen in teacher/students co-constructed activities. Therefore, classroom-centred research underlines the importance of describing in details what happens in teacher-student interaction in language classrooms with an aim of finding out the factors that support and promote language learning. Instead of testing specific hypotheses about cause-effect relationships, (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). A conversation analysis method (see section 5.7.1 for more details) is used in this study to analyse detailed account of classroom discourse. Besides, Nodoushan (2006) suggests that classroom language teaching and learning research can be conducted by observation, or by interviewing people, or by both of these two as in this case of this research. Observation encompasses keeping a record whether it is audio or video supplemented by written field notes of what goes on in the observed classroom. In addition to observation, it is regarded necessary to ask participants to reflect on their experience. I was able to do this by conducting the focus group with the students and by giving them open-ended questionnaires to respond to. Therefore, using a quantitative research methodology with a survey distributed to a large number of participants, would only give me access to superficial information and snapshots of participants, though it might permit useful a generalization.

Furthermore, because of the conception of learning in this study as a sociocultural phenomenon (see Chapter 2 for more details), the researcher will use a qualitative study design in order to gain an insider view and 'understand a contemporary social phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context' (Yin, 2015, p. 18). This coincides with this research because the construction of learning opportunity as a phenomenon cannot be understood outside of its real-life context, namely, the EFL classroom they were in. Therefore, qualitative studies have been recognized as one of the interpretative qualitative approaches, in spite of its small sample size, which contributes to larger practical and

theoretical issues of language instruction and learning. In order to gain in-depth and thorough information on the subject area of this study a qualitative discourse analysis approach will be used as this allows the researcher to use and combine a set of instruments for data collection (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013). Given the complex nature of qualitative inquiry, the qualitative methods were utilized to gain rich data that would facilitate a better understanding of the complexity regarding the real practice of the classroom. Even though this current study is empirical, it is not experimental. As mentioned above, this study follows a research paradigm associated with naturalistic qualitative inquiry. Studies that are conducted within this research tradition do not introduce treatments on subjects or control variables. Instead, they try to understand the complexity of the classroom throughout such research methods such as discourse analysis studies (Lantolf, 2000).

Furthermore, Merriam (2002) summarized the strengths of the qualitative approach in teaching and learning context as descriptive, particularistic and heuristic. This research design matches these three features. This study is descriptive because this study incorporates rich information from multiple sources of evidence, which Geertz (1973) so-called thick description, particularly from the transcribed discourse that will include a 'complete, literal description' of the study under investigation (cited in Morrow, 2005, p. 30). Therefore, to offer an in-depth and detailed analytical description of this study, the researcher went to the research site and collect the data from multiple sources in a naturalistic setting; namely, in a context where teacher-students interaction takes place as it actually is. The majority of the data came from observation (audio-recorded classes). Field notes, open-ended questionnaire and focus group also were used to collect the data, which will be discussed with further details in chapter five. It is particularistic because this research aims at studying one phenomenon in the real context and practice of EFL classroom, which is the construction of learning opportunity during teacher/students interaction. Finally, this research is heuristic because the findings will be drawn from both

interpretation of the specific context and the researcher's experience and reflexivity. The findings also might allow the readers to make their own personal judgment from their experiences as well.

4.4 The Value of Reflexivity in Qualitative Research

Given that there are guidelines and rules to in the literature to guide any type of research, each research project is unique and exceptional so that ultimately it is the researcher who determines how best to proceed (Watt, 2007). Therefore, Reflexivity is considered important, essential and potentially enabling and facilitating understanding of both the phenomenon under investigation and the research process itself. Drawing upon the contents of a classroom discourse, I aim to provide an inside view and make connections between theory and practice. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison, (2013) the world in the context of the interpretive research is understood through the subjective life of people experience. 'The imposition of external form and structure is resisted, since this reflects the view point of the observer as opposed to that of the actor directly involved' (p. 22). Reflexivity is considered as a tool or instrument to deal with the interpretations, understandings and experiences human bring with them to their social context. As Anderson and Burns (1989) suggest, 'the subjective meaning of action for humans is legitimate content of study' (p. 67). In this regard, Pring (2000) argues that if we consider that 'the social world is constituted by the intentions and meanings of the social actors, then there is nothing to study, objectively speaking'. (p. 96)

According to Taylor and Medina (2013), a number of recent developments in the qualitative interpretive paradigm highlight the significance of the researcher's reflexivity in the hermeneutic process of interpretation. They stress its progressive development as an important part of the inquiry process, so that adding to the emergent and Reflexive quality of qualitative research. Therefore, the interpretive researchers would constantly ask themselves: What is the influence of my own (past and present) values and beliefs in interpreting the thoughts and feelings of the other? What hidden assumptions are constraining (distorting) the way I make sense of the other? Interpretive research methods

include 'narrative inquiry' and 'writing as inquiry', especially autobiographic and auto-ethnographic methods (Taylor and Medina, 2013, p. 4). When language research is guided by the positivist paradigm, the form of representation prevails: study report is written objectively using the past tense, passive voice, and third-person pronoun (gender neutral it). Nonetheless, with the advent of interpretive paradigms, other forms of representation are available for us as researchers. The interpretive qualitative paradigm necessitates that our own perspectives, alongside with our research participants, are 'given voice'. Writing narratively with 1st person pronoun and voice about our unfolding experiences throughout the research allows us to offer deep insight into the research inquiry, clarifying how we have interpreted meaning and offering rich details of the context within which it took place 'thereby fulfilling important quality standards of the interpretive paradigm' (Taylor & Medina, 2013, p. 6). However, the main reservation that I have in this research is the issue of trustworthiness and its generalizability. Nevertheless, as mentioned earlier, the qualitative research is not overly concerned with generalizability as long as the researcher believes that the specific individual meaning obtained from the sample is insightful and enlightening.

4.5 Issues of Trustworthiness

Normally researchers of any kind of research need to assess and test the rigor and the quality of their research. A number of researchers such as Silverman (2013) states that reliability and validity are two central concepts, which are used in any discussion of the scientific research credibility. In other words, positivist researchers refer to this part of research as validity and reliability where issues that aim to guarantee a high level of confidence and objectivity in the findings are debated. However, Golafshani (2003) noted that these terms as defined in quantitative studies, might not be applicable to the qualitative research paradigm, when the latter affirmed that 'the concepts of reliability and validity are viewed differently by qualitative researchers who strongly consider these

concepts defined in quantitative terms as inadequate' (p. 599). Therefore, the quality standards that regulate interpretive research are varied, yet arguably, the most coherent and well-known are those of Guba and Lincoln (1989) who proposed and developed standards of authenticity and trustworthiness that are different but parallel to the reliability, validity and objectivity standards of positivist research (Golafshani, 2003). Therefore, in qualitative studies, the terms dependability and consistency are often represent reliability while credibility is more closely associated with validity (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Nonetheless, Golafshani (2003) argued that the terms validity and reliability are not viewed separately in interpretive research, they are encompassed by the terms: trustworthiness, transferability and credibility.

Silverman (2013) suggests that one of the ways to bring credibility to a qualitative research is through triangulation. The term of triangulation is often employed in research to mean bringing different types of evidence and using different types of instruments to bear on a problem (Denzin 2000). Therefore, if a researcher has access to observational data and interview data, the analysis is more likely to be much sounder than if the researcher relies on only one source of data and evidence. This is because each type of data brings evidence that has its own weaknesses and strengths. For example, in observation, we can see how participant behave so that it might allow us to see a whole process unfold over time such as the details of moment-by-moment classroom interaction. In interviews, we can gain access and insight into their feelings and reasons for acting in a particular way. Operationalising multiple types of data may allow researchers to balance the weaknesses and strengths of each data set. In this current study, triangulation of evidence sources will be used with the assumption that the 'use of different sources of information will help both to confirm and improve the clarity, or precision, of research findings' (Lewis & Ritchie, 2003, p. 275). Consequently, the data collection procedure was developed throughout multiple data sets for the sake of increasing the credibility of the study. Thus, the primary data collection technique or method is classroom observation, which includes audio-recording and field-note data, and were used following open-ended questionnaire and focus groups. Furthermore, prior to the main study, I conducted pilot study to amend the research

instruments as needed and to test the research design in order to increase their validity and reliability (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013).

For the transferability, which based on the degree of similarities between the original context and the context to which it is transferred (Hoepfl, 1997), will be maintained through offering detailed description (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013; Lewis & Ritchie, 2003). Likewise, Taylor and Medina (2013) argue that transferability can be maintained by providing sufficient rich description for the reader in order to compare the social setting of the research with his/her own social context. However, it might not be possible to specify the transferability of findings by the researcher, yet the latter may provide sufficient information, which then can be evaluated by the reader for determining whether or not the findings can be applied to a new context (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Accordingly, this current study strives to offer detailed sufficient information about the research design and instruments, the results (including quotes of participants), the environment/context of the research and the process of analysis to enable the readers to judge its transferability to another context or setting. In addition, a report about the pilot study procedure is offered in chapter five.

4.6 Generalization

It is not expected we can generalise from interpretive research as the sample in a qualitative research provides an insight rather than generalization (Thomas, 2013). For example, the sample in the qualitative study is not expected that if another researcher conducts the study in another context, s/he will make the identical findings of this research. It might be quite the contrary; nearly certainly, that someone else might find quite different findings from the findings of this research. Furthermore, because CA is one of the analysis methods in this study, it has a limitation regarding the issue of generalization. Some researchers criticise CA for its inability to generalise as it focuses on one particular and narrow context. This does not mean that this particular context is not worthwhile, but it

might not be extended to another context (McCarthy & Edwards, 2002). However, this objection faced by counter argument because classroom specific research normally does not aim so much to generalize as to advocate and promote understanding. Besides, sometimes it facilitates replication to other contexts as well. 'Class based, ethno-methodological research sets out to report trends, patterns and tendencies rather than absolutes' (Walsh, 2011, p. 89). Van Lier (1996) also states that 'studies of classroom interaction will clearly be extremely complex and tentative, and one must take care not to draw hasty conclusions from superficially identifiable interactional tokens' (p. 143). In this research, investigating how learning opportunities are constructed in teacher/students interaction is regarded a complex social phenomenon. Therefore, through this study I aim to describe and explain some of the complexity so that it can tell us more about this complex phenomenon by providing thick description, which might allow for some kind of predictions. As Holliday (2007) stresses that 'it is by seeing how connections between people, beliefs, images, tradition operate within a small social setting, that the collective representations of thick description aims to reveal can be seen' (p. 79).

4.7 The Setting of the Research

In this section of the chapter, a description of the university, participants and the courses within which the teachers and students in the study undertaking is presented. This study involves two EFL classrooms, two teachers (Mr. Ahmid and Miss Sonya), and around 20 students (age 18 or over) in each class. This particular university was chosen for this study due to a number of reasons; the administrative stuff and the teacher have shown the positive interest in this particular topic I am researching and as they showed their willing to take part in this study. This university had financed the researcher's for the Master's degree and is also financing the current research. Moreover, the reasons for choosing these classrooms in this university to be the research site was because each class of these two is a particular social context as required by design; it is also, representative of how classrooms in Libyan universities more widely are structured pedagogically and socially. Additionally, the researcher knows a great deal about this context as she graduated from this university and having already taught for six years in the same university. Thus, I decided to use my

work place as the setting of my study because of my familiarity and because of ease of access in conducting fieldwork.

4.7.1 The Course

The fieldwork of this study started at the beginning of the second semester of the academic year. The researcher used the first week to observe all the classes of these two teachers to identify which class will be the proper choice for this study, also to allow sufficient time for the students to settle down in their new classes. Therefore, before conducting the fieldwork, the researcher could not be sure at that time which subject will be chosen. However, at the beginning I thought a monologue where the teacher would be holding the floor most of the time might not be the best choice for this research as the amount of interaction done during the lessons depends also on the subject studied (Walsh, 2006). However, after conducting the pilot I decided to include two types of classrooms: conversation classroom (very interactive) and presentation skills/phonetics classroom (less interactive). More details about the course and participants will be provided in the next chapter.

4.7.2 Criteria for Sampling and Participants

Sampling refers to the selection of samples for a study. Lewis and Ritchie (2003) state that sampling decisions are 'decisions to be made about people, settings or actions' (p. 77), or the 'who, when, and how' (Lynch 1996, p. 124). I intended to approach two English as foreign language classrooms. The students are (males and females) and their number in each class is around 20 taught by two teachers. I explained in detail what the research entails and inform the teachers and the students that I am looking for participants who are willing to be committed to the research study, yet they were told that their participation is entirely voluntary in this study. Ethical approval for the research was obtained from the Human Ethics Committee of the University of Southampton. In the case of this study, the

teachers that were involved will be identified by pseudonym. They will be referred to as Mr. Ahmid and Miss Sonya. The students in the lessons transcripts will be also referred to by pseudonym as well, so that it is unlikely that the teachers or the students involved would be identified. Thus confidentiality could still be kept.

4.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the following sections were included: an overview of the research questions, and methodological strategies summarised in table 4.1 below (see Chapter 5 for more details). An account of the rationale of adopting the interpretive paradigm. A discussion about employing a qualitative discourse analysis study as a design frame for this research including the role of reflexivity. The issues of trustworthiness and generalisability in this research is provided as well. In the last sections, the course, the research sitting and the criteria for sampling and participants are described. The following chapter is dedicated for providing a detailed description of the procedures followed and the methods used to conduct this study.

Chapter 5 Research Instruments

5.1 Introduction

As explained in the research design chapter, qualitative methods were utilized to gain rich data that would facilitate a better understanding of the complexity regarding the real practice of the classroom. This chapter provides a detailed description of the procedures followed and the methods used to conduct this study. Four types of qualitative methods were employed for the sake of obtaining rich data: observations, field notes, open-ended questionnaire and focus groups. The main aim of using all these methods is to have them supplement each other instead of relying only on the audio data. It will also allow me triangulate my data analysis later on. Furthermore, combining these methods will help me gain a deeper understanding and provide a richer, multi-layered description of what goes on in real practice of the two classrooms (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011).

5.2 Observation

The focus of this research is to investigate classroom discourse with a focus on teacher talk in order to operationalise the concept of the learning opportunity as a unit of analysis for research purposes. Therefore, to approach this aim I need to have a discourse account of what is going on in the real practice of the classroom. A classroom observation was conducted and audio recording and field notes complemented it. Kennedy (1999) argues that observation allows the researcher to gather naturalistic data in the sense that the interaction and the discourse to be observed are not pre-organised or set up, but occurring dynamically in the context of teaching and learning in the moment by moment interaction. Marshall and Rossmans (2014) claim that observation enables researchers to document and reflect systematically upon classroom interactions and events, as they actually occur rather than we think they occur. In addition, by being there, the researcher can 'get a feel for the atmosphere of the setting' in a multidimensional way (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht (1998) cited in Seedhouse, 2005, p. 4). Thus, the researcher observes, listens, feels and

interprets. The observation method is the first order approximation of the real events, which provides crucial insights into the analysis.

For this research, I conducted unstructured and non-participant observation. It was unstructured in the sense that it is consistent with the interpretive paradigm, so according to Thomas (2013) unstructured observation can be undertaken when the researcher immerses him/herself in a social situation in order to understand what is going on in this particular context. Cohen et al (2013) says that unstructured observation 'provides a rich description of the situation under investigation (p. 203). On the other hand, non-participant observation was chosen to avoid being involved in or to affect the situation under assessment. However, Wellington (2015) argue that all social research is a form of participant observation as the researchers cannot study or approach social life without being involved in. This view is also emphasised by (Adler & Adler, 1994 cited in Cohen et al. 2013).

I conducted classroom observations over a four-week period twice a week with two teachers. Table 1.2 offers contextual information about these observations (names that reflect the actual gender, the number of observations with each teacher, number of weeks, the length of each observation, and the number of the students).

Mr. Ahmid	Length (minutes)	Number of week	Number of students
1 (pilot)	93	Week 1	21
2	82	Week 2	18
3	90	Week 2	20
4	87	Week 3	22
5	94	Week 3	19
6	81	Week 4	26
7	95	Week 4	22
Miss. Sonya	Length (minutes)	Number of week	Number of students
1	77	Week 1	16
2	85	Week 2	28
3	74	Week 2	22
4	78	Week 3	25
5	71	Week 3	17
6	81	Week 4	23
7	64	Week 4	22

Table 5.1 Classroom observation contextual information

With the aim of investigating classroom discourse to identify learning opportunity in the classroom interaction, all the observed classes were audio recorded, so that the transcribed classroom interaction is the main access route to interpretations in this study. During classroom observations, field notes supplemented the recorded data. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) define field notes as 'the written account of what the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data in qualitative study' (p. 108). These field notes included what the teacher was writing on the board, a description of the setting, teachers' comments and my own ideas and feelings about what was observed. Therefore, the process of classroom observation entails the following data sets: classroom interaction and field notes.

During the first week of the field trip, I conducted a pilot study, which will be discussed in detail later in this chapter. Observing these two classes in the first week enabled me to

familiarise myself with procedures and to see the reactions of the teacher and the students. Moreover, it was a good opportunity for me with the help of the teachers to introduce my research and myself. I then informed the students of the following points:

- The details of the purpose of the study (that I am a doctoral student at the University of Southampton and the fieldwork is part of the project).
- That I need them to be volunteers to participate in my study.
- The instruments I will use including the digital recorder and that I will be observing in their classes for four weeks.
- That there are consent forms for them to sign prior to the actual observations.
- The results and whatever will be recorded will not affect their grades.
- The research activities were approved by ERGO (Ethical Research & Guidance Organization) of the university of Southampton and Tripoli University.

During the observation, I used field notes and audio recording in order to capture a detailed account of the interaction between the teacher and the students. I operationalised these methods to supplement each other, as I believe the audio recording will not capture the description of the class, the body language and the gesture of the teacher and the students. Therefore, I tried my best to document as much as possible these details so that it can be retrieved any time I want during the analysis stage. However, it was impossible to document all the non-verbal gestures in my field notes. As a limitation in my research, I could not use video recording due to some cultural reasons. I used audio recording but because some of the windows are broken due to the conflict I placed two audio recordings in the class one on the teacher's table and the other at the back of the class to capture the voice of the students sitting in the back. Nevertheless, still some of the student's turns are not audible. Yet the audio recording did show to be very useful as when I transcribed the pilot classroom I was able to document a significant number of interaction details. During my fieldwork, I was very keen to transfer the data of the recording chronologically to my

computer and to the drop box in order not to lose by any chance. In the following section, I will discuss why I used field notes as one of the tools in the data collection.

5.3 Field notes

The audio-recorded data was supplemented with field notes. As mentioned before, the aim of using field notes was to write notes about details that will not be evident in the audio-recorded data such as non-linguistic behaviour and body language including gestures (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011). In other words, I used the field notes to fill the missing non-linguistic details of transcription, as communication is multimode and focusing only on language means missing out body language and gestures. Sometimes the teacher's body language might influence learner contribution. For example, the audio recordings might not pick up the fact that the teacher has pointed to one of the students to request him or her to talk.

Taking notes during lectures was one of the component of an intensive processional course I was involved in (2014) at the University of Southampton. I really appreciate this course, as it was intensive training of taking useful and organised notes. Richards (2003) suggests that train the memory to take notes is a valuable strategy especially in a qualitative research. When I observed the first two classes, I recognised that verbal interaction, and non-verbal behaviours and classroom activities, change every lesson. It was important to document the information for all of them every time when I observe the class. Thus, after careful consideration, I decided to divide my field notes in to three parts. The first part includes details of the physical setting. This would include an overall description of the classroom (e.g. the number of students and space description). It also included a description of the participants in the setting and depiction of activities. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) argue that the descriptive field notes represent the best effort of researcher to document objectively the details of what has occurred in the setting. This part of the field notes also includes participant nonverbal gestures. The second part of the field notes includes what these two teachers told me during the fieldwork. During the breaks between the classes, I used to sit and have conversation with the teacher about the observed class.

I tried to document some interesting points that the teacher makes (e.g. reason for interacting most with students setting in the front). The last part of the field notes includes my reflexive account about the observed class. In this part, I have recorded my own reflection, perception, emotions regarding what was going on in, and outside during the class such as gunfire sounds. Therefore, the field notes in this research are observer field notes with ethnographic features. According to Bloome and Greene (1996) cited in Dickins and Germaine (2014), researchers may use ethnographic tools such as ethnographic field notes without necessarily conducting an ethnographical study or being guided by cultural and social theories (p. 56). The following section is a discussion of the questionnaire that was distributed to the students.

5.4 Questionnaire

The main aim of this research is to investigate how learning opportunities can be co-constructed by the teacher and students in EFL classrooms with a focus on teacher talk. However, students' voice in this study has great importance in identifying what kind of potential learning opportunities become realised to the students. In order to achieve this aim, the researcher decided to distribute open-ended questionnaire to the students. This questionnaire was adapted from (Slimani, 1989) or as the latter calls it, (Uptake Recall Charts) (see Appendix A). However, this is a short survey repeated after each observed class, thus complementing the analysis of talk/interaction. As Slimani (1989) notes it is a way of capturing cognitions from students in the immediate context and it is repeated, so there is an in-built training element through practice. Training of data providers is always believed to add quality to data sets (for example in think aloud/stimulated recall methods) (Gass and Mackey, 2000).

The questionnaire is written in English and Arabic and occupies one side of an A4 sheet. The students were free to respond in either language. As I mentioned the questions on the chart are open-ended and the respondents were asked to write as fully as possible in all

the points, which occurred in each observed lesson. The questionnaires were distributed to the students at the end of each observed class, as the aim was to find out what the students might have learnt from each observed lesson. Dornyei (2007) suggests that it is preferable to place open-ended questionnaires at the end of the class because it requires substantial and creative writing. Open-ended questionnaire as an instrument received a great deal of criticism by some researchers such as (Young et al. 2002). The latter argue that open-ended questions might lead to redundant and irrelevant information. They also require much more time for the subjects to respond on it. Cohen et al. (2013) say that it might not be easy to classify and code the data due to the different responses by the participant. In the case of this research, the questions in the chart are not very long. The participants were asked to answer only four points as it shows in the appendix. The time that was assigned to answer the questionnaire is only five minutes at the end of each observed class.

On the other hand, there are some advantages of using this instrument. In an open-ended question, the participants write free responses in their own expressions and words. It also may invite personal and honest comments from the participants rather just ticking boxes in the given choices, which might avoid the limitations of pre-set categories of response (Cohen et al. 2013). Because of allowing greater freedom of expression, open-format responses might afford a greater richness for qualitative data. According to Dornyei (2007), open-ended questions might also lead us to recognise issues not previously expected. In this exploratory study, using closed-ended questionnaire is not appropriate because the subjects' responses in each questionnaire were depending on each observed class. Therefore, it is completely not possible to use pre-prepared responses. Dornyei (2007) states that 'sometimes we need open-ended questions for the simple reason that we do not know the range of possible answers and therefore cannot provide pre-prepared response categories' (p. 236). Next is a discussion of the focus group as one of the tools used in collecting the data of this study.

5.5 Focus group

As mentioned above, the students' voice and perspective about their teacher talk has a significant role in this research so that conducting focus group with the students was needed. At the end of the four weeks of observation, I was able to set two focus groups; yet I conducted one focus group in the first week during the pilot. Barbour (2013) defines a focus group as 'a group convened for research purposes that relies for data on the discussion generated between participants' (p. 156). According to Lichtman (2013), the purpose of using focus groups is to gather information from participants about a particular topic of interest. The teachers were very kind in helping me choosing the students for the focus group. I was trying to have all types of students. The ones who interact the most, less interactive and the students who did not interact. The teachers also helped me regarding the proficiency level of the students as I aim to have students with different language proficiency levels.

According to Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2010), the point of the focus group in general is to step away from the directive interviewing towards encouraging lively dynamic discussion between the members, and the researcher has only to moderate the discussion without trying to intervene from time to time. However, due to different cultural reasons the students considered me as a teacher not as a researcher. Thus, they did not have that kind of courage to involve in a dynamic discussion in front of the teacher (me), yet the situation becomes better when I facilitate the discussion so sometimes, I prompt the students to continue or to move on to the next point when I feel that the discussion starts to deviate. This because many times the students start to talk about the current situation in Libya and the difficulties they face every day to come to the university let alone the presence of two tanks on the front of the university. The situation was so sensitive for me because on the one hand, I did not want to stop them talking about these issues in order not to give them an impression that I do not care about these problems as currently I do not live in Libya. Actually, I do care and emotionally I was bleeding inside because when I arrived I found

different Libya from the one that was before 2011, it is nearly completely collapsed. On the other hand, I did not want this to affect the focus of the discussion. In a way, I managed to keep them talking about their opinions of their teacher talk. The students mentioned many interesting points including what they think about the wait-time that the teacher gives to the students to answer, the types of questions that the teacher asks and about some points regarding teacher interruption and the use of L1. For more details, see Focus group discussion guide (Appendix B). In the next section, a discussion about some ethical issues will be provided.

5.6 Ethics Consideration

There are important official procedures at the University of Southampton regarding ethical information that need to be followed before embarking on the data collection phase of this study. All these procedures were approved by ERGO: all the participants were provided the information sheets (see Appendix E) to make sure that the participants have all the information needed before participating in this study. Furthermore, all the participants in this study were asked if they are willing to participate in this study. Both of the teachers and all the students were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix C) which gives me the permission to use the data for my research. The participants were also assured that their names, identities and information gained will remain anonymous and confidential and that the data will only be used for the purposes of this research and will not be made accessible to anyone else at their university. A significant number of researchers such as Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2010) assert the importance of reassuring anonymity to the participants and the importance of explaining to them how their participation adds a great value to the research. In the following section, I provide an explanation about the methods that are used to analyse the data.

5.7 Data Analysis Methods

5.7.1 Conversation Analysis

All the audio-recording data of classroom observation is transcribed and analysed using the Conversation Analysis (CA) approach. The main reason for choosing this approach is that it focuses on the details of talk, which enables an investigation of the ways in which particular features of teacher talk affect learners' contribution and the construction of learning opportunities in the EFL classroom. Conversation analysis provides 'a fitting lens through which such scrutiny may be accomplished' (Waring, 2011). According to Sidnell (2011) the goal of CA is to provide a 'fine-grained and emic description of naturally occurring spoken data as a means of understanding talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life' (p. 1). In addition, 'CA forces the researcher to focus on the interaction patterns emerging from the data, rather than relying on any preconceived notions which language teachers may bring to the data' (Walsh & Li 2013, p. 7). Thus, by using CA the data are allowed to 'speak for themselves'. (Sacks, 1984 cited in Seedhouse, 2005). However, as noted by (Cullen, 2002), in the normal practice of the classroom teachers normally use some basic features of interaction such as reformulating their elicitations, seeking clarification, checking for confirmation, and acknowledging and encouraging student contributions in their third turn (or F part of the IRF pattern).

Moreover, as mentioned in chapter three, there are other features of teacher talk were used by Walsh (2002; 2006 and 2011) in his framework for investigating classroom discourse, which are used for this study, to identify learning opportunity. Thus, throughout the analysis process, a number of these features will be investigated and examined from the Conversation Analysis perspective in order to describe and understand the ways in which learning opportunities are co-constructed in teacher-students interaction. Furthermore, the focus will be also on turn taking between teacher and students that, according to Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), is considered to be the heart of Conversation

Analysis. Thus, one way to pursue the creation and construction of learning opportunities in the classroom discourse is to utilize the conversation analysis method. He (2004) states that 'the empirical power of CA has been harnessed to detail the interactional practices that either create or inhibit the opportunities for participation, and by extension, the opportunities for learning' (p. 203). Therefore, our understanding of (what happened) during moment-by-moment interaction can be significantly enhanced under CA methodology (Walsh, 2011). Although researchers such as (He, 2004) argues that conversation analysis might not be the suitable tool to identify the learning development directly, it may contribute 'to the larger picture of learning inquiry by investigating classroom discourse to identify learning opportunities' (Waring 2009, p. 798).

Some researchers criticise CA also for being more selective. Discourse snatches and their ensuing comments might be appeared be selected randomly without attempting to assess their importance to the discourse as a whole (Walsh, 2011). Yet, it might not be the case for this research, as the excerpts are selected for the analysis based on students' feedback. In other words, the discourse (the transcribed audio data) was accessed through students' feedback reports, which might be considered as a gap in methodology as normally in this line of studies, researchers analyse classroom discourse independent from students' input. Up to my knowledge only Slimani (1989) and Dobinson (2001) analysed classroom discourse based on students' feedback. Even though most studies that are conducted to investigate classroom discourse used audio and video data, in this study, only audio data will be used, as it was not possible to have video data due to some cultural reasons. However, a number of studies that were conducted in this area of research used audio data only to analyse classroom interaction such as (Cancino, 2015; Ogunleye, 2011; Walsh, 2002). In the following section, another data analysis method that was employed in this study will be discussed. I synthesized these two data analysis methods. Conversation and content analysis were adopted as the methodology to analyse the collected data on classroom interaction between the two teachers and the participant students. These data analysis methods are utilised to analyse the data and to discuss the findings for the research questions.

5.7.2 Content Analysis

Patton (2002) says that content analysis is 'any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings' (p. 453). Mayring (2000) claims that content analysis is 'an approach of empirical, methodological controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytic rules and step-by-step models, without rash quantification' (p. 2). Holsti (1969) offers a broad definition of content analysis as any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages.

In this study, content analysis is utilised for analysing the questionnaire. The content analysis is used for doing a word-frequency count. For example, the frequency of some vocabulary and grammar structures that the students had learnt from each observed lesson. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2013) address that the most 'common notion in qualitative research is that a content analysis simply means doing a word-frequency count'. In other words, the statement made is that the words that are mentioned most frequently are the words that reveal the greatest concerns. However, Content analysis extends far beyond simple word counts. What makes the technique particularly rich and meaningful is its reliance on coding and categorizing of the data. The basics of categorizing can be summed up in these quotes: "A category is a group of words with similar meaning or connotations" (Weber (1990) cited in Hsieh and Shannon (2005) p. 37). Thus, the process of analysing the questionnaire includes two stages. First, coding the frequency learning items that were recalled the most by the students and then identifying the 'telling' that is 'particular personal insights which resonates in terms of the connections they make' (Kiely and Askham, 2012, p. 506). Such telling themes are relevant in order to capture particular recalled learning item. For example, if only one student recalled grammar structure or one vocabulary but other students did not, it will be regarded as a (telling) so that it might tell us what made this item in particular salient to this particular student in a telling way.

Content analysis method was used also for analysing the data of the field notes and focus groups, as the focus in analysing these two datasets is not on the interaction details between the participants, but on the content of what the participated students and teachers mentioned. Schilling (2006) mentioned that qualitative content analysis is most often used to analyse interview transcripts or any written responses in order to reveal or model people's information related behaviours, thoughts or knowledge (p. 35). For the filed note data, as mentioned in section 5.3, the field notes were divided into three parts. The first part includes details of the physical setting. The second part includes what these two teachers told me during the fieldwork. During the breaks between the classes, I used to sit and have conversation with the teachers about the observed classes. I tried to document some interesting points that the teacher made (e.g. reason for interacting most with students setting in the front). The last part of the field notes includes my comments and personal reflection. With the use of content analysis in analysing the field notes, I made three tables by the use of word file to describe each section of the field notes. The first table is for the physical setting. This table included details of the physical setting of each observed classroom. This would include an overall description of the classroom (e.g. the number of students and space description). It also included a description of the participants in the setting and depiction of activities.

A second table for the second part of the filed notes included the teachers, comments and notes about their observed classes and sometimes about their teaching practice and regarding some decisions that they made related to classroom interaction. For each teacher, I made a separate table according to the class number and their comments. Then, I relate these comments to the themes that this research is focusing on, which are the discourse features of teacher talk highlighted with different colours. A sample of the field note analysis is provided (see Appendix J). The final table includes my reflection about the observed classes and the fieldwork in general. Most of my comment in the filed notes were focusing on describing what was going on during my fieldwork outside during the class such as gunfire sounds. It was much more about my reflection about how brave the students and the teachers to keep up the great spirit inside the classroom in spite of what is going on outside. Therefore, I have not used my comments in this research as they were

somehow beyond the focus of this study, so I decided to use them for future research. Similar approach was followed in analysing focus group data. With the use of content analysis, I made two tables that includes the students' comments from both focus groups and I related these comments to the themes that this research focuses on. These themes are the discourse features of teacher talk. Nevertheless, as the majority of the focus group data were about the use of native language (L1), so I dedicated a whole table for this feature (the use of L1) (appendix H) and another table for the rest of the features for each focus group. There are other themes that the students mentioned in the focus group such as the challenges that they face nearly every day to get to the university, the lack of the proper equipment and the lack library. However, such these themes were excluded from the analysis process as they were beyond the focus of this study. Therefore, content analysis in this study was used to analyse the questionnaire, field notes and focus group data as well. More details about the analysis process will be provided in the pilot study report which it to this that I now turn.

5.8 Pilot Report

In this section, I explain about the pilot study that was conducted in the first week of the main data collection. The purpose of conducting the pilot was to test and amend the means of data collection, and to see the adequacy of the data for the research questions of this study. Prior to travelling Libya, I decided to pilot all the instruments that I will use to collect my research data. However, as the uniqueness of the context was part of the research, the pilot has to be done in the same context with the same participants. Teijlingen et al. (2001) define the Pilot study as mini version of a full study. They also emphasise on what they call it (pre-testing) of specific research instruments such as questionnaire and interview schedule. Gass and Mackey (2000) consider pilot study as key element in designing a good study, and they suggest that one of the most important benefit of piloting the research instruments is the ability of giving early warning about probable weaknesses in the

proposed research methods. This also includes if the research tools might not be used accurately or indicates that these tools and techniques are inappropriate for the intended study. They also address that pilot stage 'can help avoid costly and time consuming problems during the data collection procedure... [as well as] the loss of valuable, potentially useful, and often irreplaceable data' (p.57). Thus, in this report, a discussion will be offered about piloting each instrument and learning from each phase, starting with a discussion about negotiating the observer position with the teacher and finally, a preliminary overview of conducting data analysis will be provided as well.

5.9 The Observer Presence

As stated in the previous section, I decided to pilot all the instruments that will be used in the second observed class. Yet I was concerned about my presence as an observer from the outside of the classroom. Labov (1972) argues that 'observer paradox' or 'reactivity', where the situation meant to be observed is likely to change, is a common problem with the observation. This due to the researcher's presence. Moreover, Breen (1985) says that the very presence of a researcher or even the awareness within the group that they are the focus of apparently objective evaluation, the study will mobilise change. Yet the latter argues that this phenomenon will render short-term research. Thus, it might be a real problem if the intended study will be based on one-time investigation into classroom, but in this study, the classrooms were observed several times. When I walked into the teacher classroom for the first time, I told him that if it would be possible to sit at the very back of the class. At that time, the teacher had informed the students about the classroom observation. However, he told me that it would be no problem for me to sit in the front at one of the corners. This because the students nearly daily used to see one teacher sitting and watching their classes, (it is part of in service training courses for the new teachers). Sitting there enabled me to view the whole class and particularly the teacher. For the first 10 minutes, I noticed that the students often look at me and check on what I was doing. Soon after that, it seemed that they forgot about my existence and returned to their normal behaviour.

5.9.1 Piloting the Observation Instrument and Learning from this Phase

Observing these two classes in the first week enabled me to familiarise myself with procedures and to see the reactions of the teacher and the students. The teacher kindly offered me an opportunity to talk and introduce myself to the students in order to make them feel at ease. Each observation of these two classes lasted 80-95 minutes. As I mentioned earlier that in the first class none of the research tools was used. I just sat and tried to familiarise myself with the class atmosphere leaving a chance for the teacher and the students to get used to my presence. When I started observing the classroom, I was completely with open mind and eyes about what is going on the real practise of the classroom. In a way, I focused more on teacher-student interaction and how the teacher deals with students' participation. However, it was not easy especially at the beginning feeling that I do not have a specific thing to look for or to focus on, but as the time goes by, I started to see a significant number of interesting unpredicted instances. Yet, still at that time, I was not sure that these instances would be relevant to my research. After getting the permission from the teacher and the students, I was looking for a good place to set the recorders. I put two recorders in the class one at the front on the teacher's table and the other recorder at the back in order to enhance the quality of the recording so that I could hear also the voice of the students sitting in the back. Unfortunately, the sounds were still not very clear, as some windows are broken, so when one of students talk in a low voice, it cannot be audible. During the observation, I was trying also to familiarise myself with field notes so I was taking as much as possible notes about classroom description. In addition to the description of the class, I also took notes whenever students ask or interact with the teacher as I put timer that is exactly goes with the recording time to write information with the exact time to track the instance in the discourse later on. This stage really helped me afterwards, so in the main fieldwork I developed my field notes to be more accurate exactly with the time of the recorders.

5.9.2 Piloting the Questionnaire and Focus Group Instruments and Learning from this Phase

The main aim of this research is to investigate how learning opportunities can be co-constructed by the teacher and students in EFL classrooms with a focus on teacher talk. However, as it stated above, students' perspective in this study has a great importance in identifying what kind of potential learning opportunity that become realised to the students. In order to approach this aim, the researcher decided to conduct focus group and distribute questionnaires to the students. At the end of the second observed class, the teacher kindly helped me to distribute the questionnaire charts. At first, the students did not really understand what they had to write so they tend to look at each other in a way that gave impression that they did not understand how to fill the questionnaire. I then modelled the procedure to them and explained the points that need to be filled in the questionnaire. Some learners' first attempts in answering the questionnaire were in fact descriptions of the various procedural steps the teacher undertook to conduct the lesson and some other students wrote comments about the teacher's performance. Therefore, it was good training for the students so that the learners were reporting on specific points rather than giving unclearly descriptive account of the lesson. I clarified the goals of the chart by explaining in Arabic and English in that learners were expected to write the things that had come up during the lesson of that class in either language.

I also decided to pilot the focus group as this allowed me to self-assess my ability to conduct this instrument effectively (e.g. time for the focus, ability to get the students to talk, use of prompts such as tell me more, anyone can start talking about this, give me an example). Barbour (2007, p. 156) defines a focus group as 'a group convened for research purposes that relies for data on the discussion generated between participants'. According to Lichtman (2013), the purpose of using focus groups is to gather information from participants about a particular topic of interest. One of the main goals for piloting the focus group was ensuring that the questions were understood by the student involved in this research. Another goal was to ensure that the questions were appropriate for the students to obtain rich and deep data from them. Thus, I asked the teacher from the beginning if he

could help me in choosing some students from the same class to pilot the focus group. Unfortunately, he told me that he could ask only three students to meet me three hours after the class. In those three hours I went to the teacher's office, I listened to the recorder and made just initial transcription, and I had a look at the questionnaires in order to find out something interesting to ask the students about in the focus group. I spent around more than thirty minutes with them. At first, the students did not really understand what they had to say so they tend to be silent and I was not able to elicit many responses from them. I had to use prompts repeatedly to make sure that they do not stop talking. As it mentioned above sometimes they go off task, yet I managed to keep them talking about their perspective of their teacher talk and classroom interaction.

The pilot work conducted in Libya gave the researcher a sense of the answers and reaction of the students, which could help the researcher rephrase or modify the questionnaire and the focus group questions to obtain richer data during the fieldwork. Moreover, the piloting allowed the researcher also to test the quality of the MP3 voice recording, develop my skills of how to use MP3 players in classroom observation, enhance my knowledge as to how to deal with observational data and gaining more ideas about how to develop focus group questions from observational data. In the following section, an overview of conducting the data analysis including a discussion of the pilot report is provided.

5.10 Overview of Conducting Data Analysis.

5.10.1 Data Analysis Framework

In this current study, the data comprises of (1) the students' feedback in the recall charts (2) the participants (teachers/students) words that were evident in the recorded classes and the field notes. (3) The focus group sessions, which were also audio recorded and transcribed. In total, they were altogether 13 classroom observations (including the pilot classroom); each one lasted for 64-95 minutes. Three focus group sessions, each one lasted

for 25-30 minutes. The data were analysed by using the analytical framework that will be discussed below. However, before going to analytical framework I would like to discuss the process of transcribing, coding the data and decision-making process that was made during the process of the transcription.

5.10.2 Transcribing and Translating the Data

In this research, the analysis focused on the classroom discourse, and conversation analysis as an analytical methodology is operationalised. This will be similar to Walsh (2002; 2006; 2011) and Walsh and Li (2013). The reason behind employing Conversation Analysis method is that I consider naturally classroom interaction as the primary data in my research. Moreover, the aim of conducting conversation analysis transcription is to make a clear account of what is said and how it is said with a focus on teacher talk for analytic consideration. By using conversation analysis, I aim to explore thoroughly how the teacher and the students co-construct learning opportunity, and how the teachers by their use of language construct the creation of learning opportunity.

Once the classroom discourse and focus group data were collected. It was crucial to organise the data into analysable and manageable source of information (Mackey & Gass, 2005). To achieve this task, the first stage was to convert the oral data into written transcripts. Then, I analyse and describe these words in order to look for particular themes to base my research (Creswell, 2013). First, I had to decide on the transcription conversation analysis conventions. Following Walsh (2002), some conventions were adapted from Richards (2003, p. 173-174 and 186), Mackey and Gass (2005) and Wray et al. (1998). I created only one convention that refers to utterances which are quieter than surrounding, which represented by (**) (see Appendix F). These conventions were applied only to the classroom data but not to the focus group as the interaction details in the focus group is not relevant to the focus of this research. Because the data of the latter method were in Arabic, I had to translate it by myself. Yet to check the accuracy, I asked a friend of mine who is currently doing a PhD degree in translation studies at Durham University to do back translation into English language. The majority of the transcript that my friend translated was similar to the original transcript, and there were no considerable differences

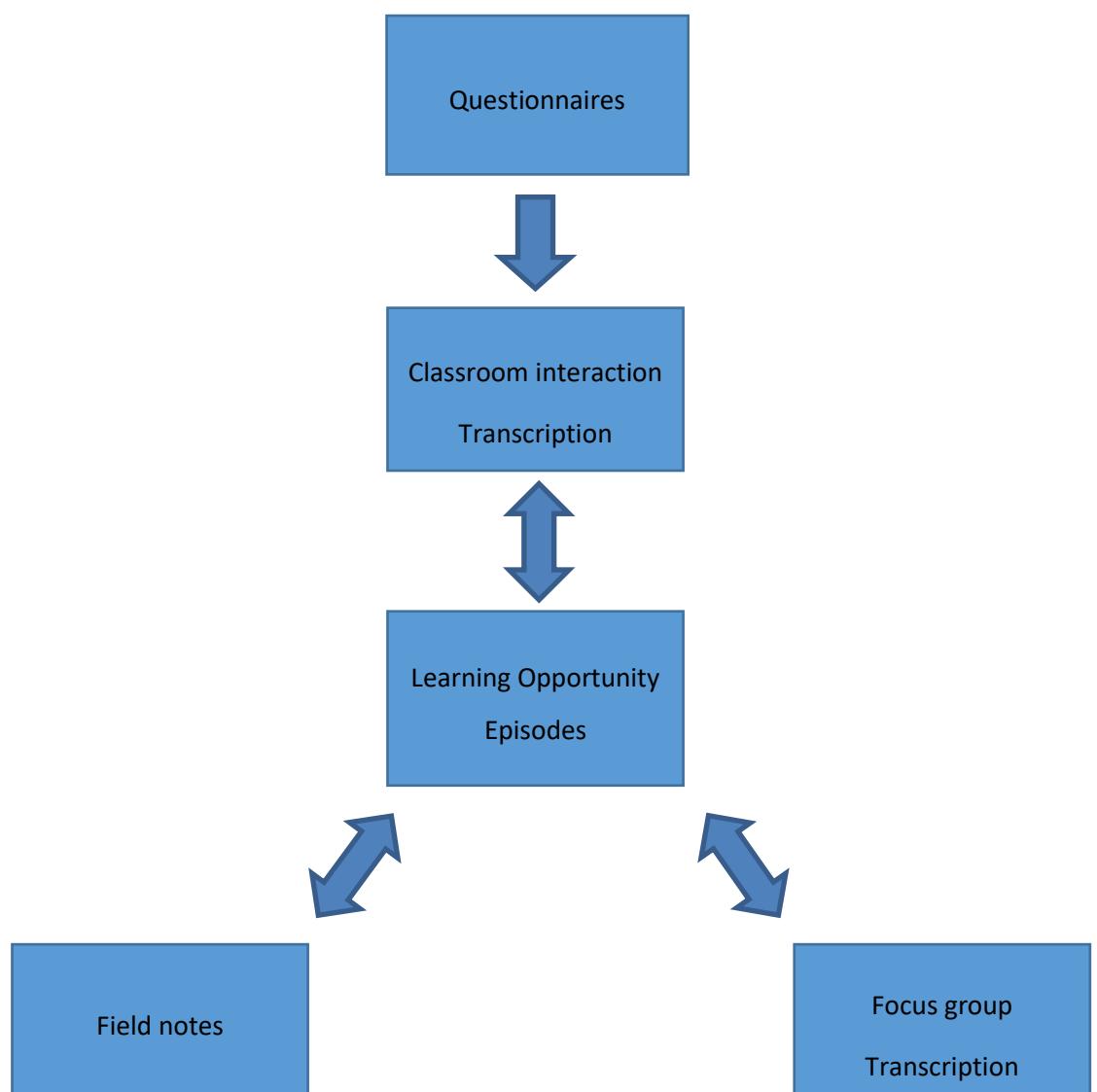
in terms of meaning. In this study, I decided to take the opportunity to become thoroughly familiar with the data, so that I translate and transcribe all the data myself.

For this research, the process of data analysis started at the beginning of the process of transcribing. Some researchers for instance Cohen et al. (2013) calls it pre-coding stage, but Dornyei (2007, p. 250) claims that the first step of analysis should start during transcribing in order to 'meeting the data meaningfully'. Thus, I was thinking about coding while I was transcribing, and once I finished the transcription of the pilot class, I felt that I needed to understand what is going on during the interaction. Therefore, I read the transcript and listened to the audio a few times. Though I recognised that it is very difficult to understand clearly, what is going on, because it is more complex than I thought. However, as mentioned in research design chapter, the qualitative researcher needs to be selective but in a systematic way in order to avoid being a cherry picker. Therefore, in terms of the meaningful meeting with the data, by using content analysis method, I started with the recall questionnaires, so that I used the students' feedback in the questionnaire to access the transcription. Therefore, the analysis was based on students' feedback about what they claim that they might have learnt from the observed class, and then I went back to the transcription to identify the parts that were relevant and started to code them. I called these excerpts 'learning opportunity episodes'. This term was adapted from (Kiely, Davis & Wheeler, 2010; Slimani-Rolls & Kiely, 2014) 'Critical learning episodes'. Then I coded these 'learning opportunity episodes' by assigning titles in order to specify their features.

In other words, identifying what features that made these learning opportunities salient to the students. These titles or themes will be the features of teacher talk that were adapted from 'the framework for analysing classroom interaction' (Walsh, 2011). In additions to these features of teacher talk, this study was opened to discover new interactional features that might appear during the process of data analysis. After identifying these episodes, I also employed content analysis to analyse the piloted focus group to illustrate the general perceptions and expectations of the students about their teacher talk and classroom

interaction. This students' perspective would afford a general background, to complement the specific analysis of classroom interaction. However, the analysis is presented in an integrated way. In other words, coding the focus group and field notes date and generating themes out of it are done separately, yet the 'learning opportunity episodes' that capture the learning opportunities, which are taken from the transcription of classroom discourse, are analysed from different perspectives of different dataset. Thus, the analysis of this study is presented in an integrated way, but not separately. It also includes the comments that I collected from the teachers about their classes in the field notes. Below is an overview of the data analysis. The following diagram shows the process of accessing the data.

Figure 5.1 The Process of Accessing the Data



5.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter offered a detailed description of the procedures followed and the methods used to conduct this study. Four types of qualitative methods were operationalised to obtain rich data: observations, field notes, open-ended questionnaire and focus groups. The main aim of using all these methods is to have them supplement each other and to allow me triangulate the data analysis.

The subsequent chapter provides the analysis and the discussion that aim at investigating the first research question, which guided the design and the analysis of this research. However, this does not mean that the study is structured around the first research question, yet the analysis of the second research question and third research question was conducted by the use of the learning items identified in the first research question by the use of the recall questionnaire.

In other words, the first research question is defining or characterising learning opportunities as ultimately determined by the students according to their feedback in the recall reports. Then to answer the second research question some of the identified learning items in the first research question were used and analysed to find out whether the interactional features of teacher talk affect the creation and the construction of these learning opportunities. The answer of the third research question is also based on the identified learning items in the first research question. This because the answer of the third research question is kind of a list of the functions that the use of L1 does in the discourse to find out if there is a relationship between using L1 and the construction of Learning opportunities that were identified in the first research question.

Chapter 6 Constructing Learning Opportunity

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I provided an overview about the research methodology and the instruments that have been used to conduct this study. In this chapter, I present the analysis of two of these instruments, which are the questionnaire data set, and transcriptions of the recorded classroom data set. Therefore, to answer the first research question I have two sections: what does the recalled data include and what is in the transcript data that connects with the recall data and then I offer examples, as the complexity requires. Thus, this chapter will be generally descriptive as in the subsequent chapter the focus will be on finding out explanation for the relations between these two data sets in details. In other words, in this chapter, I just illustrate what is in the classroom process that seems to be memorable, recalled, and significant in some ways for the students, and then in chapter six some of them will be examined in details. Therefore, the analysis of the current chapter aims at investigating the first research question, which guided the design and the analysis of this research.

RQ1. What kind of learning opportunities do students construct from classroom interaction and teacher talk?

To accomplish the specific objective of this research question, as mentioned in the previous chapter, the students were asked to fill questionnaire immediately after each classroom to say what did they learn from today's lesson. Although this study is guided by the qualitative approach, there will be kind of quantitative and frequency discussion. In order to identify the episodes of the discourse, I need to see the frequency of the recalled learning items in the students' report, so that in front of each recalled item I put the number of the students, those who mentioned this particular item in the questionnaires. In other words, numbers are significant to this study even though this research is not guided by a quantitative approach. For example, if I have one student recalled something from the lesson, and then

I have six students recalled something else, so this learning item is recalled more frequently so that there is a significance in this number (six students) in terms of what makes this recalled learning item particular for including it in my analysis.

This because I am not only taking this conversation analysis data from the discourse, I am trying to go somehow beneath the discourse. In a considerable number of classroom interaction research, the teachers normally direct the attention of the researchers into what is important in the transcript by using for example stimulated recall interview with the teachers (Walsh, 2002; 2011). This is not the case of this research where the students are taking me by the hand in the analysis of this discourse, because I am using their recall notes in the questionnaire, so they are pointing to what is important in the discourse. Therefore, I am approaching the discourse with the students' guide. Based on my literature review, few studies had looked at learners' voice in terms of classroom teaching works for them. Means, this area of research, which is accessing the talk from what the students recall from the classes has been less emphasised and researched since the study of Slimani (1989).

6.2 Analysing the Recall Questionnaire

I analysed these questionnaires to access and see what kind of learning opportunities that arise in the classroom, which the students were able to remember and report them in the questionnaire. The idea is to track these learning items back in the classroom transcription to see what is in the transcription data that connects with the recall data. Then to see if there are relationships between recalling these learning opportunities and the discourse features of teacher talk in the following chapter. In order to conduct the analysis in a systematic way and to have comprehensive framework of learning opportunity, first, I transferred the questionnaire data into tables according to the class and the type of the item reported in the questionnaire (see table 6.1 below). Then, in parallel, I transcribed all the audio data of the classrooms. In total I have nearly five hundred pages of transcription,

as all the details of teachers/students interaction is so important for the focus of this research. After transcribing everything of these classrooms, I divided the whole data into many chunks according to the themes that were mentioned by the students' data in the questionnaire, as it will follow below.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the repeated process of answering the same questionnaire every class provided the students good training and by time the quality and the quantity of the information given by the students were improved and increased, so that there was a change as they did the recall differently. This because in the first and second classes their answers was only a description of the class and evaluation of the teacher. It was expected that filling the questionnaire would not be successful from the first time, as I did not expect that by only giving them the instruction, they could do it perfectly. Thus, at the start of each lesson I was insisting on them to write down as much as possible details of any item they think they have learnt. Therefore, I had to train the students and invest time and the only way can be trained is through doing it and I think with this reiterated approach, which filling the questionnaire over 12 times, it was somehow a training for the students as they do become more proficient at recalling and specifying. Actually, I was trying to offer them the chance of being sensitive to the instrument. As Slimani (1989) highlights that it is a way of capturing cognitions from students in the immediate context and it is repeated, so there is an in-built training element through practice. Moreover, according to Gass and Mackey, (2000) training of data providers is always believed to add quality to data sets (for example in think aloud/stimulated recall methods).

From the table below, it can be seen that the amount of the recalled item has been increased as we go through the table 6.1 below. In other words, from the table we can notice that there are a lot more entries in the later classes. This might be because the students by the repeated process of answering the questionnaire, they had learnt how to be more effective responders with this method. Thus, the students started with more vocabularies in the first weeks, as it seems that they recall what is reportable in the questionnaire, so it tends to be the vocabulary items are somehow more salient in classroom talk. Yet, when they became more customized to the questionnaire, they have more categories such grammar, topic area, skills/strategies and the others. So the

categories other than vocabulary we can see that they increase every time. In addition, what seems to be interesting also, is that there are more recalled items in the classes that are teacher-fronted and have more teacher talk (phonetics and presentation skills) than the other classes which are student-centred and have less teacher talk (the advanced conversation class).

The table 6.1 below presents the questionnaire data according to the class, number of the students, which is presented by the abbreviation (SN) in the table and the type of the item reported in the questionnaire, and the categories, which are grammar, vocabulary, topic area, Skills/strategies and others, were categorised according to the labels in the questionnaire's slots.

Class	Grammar	Vocabulary	Topic area	Skills and strategies	others
Class (1) SN (22)		Now a day (1) Gorgeous (1) Impact (1)			
Class (2) SN (16)		Superstation (7) Ghost (1) Djinn (8) Magic (1) Terrified (1) Bulling=fighting (1)			
Class (3) SN (19)	When to use did and do (2)	Shop assistant (6) Leather (2) Sale (3) Customer (4) Cheque (1) Credit card (1)	Shopping How we deal with ppl politely in the shops (5)		More L1 (4) Recognising the individual differences (4)

Class	Grammar	Vocabulary	Topic area	Skills and strategies	others
Class (4) SN (25)		Wise (2) Euphemism (4) Manage (1) Humour (4) Back up (8) Questionnaire (5) Practice/practise (3) Memorise(1) Famous (1) confidence (1) silly (1) focus(1)	Introducing yourself. (3) Making attractive start. (5) Using a hook (2)	How to back up my presentation. Making slide show. (7) Getting image from google images and inserting them in the slides. (2)	We need books and stories and computers, internet there is no library. (3) We need role-play (1) (WISE) W welcome I introduce S say your topic E explain your topic (4)
Class (5) SN (21)	You understand not you understanding (5)	Monotonous (6) Audience (3) Rhetorical (4) Enthusiasm (2) Emphasis (1) Street (1) Handouts (1) issue (1) silly1 (1) That's very kind of you (4) local (3)	Using specific expression to move from slide to slide e.g. 'as you can see here'	Talking in front of a mirror and clock (6) Acting as a way of overcome anxiety (4) Using funny slides (3)	Internet books CDs Using more L1 (3).
Class (6) SN (26)	I've finished not I'm finished (16)	Hunger (2) Litterbin (6) Code (5) Cluster (2) Snow (3) Instrument (2) Parking meter (2) Purpose (1) Astronomy (1) purpose(1) annoying(1)		Record yourself to check pronunciation. Using dictionaries for phonetic symbols.	We need more technologies CDs, Games, language laps. (6)

Class	Grammar	Vocabulary	Topic area	Skills and strategies	others
Class (7) SN (25)	Putting adjectives before nouns (4) Adjectives describe nouns Adverbs describes verb (17)	Syllables (7) Adjective (4) Comfortable (2) Education (4) Stool (1) Elbow (part of the body) (3) Billable (1) Glottal (1) Here you are (1)		Using google to find out the phonetic symbols (3)	More using L1 We need T correct our pronunciation (5) We need books internet Computers. (4)
Class (8) SN (19)	I agree not I'm agree (3) Did+ have not had (2) Into outside (can't be)	Violence (3) I agree/I disagree (3) Compulsory (9) In my opinion (4) pop in (5) are you kidding me (3)			Talking more with the teacher not with the students (5)
Class (9) SN (18)	Using past simple in telling stories (10)	Protagonist (4) Subtitles (3) Horror (2) Mystery (3) Amazing (1) Interesting (1)	Avatar Kingdom of heaven Titanic And Arabic names	Chatting with your classmates in English to practice	Teacher should choose proper topics not music and films (Haram)

Class	Grammar	Vocabulary	Topic area	Skills and strategies	others
Class (10) SN (15)	I watched PS not I've watched	Rehearse= practise (4) Bullet [point/gunfire] (5) Anxiety (2) Visual aids (13) ISIS (7) Updated (5) Awful (2) Typical (1)		Summarising long sentences into three words (8) Recording yourself. (3)	More teacher corrections (2) Allowing extra time for answers. (1) Internet books CDs Using more L1 (3).
Class (11) SN (20)	using is when asking about countable nouns (3)	Tender (4) Tough (4) Rich (2) Bill (1) Soft (1)	Going to the restaurant (3) Being very polite when asking the waitress or waiter (1)		Teacher has to recognise the individual differences (1)
Class (12) SN (18)	using present simple when meeting ppl for the first time (3)	Pleased to meet (2) you (2) Trip (4) Plan (1) Till (1)	Greetings and introducing yourself (5)		Allwing us to use the dictionaries in the class (1) More L1(1)

Table 6.1 Questionnaire transcription

6.3 Categorising the Excerpts Taxonomy

The next step was to establish categorisation system to present the questionnaire data. A taxonomy of categorisation was adopted from (Storch, 1989/2002) to identify what kind of learning opportunities are there because it fits my data, in order to categorise the questionnaire data based on specific codes as it is shown below. However, I did not adopt the entire taxonomy of Storch's studies, but its overall skeletal structure and defined each category according to its function.

As it is mentioned above, most of the items claimed to have been learnt were a series of vocabulary (verbs, nouns, adverbs, adjectives with a few of phrases, so I have the first main category (vocabulary) and two separate subcategories, which are meaning and pronunciation/spelling. Under the subcategory of meaning, I have two sub subcategories (words and phrases)

For example, regarding the pronunciation/spelling subcategory, some students wrote in front of the word whether it is spelling or pronunciation, which they learnt about this word. In other words, in the slot of vocab, which was confusing in the first classes, I asked the students to put the abbreviation of (pro) and (spell). Sometimes I can also identify from the transcript whether it is spelling, pronunciation or meaning. Nevertheless, sometimes it is difficult to decide in which category I should put the learning item. There are also other four main categories: grammar, skills / strategies, topic area and others. The difference between vocabulary and grammar are clear and easy to differentiate, while between the skills/strategies and the topic area is not very clear, as the boundaries between these two points are generally blur and fuzzy. Therefore, I decided that if what the students mention under the slot of (ways of using the language) or (ideas of how I can learn better) is so specific to the subject area, so accurate to the current situation or around that topic of that particular lesson, it will be considered as related to the topic area. If it is a skill or strategy related to the ways of using the language in general, it will be considered as skills and strategies. However, the majority of the items mentioned regarding the topic area were too general or just description of today's class, such as mentioning the summary of the lesson for instance 'today we learned about how and why we study syllables in phonetics'.

Hence, the process summarised above offered me first, a detailed script of the twelve audio-recorded classes, then a list of all the learning items claimed to have been encountered and recalled by the students from these lessons. The items under investigation were located in their episodes with their locations in the twelve transcribed

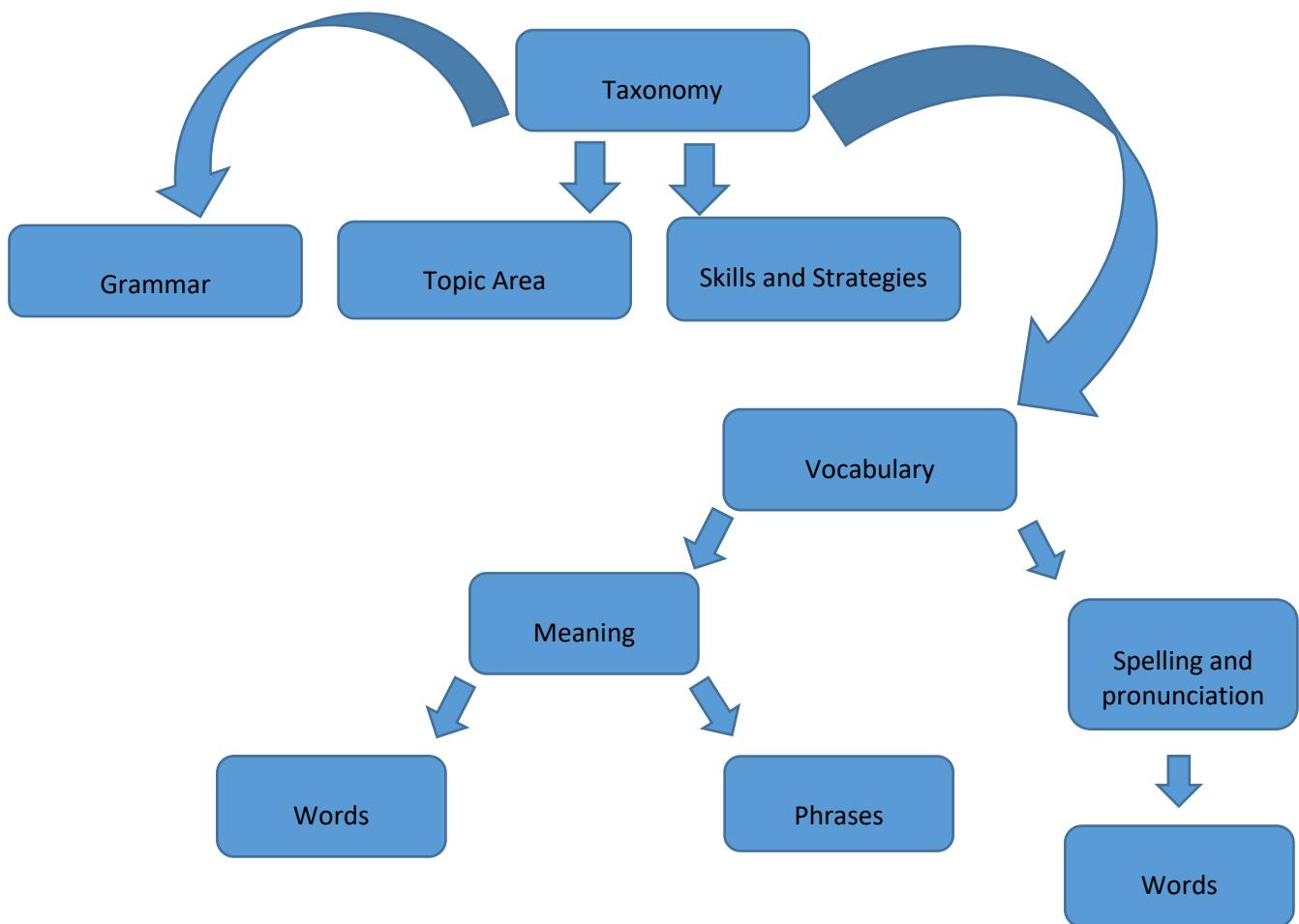
lessons as well as the numbers of the students recalled them. As a result, one episode for each learning reported item in the questionnaire.

However, it might not be possible to present all the episodes in this research, but the decision about which excerpts should be included in the analysis of this research and be the representatives of LOE (Learning Opportunity Episodes) was made upon the top recalled episodes. In other words, to avoid being cherry picking of the episodes, the representative episodes in this research will be the top recalled by the students because as it was mentioned above, choosing the episodes was led by the students.

In the following section, I provide some excerpts from the transcript, which in this research are called 'learning opportunities episodes', that include the learning items mentioned by the students in their report. Every excerpt presented with the number of students recalled the learning item included the number of the class. I also provided brief description for each excerpt to show a link between what the teacher does in the excerpt and what the students recalled in the questionnaire, which is what I am looking to capture in details in the subsequent chapter.

Below is the diagram that shows an overview about the process of categorising the LOEs 'Learning Opportunities Episodes'.

Figure 6.1 Learning Opportunity Episode Taxonomy



Categorising the excerpts taxonomy:

6.3.1 Vocabulary:

Anything appeals to semantics: meaning, synonyms, spelling or pronunciation.

6.3.1.1 Meaning

In this slot, I present examples of the words and phrases that were mentioned by the students in the questionnaire.

6.3.1.1.1 Words:

Excerpt 6.1 Episode (Superstition): mentioned by 7 students (class 2)

359.	T:	Ok so ammm you heard about ghost now we talked about
360.		Ghost do you believe in superstition=
361.	Maha:	=aaa Superstition (3)
362.	Ss:	xxx xxx xxx [xxx xxx xxx xxx xxx
363.	T:	[so? for example don't' aaa I've heard
364.		that from the other group superstition aaa aaa
365.		Don't close the windows at Magreb time {sunset time}
366.		aaa don't set at the [front door as aaa
367.	Hana	[oh yea so xxx xxx=
368.	T:	=do you believe in these things=
369.	Ss:	=No yes yea xxx xxx [xxx
370.	Xs:	[I always [xxx xxx xxx
371.	T:	[ok so? you believe=
372.	Xs:	=yes=
373.	T:	=what other things that you believe in (.) ghosts
374.		Like aaa(4)
375.	Xs:	don't put the cloths in the wardrobe and shut while
376.		Cloths is aaa out outside the aaa [xxx xxx
377.	T:	[why (6)
378.	Xs:	aaa look I would rather not to do this so I avoid
379.		something bad happen to me I don't want to see
380.		ghosts {laughter}=
381.	Ss:	={laughter}=
382.	T:	=why do you do that (1)
383.	Xs:	Aa yes=
384.	T:	=what's the belief=

385.	Xs::	=because aaa negative [aaa xxx negative=
386.	Ss:	[power xxx=
387.	T:	=Negative energy =
388.	Xs:	=because xxx [xxx
389.	T:	So girls do [you believe this as well=
390.	Ss:	[[No no xxx xxx

In this advanced conversation class, the teacher wants the students to bring stories and some beliefs from their real life and to talk about it. In this exchange, the teacher used the word 'superstition' that she heard it from one of the students during a task that the students were asked to do. The teacher divided the students into groups and asked them to write down all kind of things that some people believe in such as ghosts and the other world. In line 360, she mentioned this word and in lines 363, 364, 365 and 367 she offered examples to explain the meaning of this word. Seven students mentioned the word superstition as a new word in the (words and phrases) slot. The teacher is talking about ghosts and the unexplained events that happen in life and then she moved to seek the students' opinions about some beliefs that are common in the Libyan society about this issue. These beliefs are related to the existence of ghosts, so she used the word 'superstition' in line 360 in connection with ghosts. In this line, the teacher opens a question is perceived as display question. One of the students latched turn suggests hesitation 'aaa' and she repeats the same word 'superstition' which gives indication to the teacher that they do not know the meaning of this word as the latter allowed three seconds to the student to continue. However, when the rest of the students starts to make some noise and whisper to each other (field notes, 2016), the teacher in line 363 interrupts them with aloud voice and provides examples in order to clarify the meaning of this word. In line 366, the teacher stopped providing more example because of the overlap that happens in line 367 by Hana, as she interrupts the teacher in order to offer acceptance 'oh yea xxx'. In line 368, the teacher latches turn asking the learners if they believe in these things, but

when some students start talking at the same time, the teacher interrupts with aloud voice to confirm that the answer is yes they do believe in superstition and one of the students latches turn to confirm the acceptance in line 372. The teacher initiates the turn in line 373 by asking the students about other things that they believe about ghosts, yet in this time she allows 4 seconds wait-time in line 374 so that in line 375 and 376 the learner provides longer turn in which she offers another example to show that she understood the meaning of this word. Moreover, the teacher in line 377 initiates another question (why) accompanied by the six seconds of silence, which evoked and promoted long student's turn in lines 278-380. The learner in this turn offers reason why she believes in superstition, yet the teacher continues asking for further justification for believing in these things. The students in line 385 try to provide another reason, which is the negative energy because they knew that the teacher is asking for more reasons and then they went on talking about the opposite opinions, as some of the students do not believe in superstitions. As it can be seen in this episode, the teacher was trying to stimulate students' interaction, which is the aim of this advanced conversation class by making them providing more example about common superstitions in the Libyan society and reasons for believing on such things.

Excerpt 6.2 Episode (ISIS): mentioned by 7 students

1662.	Please (.) make? an eye contact don't forget to
1663.	. smile::: (4) aha . ok today I'm going to talk
1664.	About [aaa
1665.	ss: [{laughter}]
1666.	T: Clear (3) clear?
1667.	ss: Yes=
1668.	T: =aha unless? the topic is very xxx something which
1669.	Is=
1670.	sx: =bad=
1671.	T: =Yes like for example ISIS (2) can you smile when
1672.	you want to talk about ISIS (6)
1673.	داعش و المصايب اللي صايرة توا في
1674.	{ISIS and the current disasters in our
1675.	country} like today {smiling} I'm going to Talk
1676.	about the bad situation in Libya=
1677.	ss: ={laughter}(1)
1678.	T: Ok do not smile when you are talking about such
1679.	about these topics Clear? (2) or today I'm going
1680.	to:: {smiling} talk about ISIS=
1681.	ss: ={laughter}=

In the above extract, which is taken from presentation skills class, the teacher was providing the students some advices regarding eye contact and smiling which are also part of assessment criteria of presentation skills' module. The teacher here tells students to make eye contact and to smile at the audience during the presentation. Then, in line 1668, the teacher alerts the students to some situations when they should not smile if they want to talk about some topic regarding the current political situation in Libya. The teacher uses the current issue of ISIS as an example of such these topics that the students should not smile if they choose to talk about it in their presentations. Seven students recalled the word ISIS as an equivalent for the Arabic word 'Daesh' "داعش" (abbreviation for terrorist groups called themselves the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria) as a new learning item for them. The teacher in lines 1671 and 1672 uses the word ISIS as he thought that it is a very well known word as Libya is severely suffers from this terrorist group after 2011. Yet, after six seconds of silence, the teacher recognises from the students' facial expressions that some of them do not understand the word ISIS. Therefore, in lines 1673 and 1674, the teacher uses L1 to provide the Arabic equivalence 'Daesh' 'داعش' to the word 'ISIS' and he puts it in a sentence to indicate that it is one of the disasters that the country severely suffers from them.

Excerpt 6.3 Episode (compulsory): mentioned by 9 students (class 2)

594.	T:	Ok? (.) art and music should be compulsory in
595.		Schools do you agree that side disagree this
596.		Side here so (5)
597.	ss:	{students moving from their desks}
598.	Salma:	if optional to:: if we are choose=
599.	T:	=if these subjects should be main ones(2)
600.	Maha:	is like mathematics and and=
601.	T:	=when you must study art like history aaa art
602.		and music In schools (.) right?=
603.	Ss:	=[[yeah xxx [xxx
604.	T:	[moving moving ok so you got a few
605.		more you can use the side chairs (3) so
606.		disagreeing and Agreeing (3) why it's not
607.		important to study Music you shouldn't shouldn't
608.		music (.) study art or:: (2)
609.	Maha:	in my opinion we must aaa study art and music
610.		because they are important in life (.)

611.	T:	why (1)
612.	Maha	it help us to be creative and we [can xxx
613.	Ss:	[[it xxx [xxx
614.	Fatima:	[it
615.		xxx help us aaa to feel relaxing[xxx
616.	Siham	[I don't feel
617.		relax if I study are {laughter}
618.	ss:	{laughter} xxx xxx xxx (1)
619.	Areej:	me I don't choose art or music because I don't
620.		talent (1)
621.	T:	maybe you don't need to have talent to study
622.		them=
623.	Areej:	=anyway not choose them {laughter}
624.	T:	but if it's not optional if it's <u>compu::lsory</u>
625.		you must study them=
626.	ss:	[[ooh xxx yeah xxx=
627.	Fatima:	=they should be compulsory from primary school=
628.	T:	why from primary (.)
629.	Fatima:	very important for children brain to imagine and
630.		think in the [xxx xxx xxx
631.	Hana:	[I think it can't be compulsory
632.		the first reason is because we are Muslims and
633.		music is haram it's not appropriate for us=
634.	ss:	=[[haram no xxx [xxx xxx
635.	Hana:	[no obedience? for the haram
636.		xxx=
637.	Maha:	=then why you use music in your phone=
638.	Hana:	=it's not music its aaa phone ringing xxx
639.	ss:	[[{laughter} no?[xxx xxx music xxx xxx xxx
640.	T:	[ok ok girls {banging the table}
641.		ok ok ok let's not talk about this point coz
642.		there are different opinions about the religious
643.		side so Marwa (.)Fatima said you think
644.		that art and music help the growing of children
645.		brains what do you think(2)
646.	Marwa:	yes art is to improve your talent or something
647.		maybe art is yeaa=
648.	Xs:	=yes it is a talent so even if I study it
649.		And I don't have talent in art or music I
650.		won't improve anyway so why study

This episode starts when the teacher asks students to be divided into two groups (agreeing and disagreeing). In this advanced conversation class, the teacher writes a sentence about particular topic on the board, and asks students to give their opinions regarding this topic. The topic of this episode is whether art and music should be compulsory in schools. In line 598, Salma initiates a turn seeking for a confirmation, as she is not sure that she understood the meaning of the sentence. The teacher recognised that Salma is asking about the

meaning of compulsory so the former latches a turn in line 599 explaining the meaning of this word in this sentence. Maha in line 600 provides an example about what the teacher said indicating that she understood the word compulsory. The teacher continues paraphrasing the sentence in lines 601 and 602 to make sure that everyone understands the sentence so that they can participate in this activity. Maha, which is in agreeing group, in lines 609 and 610 starts the activity by offering her opinion and saying that it is important to study art and music and the teacher in line 611 asks her to justify this importance to extend her answer.

Maha responds to the teacher in line 612 by giving one reason for studying these subjects, which is 'help us to be creative'. However, as it can be seen from the overlap in line 613 that some students interrupt Maha trying to take part justifying the importance of studying these subject in schools. Fatima takes the turn in lines 614 and 615 to add new reason, which is art and music help the students to feel relaxed that makes Siham in lines 616 and 617 responds by contradicting what Fatima said as the former is in the group of disagreeing. In lines 619 and 620, Areej provides a reason for not choosing them that she is not talented, and the teacher in lines builds on Areej's turn to explain that she does not have be talented to study music and art. Nevertheless, Areej latches a turn in line 623 to emphasis the disagreeing side that she will not choose to study these subjects even if it is not related to be talented. Here in lines 624 and 625 the teacher comes back to the word 'compulsory' as she recognised that the student did not understand the word 'compulsory' and reemphasises the meaning of this word again.

The students respond to the teacher turn to indicate that they grasped what the teacher said evident in the feedback loop in line 626 'ooh xxx yeah'. Fatima, which is in agreeing group, uses the word in line 627 to offer a suggestion as an indication that she knows the meaning of it, 'they should be compulsory from primary school'. Though asking for a clarification in line 628, the teacher is trying to extend Fatima's turn when the former said 'why from primary'. Fatima responds in lines 629 and 630 by providing a justification of her

suggestion, yet Hana in lines 631-633, which is in disagreeing group, interrupts Fatima to reject being these kind of subjects compulsory in schools as according to her opinion it is 'Haram' (religiously forbidden). When the students in line 634 start to raise their voices denying and refusing Hana's opinion, the latter with aloud voice as well reemphasises her opinion in line 635 'no obedience? for the haram'. Maha latches a turn in line 637 to contradict Hana by initiating a question for her, which is 'then why you use music in your phone', but Hana in line 638 offered an answer that other group even some member of disagreeing group did not like it. When the students start arguing altogether with aloud voice in line 639, the teacher interrupted them as it can be seen in line 640 and by banging on the table. She was trying to bring silence to the class, as the teacher does not want the conversation to be diverted to a religious discussion. This shows the teacher-led nature of this classroom so that the teacher is the leader and although the interaction in this class is conversational; the teacher can lead, and determine who and what is talked about. Marwa after being asked to participate by the teacher in line 646, starts providing other reasons for the music and art should be compulsory in schools.

6.3.1.1.2 Phrases:

Excerpt 6.4 Episode (Back up): mentioned by 8 students (class 1)

201.	T:	so (.) you must? Have backup (1) plan (.) ok (.)
202.		Why you spend all this time preparing all these
203.		Slides and visual aids why (1)cause you know that
204.		These? (.) will help you (.) to give your
205.		Presentation in a good way if don't do thi::s
206.		{pointing to the flash} so you xxx need this (.)
207.		Right (1) ahaa? (.)
208.	ss	[[yeah=
209.	T:	=ok so you have to have a backup plan (.) so
210.		what's a backup plan (2)ahaah? for example(3)
211.	Maha:	To aaa (2)
212.	T:	to bring for example another flash you're your
213.		flash Xxx check? Your [flash before
214.	Ss:	[before you come xxx xxx=
215.	T:	=yeah check your laptop before you come (.) ahaa=
216.	Sommia:	=to printing your slides(2)
217.	T:	yeah ahaa you must do all of these things (.) you
218.		know if you have CD (Check it is not affected by
219.		virus so always duplicate all the materials that
220.		you can not work Without them (.) clear ahaa=
221.	Ss:	=yeah (.)

222.	T:	Ok (.) 2 years ago I went to present my paper in a
223.		Conference so (.) what did I do. I saved my
224.		presentation in five places (.)
225.	Ss:	xxx five=
226.	T:	=five ok (.) 2 flash memories (.) my laptop (.) I
227.		Send my presentation to my email and I gave one to
228.		my you see [Friend (2)
229.	Ss:	[xxx oh xxx waw {laughter}(2)
230.	Maha:	the conference aaa here in Libya (2)
231.	T:	yes in Libya in postgraduate academy (1)
232.	Maha:	so you should have another backup plan {laughter}
233.		print handouts (.) you know the 'electric'
234.		and internet coverage is disaster =
235.	ss:	={laughter} (.)
236.	T:	oh yeah disaster you see it is really something to
237.		always think about it in Libya yea you are right
238.		and even if there is electricity maybe there is no
239.		internet so no access to your email {laughter}(..)
240.		so (.)another thing to do is to (.) ahaa? (1)
241.	ss:	[[xxx xxx to print handouts (.)
242.	T:	Ok (.)yeah so because if you lost your file what
243.		you or there is no electricity and don't have
244.		handouts what will do (.) I just stand in front of
245.		the audience {laughter} I'm here good morning? And
246.		give just bla bla bla=
247.	Ss:	=yea xxx {laughter} (.)

In this episode, the teacher initiates the turn and makes a new phase with the discourse marker 'so' in line 201 telling the students to have a backup plan as one of the skills in preparing the presentation. Opening a new exchange with this discourse marker typically occurs so often and frequently in all classrooms around the world. The teacher comes back to the phrase back up, and initiates a question in lines 209 and 210. He allows 2-second wait-time in line 210 then uses the discourse marker 'ahaa', which was mentioned in the focus group by the students, is that whenever they hear this discourse marker they know that they have to provide an answer. Therefore, the teacher uses it to encourage the students to say what is backup plan and offering example about it. Even after 3 seconds of silence in line 210, the students could not answer the teacher's question, which made the teacher thinks that the students do not understand what does 'back up' means. Therefore,

in lines 212 and 215, the teacher offers an example about the phrase, and encourages the students to offer other examples by the use of 'ahaa again. This discourse marker prompts the students response (R) in line 216 when Sommia latches turn offering another example of a backup plan, which it seems that it has been accepted as an example by the teacher indicating by the discourse marker 'yeah' in line 217. By the use of DM 'ok', the teacher starts a new phase which telling them what he personally did when he presented a paper in a conference. The latter explained about saving the presentation slides in five places as a backup plan, yet he did not mention printing the slides. This is why Maha in line 230 first asks about the location of the conference whether it is in Libya. In response to the student's opening turn or initiation (I), the teacher confirms the place in line 231. Then, Maha comes back to the point referred by Sommia in line 216, which is having printed copies of the presentation's slides. Here Maha makes a link between the current situation in Libya due to the conflict and a serious electricity shortage so that having printed handouts is an important backup plan. She reminds the teacher by using the DM 'you know' the shortage of the electricity resulted to the shortage of the internet in Libya in lines 232-234 as a reason behind the necessity of having printed handouts. The teacher builds on the student's turn in (lines 236-240) to which the former offers a preferred (agreeing) response by the use of the discourse marker 'yeah' and the repetition of the word disaster in line 236. Then, the teacher continues to confirm what Maha has turned his attention to and highlights the importance of having printed handouts of the presentation slides as an example of backup plans in preparing for presentation.

Excerpt 6.5 Episode (Pop in): mentioned by 5 students (class 8)

653.	T:	Nermeen? Listen to others ok=
654.	Ss:	=[[I xxx xxx [xxx xxx xxx xxx
655.	T:	[Ok xxx xxx xxx xxx finish
656.	Xs:	No I don't get my=
657.	T:	=discussing yea that's why so that's why
658.		I'm asking you to:::?: when I call a name
659.		{shouting} When I call a name when I call a name
660.		(.)can you just please listen to each other
661.		don't just? (.) pop in ok don't [xxx
662.	Xs:	[can I? say
663.		Something=
664.	T:	= no? because aaaa Rehab is going to talk
665.		right now (.) so Rehab first (1)

666.	Rehab:	Both of them I think so art and music is
667.		Important for some students who those have
668.		A talent to imrove it and don't know about
669.		Xxx like even if the signing or xxx [or
670.	Xs:	[or
671.		Drawing [xxx
672.	T:	[Sunsus? Sunsus then Maha (42:50)
673.		Nermeen she is responding to you ok?

This example from the advanced conversation class and the task was to use the agreement / disagreement's phrases to give opinions about a topic chose by the teacher. The topic in this example is agree or disagree that art and music subjects should be compulsory in schools. As this topic is so controversial these days in Libya, so the students had an argument instead of discussion. Normally the teacher calls on names of the students and choose which student has to reply. In this topic, the students interrupted each other and talked together at the same time so it became difficult to hear which one is talking. Here the teacher interfered in line 661 with angry voice to ask the students to stop talking without being called or nominated. The teacher used the phrase 'pop in' to ask the students not to start talking with being nominated by her. Five students reported this phrase in the questionnaire.

6.3.1.2 Spelling and pronunciation

Excerpt 6.6 Episode (Violence): mentioned by 3 students (class 8)

80.	T:	Ammm sometimes violence is necessary [some
81.	Ss:	[ooh
82.	T:	Times violence is necessary if you agree=
83.	xs:	=no=
84.	T:	=if you disagree=
85.	Ss:	Xxx xxxx xxx [xxx xxx
86.	T:	[if you [disagree

87.	Xs:	[what's the meaning of
88.		'Vilence' (.)
89.	T:	Vio::lence V? I O L E N C E=
90.	Xs:	=عنف{violence}=
91.	T:	=عنف{violence} but also all types of aaa aaa
92.		عنف{violence} ok all types of violence=
93.	Xs:	Ahaa=
94.	T:	Shouting? (.) hitting (.) fighting aaaa
95.		Like everything all types of violence so
96.		Even me shouting at you and kicking you out
97.		Is a violence if you agree there if you
98.		Agree move

First, deciding to put this learning item under the spelling and the pronunciation category was a bit confusing. This because three students reported the word 'violence' as a new word for the and with the Arabic equivalence, but five students reported spelling and pronunciation in front of this word in the questionnaire. The topic of this excerpt is 'sometimes violence is necessary'. The students were asked by the teacher to have a discussion about his point whether they agree or disagree and providing reasons as well for their positions. In line 87, one of the students asked the teacher about the meaning of this word '[what's the meaning of vilence]'. The teacher first offered the right pronunciation and then she spelled out the word loudly in the correct way, after that, one of the students offered the translation of this word into Arabic. To reassuring that the students understood the word violence, the teacher gave examples of all types of violence as the word in Arabic indicates physical violence.

6.3.2 Grammar:

Anything referred to grammatical accuracy, syntax, or rules.

Excerpt 6.7 Episode (I have finished): mentioned by 16 students (class 5)

699.	Fatima:	ok teacher I'm finished=
700.	T:	=no (2)that's wrong don't say I'm finished I'm
701.		شن معناها

702.		معناها انى انتهيت خلاص انى متن {means what}
703.		means I'm finished means I'm died} [completely
704.	ss:	[{laughter}
705.	T:	لازم تستخدوا فعل ميت؟ {dead} finish {you must use
706.		a verb}=
707.	Fatima:	=I did finish (1)
708.	T:	we need another auxiliary verb not did (2)
709.		فعل بدل على التصرف الثالث (2) {verb indicates
710.		third past participant}
711.	ss:	[[have xxx have finished {xxx
712.	T:	{pointing to the same student who said the sentence} Fatima (1) aha=
713.		
714.	Fatima	=I have finished=
715.	T:	I? have <u>finished</u> yea (1) انى كملت or you can
716.		say I finished ok please not I'm finished?
717.		{laughter}
718.	ss:	{laughter}

This exchange starts with the student's turn telling the teacher that she is finished. In this part of the phonetics lesson, the teacher asks the students to copy some words from the board in order to transcribe and identify how many syllables each word has. When the student finished the task, she raised her hand to inform the teacher that she has finished the task 'ok teacher I'm finished', as it can be seen in line 699. The teacher in lines 700-703 provides an explanation why they should not use this grammatical structure when they want to say that they finished the task. In line 714 and 715, the teacher, confirming the student's answer, offered the right tense or the right grammatical structure that the students should use in such a situation. The number of the students that recalled this grammatical structure is sixteens students, some of them wrote the two meanings of both structures (I'm finished and I have finished) and some them just wrote these two structure without offering the meaning or explanation of using them. In this extract in which the student produces a wrong answer 'I'm finished' in (line 699), the teacher first produces a strong unmitigated repair in the L2 'no (0.2) 'that's wrong' (line 700). Then, he provides the Arabic meaning of the sentence used by the student followed by English explanation in

lines 701-703. Then the teacher gives a metalanguage prompt in the L2 explaining how the required response would need an auxiliary verb in line 708, since Fatima suggested another auxiliary line 707, which is the one intended by the teacher. The teacher initiates another repair by switching to Arabic in line 709. The learners follow in the L2 producing the correct answer in line 711. However, the teacher pointed to Fatima to hear the answer from her, as he wants to make sure that she recalled the intended structure that he wants them to use as it can be seen in lines 712 and 713. The teacher repeats her answer in the L2 followed by an Arabic equivalent lines 715 and 716.

Excerpt 6.8 Episode (Putting adjective before the noun): mentioned by 4 students (class 7)

1201	T:	wh::y (5) because the sky is high or just that's
1202		it (2) why we need to study the syllables? aha (.)
1203	Seham	because it helps us reading the words=
1204	T:	it helps to:: aha (.)
1205	ss:	reading the words (3)
1206	T:	it helps to:: (2) hello? (2)
1207	ss:	to say the words xxx easily (3)
1208	T:	why? (3)
1209	Hana:	to say the words [xxx
1210	T:	[why do we need to study the
1211		syllable (4)
1212	Fatima	to read the long words (2)
1213	T:	to be able to read the long words (3) ok what
1214		about this word {writing on the board} (7)
1215	T:	ad (1)
1216	ss:	ad jec tive xxx xxx adjective=
1217	T:	so it is like? Aha (.)
1218	xs:	Mona beautiful =
1219	T:	=how many syllable are there ad jec tive
1220	ss:	[[three three=
1221	T:	=three (1) or two (.)
1222	ss:	three two two three xxx xxx [xxx
1223	T:	is it ad jective or ad jec tive (.)
1224	ss:	ad jective xxx xxx two two=
1225	T:	=how did you know (.)
1226	ss:	because aaa ad jective so two xxx [xxx
1227	T:	[again again xxx
1228		[ad? Jec? Tive
1229	ss:	[ad jec tive xxx three three xxx=
1230	T:	=aha so (.)
1231	ss:	three syllables {laughter}

1232	Mona:	mona beau ti ful {laughter} so is three here (2)
1233	T:	oh yes three syllable very good but be careful
1234		{never put the الاسم بعده المفعولة عرکم ما تھطوا}
1235		adjective after the noun} so beautiful Mona you
1236		see here so the syllables helped you in
1237		reading the word adjective

This excerpt starts by the teacher asking the students a question in line 1201 and 1202, which is ‘why we need to study the syllables’. When one of the students provided the answer ‘because it helps us reading the words’, the teacher wrote the word ‘adjective’ on the board, the students were trying to pronounce the word according to how many syllables does this word has as in line 1216. However, when the teacher said ‘so it is like? Aha’, the student thought that the teacher wants them to give an example about the adjective so she said ‘Mona beautiful’ in line 1232. The teacher came back to this example in line 1233-1235 and warned the students not to put the adjective after the noun in by using the L1 and by reformulating the student’s sentence ‘so beautiful Mona’. Four students mentioned this grammar rule in the questionnaire, one of them in Arabic and three wrote it in English.

6.3.3 Topic area:

Anything related to the specific topic of the class and has the sense of accuracy, which has salience because of the current situation

Excerpt 6.9 Episode (Making attractive start): mentioned by 5 students (class 4)

65	T:	Lets move to the other point lets move to the next
66		Point which is how can can I start how can give an
67		Effective opening you have three ways number one?
68		Ask a rhetorical question oh . what's a rhetorical
69		Question what does it mean (2) when you ask the
70		Question and you are not expected to answer
71	Ss:	[[Answer yea xxx xxx (3)
72	T:	For example (.) do you know what's euphemism (3) ha
73		Do you know what's euphemism (3) [ok (.)
74	Ss:	[xxx xxx

75	T:	Ah=
76	Hana:	=yea I got it=
77	T:	Do you know what's euphemism=
78	Hana:	No I don't know what you're talking [about
79	T:	[ha you don't
80		Know today we will talk about [and then you xxx xxx
81	Xs:	[xxx xxx
82	T:	Now let me start by introducing or defining the
83		Word or the term euphemism you know the word
84		euphemism you don't know euphemism
85	Xs:	No xxx xxx=
86	T:	=aa euphemism is the way how do we use the language
87		Politely {لِبَاقَةٌ وَ حُسْنٌ تَصْرِيفٌ} tact and good
88		manners}=
89	Ss:	=Oh yea xxx mmm
90	T:	{tact and good manners} ok (.) so I'm going to
91		about something which is (.) which is new or which
92		Is by xxx you are not familiar with (.) ok you are
93		Not familiar with this thing for example and that's
94		Why I'm presenting clear (.) ok so I'm asking? The
95		Question and yes I'm not expecting ha? (.)
96	Hana:	An answer=
97	T:	=an answer this is what does it mean by rhetorical
98		Question [so xxx
99	Hana:	Audience will [be exited
100	T:	[so you need (.) yea you need to ask
101	T:	Question and wait a second for answer (3)
102	Xs:	Yes:::(2)
103	T:	If she couldn't find the answer then you start xxx
104		I'm actually not expecting you to answer (4) على
105		فكرة {by the way} euphemism {is} as I told you is s
106		Proper language is a proper language and it it's
107		The beautiful side of the language the beautiful
108		side of the language for example instead of saying
109		For example my friend aaa died or something like
110		رحمه الله اختاره الله This so you say she[passed away لكن
111	Xs:	[passed away
112	T:	?مش مات؟ {God have mercy on him Gog chose him but
113		not died?}=
114	Ss:	={laughter}
115	Hana:	This is scary {laughter}=
116	T:	=ok yea so making attractive clear? (.)
117	Ss:	yea

One of the presentation's skills that the teacher intended to teach the students is how to make attractive start. In this example, the teacher in lines 67 and 68 suggests that one way of making attractive start in the presentation is to ask a rhetorical question as he did exactly in line 72, as he did not expect the students to know what does the word 'euphemism' means. The teacher first explained about this word in English in line 86 and then he offered the Arabic translation of this word in line 87. Then he came back in line 97 to the idea of asking a rhetorical question as a way of making an attractive start in doing presentation. In the slot of 'ways of using the language' in the questionnaire. Two of them added the example of rhetorical question to the phrase; one student wrote the word 'euphemism' with the phrase, while two students wrote only 'making attractive start'. In total five students mentioned this phrase.

6.3.4 Skills and Strategies:

Anything referred to the ways of using the language.

Excerpt 6.10 Episode (Summarising long sentences into three words): mentioned by 8 students (class 8)

982.	T:	Per one point (.) yea one point three
983.		To seven words (.) look at this how many words do
984.		We have here {writing on the board}(6)
985.	ss:	Xxx one two three [four
986.	T:	[look at this for example (.)
987.		Aha=
988.	Sx:	=Aa five=
989.	T:	=One two three four five (.) simple yea (.) aha
990.		Less than seven yea (.) less than seven (.) look
991.		At this (2) aha should be able to read everything
992.		From the backward (.) can you can you reduce the
993.		Number of these words (3) can you reduce the
994.		Number of this (2)
995.	ss:	yea (.)
996.	T:	The first one [the first point Should be able to
997.	ss:	[yea yea
998.	T:	read everything from yes from the back (.)
999.	ss:	[[yes Xxx on xxx three words=

1000	T:	=will (.) these words yea (.) can you reduce them
1001		to two words (4)
1002	Sana	Aaa it should be::=
1003	Hana	=not complicated=
1004	T:	=the opposite? (1)
1005	Hana	simple=
1006	T:	aha that's one aha? (.)
1007	sx:	obvious=
1008	T:	=think of another one {moving his hands right and left to mean it's almost the word}
1009		
1010	Sx:	=clear=
1011	T:	=yess clear and (.) s
1012	ss:	[[simple=
1013	sx:	=[it should be clear and
1014	T:	Aha and aha what do you think Fatima Mawada (1)
1015	xs:	=aaa
1016	Ss:	=Xxx [[clear [and simple xxx (2)
1017	T:	[aha
1018	ss:	[[clear and simple=
1019	T:	=another word? (3)
1020	mawa da	aaa short (.)
1021	T:	yes (1) so the sentence should be short (.) clear
1022		and ss=
1023	ss:	=simple=
1024		exactly can you do this [yea you can
1025	ss:	[yea yea=

This extract also was taken from the presentation skills class. The teacher was emphasising the idea of not to write so many words in the slides so that only three to seven words per point in lines 982 and 983. In this example. He gave the students long sentence and asked them to reduce the number of the words into only two words 'can you reduce them to two words'. Finally, the students in line 1008 summarised the sentence 'don't use long and complicated sentences' to be 'clear [and simple'. Eight of The students reported this as a skill in the slot of ways of using the language as 'summarising long sentences'.

In this extract, the teacher was insisting the students to use short number of words in each sentence per slide when they do their presentations, as it was one of the criteria of presentation skills module, is not to use long sentences in slides. The teacher starts by writing a sentence on the board and asking students to count the words of this sentence in lines 982-984. The sentence is 'don't use long and complicated sentences'. The students start to count the words as we can see in lines 985 and 988. In line 989, the teacher counts

with the students and he tells the students that this sentence is less than even seven words and before he asks the students what he wants them to do, he makes sure that the students at the back can read the sentence in the board in line 991. Of note, here in lines 992-994 is the use of display question where the teacher knows the answer of this question (see section 3.1.2.3 for definitions and details). Followed by two seconds of wait-time in line 994, the students in line 995 confirm that they know how to do it. Again, in lines 996 and 998 and the teacher tries to engage all the students in this discussion as he keeps asking the students in the back whether they are able to read the sentence in the board. In turn 999 the students confirm that they can see the sentence and they repeat the number of words that this sentence should be reduced to, in a way to indicate that they are following the task and they know what the teacher asks them to do. The teacher latches turn in line 1000 by using the discourse marker ‘=will’ , now according to Walsh and Li (2013), the use of the discourse marker (well) has a number of functions in classroom discourse: it may serve to get attention, to show a dispreferred response, to maintain face, to indicate some kind of hesitation, etc. Here, it serves the very important purpose of creating ‘shared space’ (Walsh, Morton, O’Keeffe, 2011). Hence, in lines 1000 and 1001, the teacher tries to engage all the students in doing this task, asks them again if they can reduce the sentence into three words. As we can see here, using questions appeared to play an important role in triggering other students to contribute by trying to identify the words that can be used. Furthermore, Anton and DiCamilla, (1999), highlight that through questioning, we invite the other listener (in this context the learners) to participate actively in the task. Sana’s response in line 1002 is preceded by a 4-seconds and the hesitation marker ‘aaa’, when she starts to paraphrase the sentence written on the board; yet, Hana latches a turn in line 1003 by putting the word ‘not’ in front of ‘complicated’, but she had interrupted by the teacher in line 1004 indicating by the latches. This because the teacher recognized that Hana will use the same words in the sentence and the former wants the students use other words not those in the sentence. Therefore, the teacher is trying to elicit the others words that are opposite to ‘complicated’ and ‘long’ in order to paraphrase the sentence written

on the board. Hence, in lines 1004, 1006, 1008-1009, 1011, 1014 and 1019, the teacher by the use of display questions was guiding the students to find out the proper words that they can use them to rephrase the sentence.

6.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have presented an analysis of the data derived from two instruments, which are the questionnaire data set and transcriptions of the recorded classroom data set in order to answer the RQ 1. However, this chapter as mentioned above is generally descriptive, as it draws on an overall picture of what is in the classroom process that seems to be memorable, recalled, and significant in some ways for the students. In other words, these questionnaires were coded and analysed to access and see what kind of learning opportunities that arise in the classroom, which the students were able to remember and recall them in the questionnaire. Means, when the student recalls something from the class and reports it in the questionnaire, I construct this as a learning opportunity.

These learning items in the questionnaire were tracked back in the classroom transcription to see what is in the transcription data that connects with the recall data. Then to see in the subsequent chapter if there are relationships between recalling these learning opportunities and the discourse features of teacher talk. Moreover, the questionnaire data in this research, shows only a sample of what the students can recall from the class but it does not mean that this is all what they can recall. It might be not comprehensive, yet it offers us some insights or understanding of what they are noticing and taking from the lesson which shows in some ways how the students construct learning opportunities.

Two interesting points arose from the analysis of this chapter that attesting some of the complexity of the real practice of classroom interaction. First, as mentioned before that one of the classes (the conversation class) observed in this study was more verbally interactive than the other classes (phonetics and presentation skills classes). In the analysis, I focused on seeing whether the surface level variations of classroom verbal interaction can make any differences in the students' recall or affect the construction of learning opportunities. Findings reveal that the number of the recalled learning items in the classes

(4, 5, 6, 7 and 10), which are more teacher fronted and have more teacher talk and less students talk, was more than the number of those that were more students-centred and have more students' talk (classes 2, 3, 8, 9, 11 and 12) (see table 6.1 section 6.2). This result goes in line with Slimani (1989) and Dobinson (2001) in terms of looking at the relationship between students' verbal interaction and learning opportunities. Both of these studies claim that it was not necessary for some of students to take part in the verbal interaction (overt participation) to be successful in recalling new learning items from the lesson. Furthermore, they argue that covert participation in the classroom interaction sometimes seemed more effective than overt participation in assisting the recall of these learning items. However, unlike both of the above mentioned studies, this study does not aim to track the students' uptake or the learning of each individual learner.

The second issue revealed by the findings of this chapter is that there are some recalled items occur in more than one episodes of various length existing in different parts of the transcript. Moreover, while most of the items were tracked back in the transcription of the recorded classrooms, a few were found in the field notes, and some were found in the course materials and textbooks. Nonetheless, a few are not found at all in the transcripts. Some of these items that are found in my field notes as they were written on the board is like the example of the word 'local', which mentioned by three students in the questionnaire. The teacher wrote this word in the board and he went back to the board and drew two lines under it, touched and tapped onto the board, but nothing said about this word. However, given that a few are not found at all in the transcripts, field notes and course materials, one can suggest or assume that the only explanation for their existence in the (students recall questionnaire) might be that what went on during the lessons reinforced maybe some previous learning and thought those particular back to the learners' mind.

In the next chapter, I would like to focus in detail on some of the learning opportunity episodes that some were mentioned in this chapter and some are not, to find out if there

is a relationship between some discourse features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunity. I would also refer to the focus group and field notes datasets in order to supplement the classroom observation data.

Chapter 7 Connections between Teacher Talk and Learning Opportunity

7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter, in which the questionnaire findings were analysed and discussed, has addressed the study's first research question on what kind of learning opportunities the students construct from the teacher talk and the interaction around in the real practice of second language classroom. Therefore, a list was made for all the learning items that have been recalled in the questionnaire by the students. Then, I located these recalled learning items in the discourse (the transcription of the recorded classes) in order to illustrate them as learning opportunity episodes. However, as was mentioned in the previous chapter, that it was not possible to analyse and discuss all the learning opportunity episodes in this study, so I decided to include the top recalled episodes. In this chapter, I look in detail at some discourse features of teacher talk in these learning opportunities episodes to find out what made the recalling items (questionnaire data set) salient to the students. This analysis aims at examining the second research question:

RQ 2 What is the relationship between features of teacher talk and the experience of learning opportunity?

In this chapter, I present also the analysis of the focus group and field notes that are related to the specific excerpts presented in this chapter. My aim is to complement the classroom observation data with for example the non-verbal data such as body language including gestures, which is not evident in the audio-data. The endeavour behind this is not just simply to describe classroom interaction, but more importantly; a fine-grained and detailed analysis of micro-contexts of these episodes accompanied with focus group and field notes data so that it might offer us unique insights into the relationship between what teachers teach and what learners learn. This might be achieved by looking at the moment-by-moment management of topics and turns in the interaction or the discourse. Therefore, the answer of this research question aims to contribute to our understanding of how

teachers through their classroom talk create learning opportunities for students in language classrooms so that the focus is more about the teaching rather than the learning itself. Thus, what follows in this chapter is the analysis and the discussion of some of these features of teacher talk and language use mentioned previously in chapter two, which contribute to the construction of learning opportunities and learners involvement.

7.2 Extended wait-time

Below is the transcript of the first episode that includes the word (Superstition), which mentioned by 7 students in the questionnaire. In this excerpt, I discuss one of the discourse features of teacher talk, which is the extended wait time and how this feature might affect the construction of learning opportunity in language classroom. As mentioned in chapter 2 the extended wait-time is the amount of time a teacher waits after asking a question before getting a response. Typically, it is very short, even less than a second. Thornbury found that even slight increase in wait-time results in an increase in the quantity and the quality of learner contributions and an increase in the number of learner questions (Thornbury, 1996)

Excerpt 7.1 Episode (Superstition): mentioned by 7 students (class 2)

391.	T:	Ok so ammm you heard about ghost now we talked about
392.		Ghost do you believe in superstition=
393.	Maha:	=aaa Superstition (3)
394.	Ss:	xxx xxx xxx [xxx xxx xxx xxx xxx
395.	T:	[so? for example don't' aaa I've heard
396.		that from the other group superstition aaa aaa
397.		Don't close the windows at Magreb time {sunset time}
398.		aaa don't set at the [front door as aaa
399.	Hana	[oh yea so xxx xxx=
400.	T:	=do you believe in these things=
401.	Ss:	=No yes yea xxx xxx [xxx

402.	Xs:	[I always [xxx xxx xxx
403.	T:	[ok so? you believe=
404.	Xs:	=yes=
405.	T:	=what other things that you believe in (.) ghosts
406.		Like aaa(4)
407.	Xs:	don't put the cloths in the wardrobe and shut while
408.		Cloths is aaa out outside the aaa [xxx xxx
409.	T:	[why (6)
410.	Xs:	aaa look I would rather not to do this so I avoid
411.		something bad happen to me I don't want to see
412.		ghosts {laughter}=
413.	Ss:	={laughter}=
414.	T:	=why do you do that (1)
415.	Xs:	Aa yes=
416.	T:	=what's the belief=
417.	Xs::	=because aaa negative [aaa xxx negative=
418.	Ss:	[power xxx=
419.	T:	=Negative energy =
420.	Xs:	=because xxx [xxx
421.	T:	So girls do [you believe this as well=
422.	Ss:	[[No no xxx xxx

This excerpt is taken from the advanced conversation class where the teacher is talking about ghosts and the unexplained events that happen in life and then she moved to seek the students' opinions about some beliefs that are common in the Libyan society about this issue. These beliefs are related to the existence of ghosts, so she used the word 'superstition' in line 360 in connection with ghosts. In this line, the teacher opens a question is perceived as display question. One of the students latched turn suggests hesitation 'aaa' and she repeats the same word 'superstition' which gives indication to the teacher that they do not know the meaning of this word as the latter allowed three seconds to the student to continue. However, when the rest of the students starts to make some noise and whisper to each other (field notes, 2016), the teacher in line 363 interrupts them

with aloud voice and provides examples in order to clarify the meaning of this word. In line 366, the teacher stopped providing more example because of the overlap that happens in line 367 by Hana, as she interrupts the teacher in order to offer acceptance 'oh yea xxx'. In line 368, the teacher latches turn asking the learners if they believe in these things, but when some students start talking at the same time, the teacher interrupts with aloud voice to confirm that the answer is yes they do believe in superstition and one of the students latches turn to confirm the acceptance in line 372. The teacher initiates the turn in line 373 by asking the students about other things that they believe about ghosts, yet in this time she allows 4 seconds wait-time in line 374 so that in line 375 and 376 the learner provides longer turn in which she offers another example to show that she understood the meaning of this word. Moreover, the teacher in line 377 initiates another question (why) accompanied by the six seconds of silence, which evoked and promoted long student's turn in lines 278-380. The learner in this turn offers reason why she believes in superstition, yet the teacher continues asking for further justification for believing in these things. The students in line 385 try to provide another reason, which is the negative energy because they knew that the teacher is asking for more reasons and then they went on talking about the opposite opinions, as some of the students do not believe in superstitions. As it can be seen in this episode, the teacher was trying to stimulate students' interaction, which is the aim of this advanced conversation class by making them providing more example about common superstitions in the Libyan society and reasons for believing on such things.

The 4 and 6 seconds of silence in line 374 and 377 respectively considered to be unusual as the average wait-time that teachers allow in classroom is about one second Walsh (2011). Therefore, allowing this wait-time in this excerpt contributes in eliciting longer and fuller responses from the students and in promoting more engaged interaction, which might be the reason for making the salience of this word to the students. Moreover, the extended wait-time as a micro-feature of classroom interaction may allow instances of collaborative learning between the students. This was evident in this excerpt when the students start

talking and whispering to each other about the meaning of superstition line 362, which might demonstrate the value of wait-time as forms of collaboration which occur within wait time, which also highlighted by Walsh (2002; 2011).

In addition, according to some studies such as Nunan (1990), allowing wait time gives the students opportunities to reflect and think before deliver a response. Walsh and Li (2013) also states that the extended wait time can create 'space' in the interaction to allow learners to take a turn-at-talk, allows thinking or rehearsal time, enables learners to reformulate a response and enables turn-taking to be slowed down. This helps to make learners feel more comfortable and less stressed and Increases wait time often results in fuller, more elaborated responses as in lines 378, 379 and 380. However, discussing the idea of the wait-time with Sonya, (the teacher of this class) she reveals that normally she does not allow extended wait time due to the limited time they have in each term, yet looking carefully at the transcription of her classes I found that she does allow wait-time ranging from less than a second to 7 seconds. Sonya notes:

of course I know that it advisable to allow sufficient time for the student after asking questions but as I told you we have only six weeks to cover all this syllabus if I will wait each time I ask question it will be impossible to finish on time and also sometimes silence for some students means time for chat about something outside the class (field notes; March, 2016).

In earlier studies, lengthening wait-time or silence in classroom was considered to be a waste of time because, as this teacher commented, 'time is too precious'. Those studies confirm that teacher do not allow sufficient wait-time owing to a need to cover the syllabus and a fear that silence results in boredom and a loss of pace in the lesson (White and Lightbown 1984, p. 236). Similar reasons were given by teachers in the 1996 study. However, Tsui also reports that while silence is 'not necessarily a bad thing', excessive wait-time can increase learner anxiety (Tsui, 1998, p. 31). This was mentioned as well by some students in the focus group of this study saying that:

when the teacher asks us question and we don't know or are not sure about the answer we hope that she/he doesn't wait for a long time as that put us under stress

and we feel relieved if the teacher starts answering or one of the students answers otherwise the teacher will start call on names (focus Group; March, 2016).

7.3 Teacher Questions

The analysis of this section focuses on finding out if there is a role that teacher questions play in constructing learning opportunity. Questioning, as reviewed by (Chaudron, 1988; Tan, 2000) as typically used by the teachers in language classroom to check comprehension, test, activate learners' response, promote involvement and to elicit response. Question is also found within the three-part sequence (IRF) as teachers normally initiate the turns in classroom by asking questions. As mentioned in chapter 3, in the following section I do not aim to focus on neither the types nor the quantity of the questions asked by the teacher. The focus is on investigating whether there is a relationship between teacher's question and the salience of the students' recalled learning item.

Excerpt 7.2 Episode (Summarising long sentences into three words): mentioned by 8 students (class 8)

1026	T:	Per one point (.) yea one point three
1027		To seven words (.) look at this how many words do
1028		We have here {writing on the board}(6)
1029	ss:	Xxx one two three [four
1030	T:	[look at this for example (.)
1031		Aha=
1032	Sx:	=Aa five=
1033	T:	=One two three four five (.) simple yea (.) aha
1034		Less than seven yea (.) less than seven (.) look
1035		At this (2) aha should be able to read everything
1036		From the backward (.) can you can you reduce the
1037		Number of these words (3) can you reduce the
1038		Number of this (2)

1039	ss:	yea (.)
1040	T:	The first one [the first point Should be able to
1041	ss:	[yea yea
1042	T:	read everything from yes from the back (.)
1043	ss:	[[yes Xxx on xxx three words=
1044	T:	=will (.) these words yea (.) can you reduce them
1045		to two words (4)
1046	Sana	Aaa it should be::=
1047	Hana	=not complicated=
1048	T:	=the opposite? (1)
1049	Hana	simple=
1050	T:	aha that's one aha? (.)
1051	sx:	obvious=
1052	T:	=think of another one {moving his hands right and
1053		left to mean it's almost the word}
1054	Sx:	=clear=
1055	T:	=yess clear and (.) s
1056	ss:	[[simple=
1057	sx:	=[it should be clear and
1058	T:	Aha and aha what do you think Fatima Mawada (1)
1059	xs:	=aaa
1060	Ss:	=Xxx [[clear [and simple xxx (2)
1061	T:	[aha
1062	ss:	[[clear and simple=
1063	T:	=another word? (3)
1064	mawa da	aaa short (.)
1065	T:	yes (1) so the sentence should be short (.) clear
1066		and ss=
1067	ss:	=simple=
1068		exactly can you do this [yea you can
1069	ss:	[yea yea=

In this extract, the teacher was insisting the students to use short number of words in each sentence per slide when they do their presentations, as it was one of the criteria of

presentation skills module, is not to use long sentences in slides. The teacher starts by writing a sentence on the board and asking students to count the words of this sentence in lines 982-984. The sentence is 'don't use long and complicated sentences'. The students start to count the words as we can see in lines 985 and 988. In line 989, the teacher counts with the students and he tells the students that this sentence is less than even seven words and before he asks the students what he wants them to do, he makes sure that the students at the back can read the sentence in the board in line 991. Of note, here in lines 992-994 is the use of display question where the teacher knows the answer of this question (see section 3.1.2.3 for definitions and details). Followed by two seconds of wait-time in line 994, the students in line 995 confirm that they know how to do it. Again, in lines 996 and 998 and the teacher tries to engage all the students in this discussion as he keeps asking the students in the back whether they are able to read the sentence in the board. In turn 999 the students confirm that they can see the sentence and they repeat the number of words that this sentence should be reduced to, in a way to indicate that they are following the task and they know what the teacher asks them to do. The teacher latches turn in line 1000 by using the discourse marker '=will', now according to Walsh and Li (2013), the use of the discourse marker (well) has a number of functions in classroom discourse: it may serve to get attention, to show a dispreferred response, to maintain face, to indicate some kind of hesitation, etc. Here, it serves the very important purpose of creating 'shared space' (Walsh, Morton, O'Keeffe, 2011). Hence, in lines 1000 and 1001, the teacher tries to engage all the students in doing this task, asks them again if they can reduce the sentence into three words. As we can see here, using questions appeared to play an important role in triggering other students to contribute by trying to identify the words that can be used. Furthermore, Anton and DiCamilla, (1999), highlight that through questioning, we invite the other listener (in this context the learners) to participate actively in the task. Sana'a response in line 1002 is preceded by a 4-seconds and the hesitation marker 'aaa', when she starts to paraphrase the sentence written on the board; yet, Hana latches a turn in line 1003 by putting the word 'not' in front of 'complicated', but she had interrupted by the

teacher in line 1004 indicating by the latches. This because the teacher recognized that Hana will use the same words in the sentence and the former wants the students use other words not those in the sentence. Therefore, the teacher is trying to elicit the others words that are opposite to 'complicated' and 'long' in order to paraphrase the sentence written on the board. Hence, in lines 1004, 1006, 1008-1009, 1011, 1014 and 1019, the teacher by the use of display questions was guiding the students to find out the proper words that they can use them to rephrase the sentence. Some of the studies claim that the use of referential question might lead to more interaction in language classrooms, while the use of display questions limit the opportunities for negotiated interaction and language learning (Nystrand et al. 1997; Ozerk, 2001; Tan, 2007). Now if we look at the previous episode from this perspective, we can see that these display questions 1004, 1006, 1008-1009, 1011, 1014 and 1019, led to create a conversational aspect as it can be seen from the very closely turn taking structure, which is evidenced by the frequent overlaps ([]) and latches (=). Furthermore, Tsui says that one of the strategies that the teachers identify in her study is to develop their questioning strategies via asking more referential questions than display questions. However, he found out that an increase of using referential questions do not certainly result in better or longer students' responses, but allowing wait-time to answer the questions does. Some teachers in the same studies highlight the importance of getting students to write down their answers before verbally expressing them. (Tsui, 2001).

Classrooms around the world in general are dominated by questions and answers routine, and teachers ask most of the question (Tan, 2000). The functions that the feature of asking question in classroom serve are varied. For example, they enable teachers to control the discourse as in the episode above particularly, if the teachers know already the answers. However, Walsh (2002, 2006, 2011) declares that if we aim to make the discourse in the language classrooms more communicative, we should use more referential questions that lead to 'greater effort and depth of processing on the part of the teacher, one possible reason for language teachers' preference for display questions over referential questions' (Walsh, 2011, p. 120). However, asking questions is not constantly an effective skill if

overused as it can obstruct the progress of the discussion also it might cause hindrance rather than construction of a dialogue (Hall, 2011).

Nevertheless, the aim of this study is not to investigate whether the use of display or referential questions lead to more or less verbal interaction, yet to investigate whether there is a relationship between teacher's question and the salience of the students' recalled learning item. In this excerpt, as mentioned above, the teacher uses display questions to guide the students to the right answer, or at least to the words that the teacher is looking for in order to rephrase the sentence. Johnson claims that asking display questions is an extremely complex skill, as it requires a skilful management of students' turn or contribution to bring her/him to the intended answer that the teacher is looking for (Johnson, 1992). As we can see in line 1007, the learner's offer was rejected when the teacher latched a turn in line 1008, asking the student to think of another one as the word 'obvious' is not what the teacher is looking for. This made the student to come up with another word in line 1010 'clear', which was accepted by the teacher in line 1011. This goes inline which Lin (2000). The latter argues that the teachers reject often 'good answers' and this because these answers do not conform to the answers that teachers are looking for, pushing the learners to do their best in order to guess or think what is inside the teacher's head and what he/she is exactly looking for (Lin 2000). This was also confirmed thirty years ago when Van Lier (1988) concluded by arguing that 'an analysis must go beyond simple distinctions taxonomies such as display and referential questions, yes/no and open-ended questions, and so on.... Research into questioning in the L2 classroom must carefully examine the purposes and the effects of questions' (p. 224).

7.4 Scaffolding

From social cultural view of learning scaffolding is key concept. It is referred to the linguistic support provided by the (expert), the teacher to (novice), the learners (Bruner, 1990). At the heart of this notion is the key concepts support and challenge, so that on the one hand,

the teacher provides an appropriate amount of challenge in order to keep or maintain involvement and interest. On the other hand, the teacher also has to provide some support to ensure involvement and understanding. As mentioned in chapter 2, this assistance or support should involve ritualization and segmentation to provide students choices in a limited way to think how they can achieve a task when it breaks down into manageable component parts (Bruner, 1990, p. 29). Scaffolds are started to be removed when the students master the task in order to allow space for the learner to comment and reflect about the task.

Excerpt 7.3 Episode (djinn): mentioned by 8 students (class 2)

31.	T:	now the unexplained events (.) we'er gonaa talk about
32.		the unexplained events that happened to you or to
33.		someone you know or heard about for example if you
34.		saw {drawing a ghost on the board} (1)
35.	ss:	{laughter} (2)
36.	Aisha	Aaa I have aaa relative always shouting screeming
37.		without reason (.) xxx [xxx
38.	Xs:	[{xxx xxx}]=
39.	T:	=your relative?
40.	Aisha	=yea she is xxx xxx abnormal but she said she saw
41.		aaa (3) {laughter}=
42.	T:	=djinn=
43.	Aisha	yea but in English aaa=
44.	T:	=no even in English it's djinn djinn {writes on
45.		baord} so she saw a djinn (2)
46.	Aisha	so ghost and djinn is same (.)
47.	T:	yes? Ghosts:: djinn are the spirits that people
48.		claim that they ok {laughter} (1) do you believe in
49.		this so when I say ghost I also mean djinn the same
50.		Thing ok djinn ghost same thing ok do you believe in
51.		Them=
52.	Ss:	=[[yea yea [xxx

53.	T:	[all of you?=
54.	Ss:	=no no [no
55.	T:	[no someone doesn't believe ok we have a non
56.		Believer ok {laughter} xxx=
57.	Xs:	=xxx I didn't see djinn in the reality=
58.	T:	You've never seen them in the reality=
59.	Xs:	=yes=
60.	T:	=ok (3) anyone else who doesn't believe (2)
61.	Nada:	Me=
62.	T:	=you don't believe in ghosts=
63.	Nada:	=yea=

In this episode, a group of advanced conversation class learners working with oral fluency practice, but one of the student is unable to finish her story, as she does not know the word 'djinn'. Turn taking starts with the teacher when she explains about the task that she wants the students to do, which is about the unexplained events. In lines 33 and 34, the teacher offers an example about the specific kind of unexplained events that she wants the students to talk about, which is the existence of ghosts. She drew a ghost on the board but she did not mention the word and she asked the students if they saw something like this or heard stories about people, they know that they faced such these unexplained events. In turn 36, the student (Aisha) starts her story about her relative that she always shouts and screams without reasons, yet some students interrupt her and start to make some noise as evident by the overlaps in line 38. Therefore, the teacher in line 39 latches with echoing student's words '=your relative?' with loudly interrogative intonation to give the impression that it is a real story in a way that turning the students' attention to Aisha and letting her finish her story. Then, in line 40, Aisha continues her story about her relative, but she stops in line 41 when she did not know the word 'djinn'. The teacher allowed 3 seconds wait-time before she provides modelling in line 42. Nevertheless, Aisha thought that the teacher provides the Arabic word for ghost that is why she rejects to use the word

in line 43 and asks for the English equivalence of this word as in Arabic it is the same word with the same pronunciation (جَنْ). The teacher recognised what Aisha wants and in turn 44, she provides her reinforcement by clarifying that the word does exist in English with the same pronunciation by saying this word twice and writing it on the board, then, she offered another modelling in line 45 'so she saw a djinn'. Then after two seconds, it can be seen that Aisha understood the teacher's clarification by providing this confirmation 'so ghost and djinn is same', in turn 46. By latching an acceptance from the teacher in line 47, she extends the student's comment by providing definition and demonstration about the word in lines 47-51. The teacher initiates new turn for the rest of the students whether they believe in djinn and ghosts in lines 50 and 51. In line 57, another student uses the word to say 'I didn't see djinn in the reality', in order to justify that she does not believe in such things.

The rapid turn taking in this extract representing by the (latches (=) and the overlaps ([])) indicates the conversational nature in this classroom, and co-construction coming from intersubjectivity (mutual understanding). However, it is the teacher who manages and controls the dialogue in order to ensure that the messages are refined and understood for the rest of the learners in the classroom. In this excerpt, the teacher scaffolded the learner in different ways such as demonstration, modelling, reinforcement and providing definition in lines 34, 42, 44, 45 and 47-50. Some researchers claim that the above-mentioned features can be considered as scaffolding strategies or different types of scaffolding (Walsh, 2006; Rajab, 2013)

Nonetheless, as mentioned in chapter two, not all the kinds of assistance provided by the teacher in classroom interaction can be considered as scaffolding specially when it does not happen in the zone of proximal development. Bodrova and Leong (1998) propose two criteria in identifying if a particular example of assistance can be considered as scaffolding or not. First, if a learner completes the task successfully with the teacher's assistance. Secondly, if the learner achieved a greater level of independent competence because of this assistance. From the dataset of the questionnaire, we can see evidence from the students' report that a number of learners noticed this word and recalled in the questionnaire. Hence, this might indicate first, that scaffolding process in this episode

achieved these two criteria identified by (Bodrova and Leong 1998). Second, it might also indicate that this scaffolding happened in the ZPD of the students, yet the student (Aisha) who interacted in the discourse and had been scaffolded by the teacher in this episode did not recall this word as new learning item in her questionnaire.

Notwithstanding, in large classroom context, identifying these two criteria might not be practical in terms of considering and understanding scaffolding effects of teacher talk. Obviously, the amount of scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher in the classrooms will be based on the perceived evaluation of the teacher who plays the role of (expert) of what is required or needed by the learner (novice). In a classroom context, where so much is going on at once at multilayers, such fine judgments might be difficult to make. Making moment by moment decisions on how and when to intervene or withdraw in the construction of classroom interaction entails great awareness and sensitivity on the part of the teacher and logically, 'teachers do not 'get it right every time' (Walsh, 2011, p. 65). In addition, it is not an easy task for the teacher to keep the balance and not 'slipping from a scaffolding teacher role into controller, actor, dictator, thinker, and main doer. Students will then be viewed as vessels to be filled' (Rajab, 2013, p. 34). However, whether it is directly or indirectly, the teacher plays an important and essential role as scaffolder (Walsh, 2002; 2006; 2011).

7.5 Content Feedback

According to some researchers such as (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Edwards and Mercer, 2013; Walsh, 2006; 2011), Feedback is an essential feature of the three-part sequence (IRF) as it allows language learners to see if their answers and responses has been accepted or not. Normally in classrooms, feedback involves some kind of evaluation, such as right, ok good. However, feedback is a challenging concept, as it involves complex and multi-layered issues, and this research does not aim to focus on all the types and aspect of feedback. In this section, the focus is on a particular type of feedback, which is content feedback, where

the focus is on meaning, rather than forms of language. The existence of content feedback as one of the discourse features in language classroom is quite rare as teachers normally provide their feedback that is formed-focused and 'deals with language related issues' (Walsh, 2011, p. 39). In the following extract, I explore the influence of using content feedback by the teacher on students' interaction and their recalling of the word 'compulsory'.

Excerpt 7.4 Episode (compulsory): mentioned by 9 students (class 2)

651.	T:	Ok? (.) art and music should be compulsory in
652.		Schools do you agree that side disagree this
653.		Side here so (5)
654.	ss:	{students moving from their desks}
655.	Salma:	if optional to:: if we are choose=
656.	T:	=if these subjects should be main ones(2)
657.	Maha:	is like mathematics and and=
658.	T:	=when you must study art like history aaa art
659.		and music In schools (.) right?=
660.	Ss:	=[[yeah xxx [xxx
661.	T:	[moving moving ok so you got a few
662.		more you can use the side chairs (3) so
663.		disagreeing and Agreeing (3) why it's not
664.		important to study Music you shouldn't shouldn't
665.		music (.) study art or:: (2)
666.	Maha:	in my opinion we must aaa study art and music
667.		because they are important in life (.)
668.	T:	why (1)
669.	Maha	it help us to be creative and we [can xxx
670.	Ss:	[[it xxx [xxx
671.	Fatima:	[it
672.		xxx help us aaa to feel relaxing[xxx
673.	Siham	[I don't feel
674.		relax if I study are {laughter}
675.	ss:	{laughter} xxx xxx xxx (1)
676.	Areej:	me I don't choose art or music because I don't
677.		talent (1)
678.	T:	maybe you don't need to have talent to study
679.		them=
680.	Areej:	=anyway not choose them {laughter}

681.	T:	but if it's not optional if it's <u>compu::lsory</u>
682.		you must study them=
683.	ss:	[[ooh xxx yeah xxx=
684.	Fatima:	=they should be compulsory from primary school=
685.	T:	why from primary (.)
686.	Fatima:	very important for children brain to imagine and
687.		think in the [xxx xxx xxx
688.	Hana:	[I think it can't be compulsory
689.		the first reason is because we are Muslims and
690.		music is haram it's not appropriate for us=
691.	ss:	=[[haram no xxx [xxx xxx
692.	Hana:	[no obedience? for the haram
693.		xxx=
694.	Maha:	=then why you use music in your phone=
695.	Hana:	=it's not music its aaa phone ringing xxx
696.	ss:	[[{laughter} no?[xxx xxx music xxx xxx xxx
697.	T:	[ok ok girls {banging the table}
698.		ok ok ok let's not talk about this point coz
699.		there are different opinions about the religious
700.		side so Marwa (.)Fatima said you think
701.		that art and music help the growing of children
702.		brains what do you think(2)
703.	Marwa:	yes art is to improve your talent or something
704.		maybe art is yeaa=
705.	Xs:	=yes it is a talent so even if I study it
706.		And I don't have talent in art or music I
707.		won't improve anyway so why study

This episode starts when the teacher asks students to be divided into two groups (agreeing and disagreeing). In this advanced conversation class, the teacher writes a sentence about particular topic on the board, and asks students to give their opinions regarding this topic. The topic of this episode is whether art and music should be compulsory in schools. In line 598, Salma initiates a turn seeking for a confirmation, as she is not sure that she understood the meaning of the sentence. The teacher recognised that Salma is asking about the

meaning of compulsory so the former latches a turn in line 599 explaining the meaning of this word in this sentence. Maha in line 600 provides an example about what the teacher said indicating that she understood the word compulsory. The teacher continues paraphrasing the sentence in lines 601 and 602 to make sure that everyone understands the sentence so that they can participate in this activity. Maha, which is in agreeing group, in lines 609 and 610 starts the activity by offering her opinion and saying that it is important to study art and music and the teacher in line 611 asks her to justify this importance to extend her answer.

Maha responds to the teacher in line 612 by giving one reason for studying these subjects, which is 'help us to be creative'. However, as it can be seen from the overlap in line 613 that some students interrupt Maha trying to take part justifying the importance of studying these subject in schools. Fatima takes the turn in lines 614 and 615 to add new reason, which is art and music help the students to feel relaxed that makes Siham in lines 616 and 617 responds by contradicting what Fatima said as the former is in the group of disagreeing. In lines 619 and 620, Areej provides a reason for not choosing them that she is not talented, and the teacher in lines builds on Areej's turn to explain that she does not have be talented to study music and art. Nevertheless, Areej latches a turn in line 623 to emphasis the disagreeing side that she will not choose to study these subjects even if it is not related to be talented. Here in lines 624 and 625 the teacher comes back to the word 'compulsory' as she recognised that the student did not understand the word 'compulsory' and reemphasises the meaning of this word again.

The students respond to the teacher turn to indicate that they grasped what the teacher said evident in the feedback loop in line 626 'ooh xxx yeah'. Fatima, which is in agreeing group, uses the word in line 627 to offer a suggestion as an indication that she knows the meaning of it, 'they should be compulsory from primary school'. Though asking for a clarification in line 628, the teacher is trying to extend Fatima's turn when the former said 'why from primary'. Fatima responds in lines 629 and 630 by providing a justification of her

suggestion, yet Hana in lines 631-633, which is in disagreeing group, interrupts Fatima to reject being these kind of subjects compulsory in schools as according to her opinion it is 'Haram' (religiously forbidden). When the students in line 634 start to raise their voices denying and refusing Hana's opinion, the latter with aloud voice as well reemphasises her opinion in line 635 'no obedience? for the haram'. Maha latches a turn in line 637 to contradict Hana by initiating a question for her, which is 'then why you use music in your phone', but Hana in line 638 offered an answer that other group even some member of disagreeing group did not like it. When the students start arguing altogether with aloud voice in line 639, the teacher interrupted them as it can be seen in line 640 and by banging on the table. She was trying to bring silence to the class, as the teacher does not want the conversation to be diverted to a religious discussion. This shows the teacher-led nature of this classroom so that the teacher is the leader and although the interaction in this class is conversational; the teacher can lead, and determine who and what is talked about. Marwa after being asked to participate by the teacher in line 646, starts providing other reasons for the music and art should be compulsory in schools.

As we can see in this episode that the teacher focuses on the content more than the language almost in a conversational way to almost all the students' turns (note overlapping speech in 603-604, 612-613, 615-616, 630-631 and 639-640) and latched turns in 598-599, 602-603, 622-623, 626-627, 633-634, 636-637-638 and 647-648. The teacher disregards or ignores errors, as they are seen as being not of central concern (according to her lesson plan accompanying the materials of this research). Evidence of disregarding the considerable number of learners' errors by the teacher can be seen in lines 598, 600, 612, 617, 619 and 623. The teacher in these turns does not respond to the linguistic forms but to the messages and ideas that are related to the topic of agreeing or disagreeing about being art and music compulsory in schools. In the exchange above, for instance, the teacher does not provide repair or evaluation to the learners' turns, as it would be one of the norms in classrooms around the world. Instead, she seems more like asks for clarification rather than direct error correction to allow learners to have space to express more as in line 611, when the teacher uses the expression 'why' followed by her question, which led to create other turns by the learners.

According to Myrick and Yonge (2002), this space of interaction assists the students to feel at ease and encourage them to take risks. For example, offering content feedback in lines 624 and 625 was found to be effective to reinforce the meaning of compulsory, as the teacher recognised that the student understood that as whether it is optional to study these subjects. Therefore, appropriate use of content feedback, which is responding to the message rather than its form, creates that space for conversational language, which as a result promotes the atmosphere for constructing learning opportunities. Nevertheless, language learners sometimes prefer to be direct corrected. The participant students of the focus group in this research also complain about not being corrected by the teacher and prefer direct feedback.

It is the only chance for us to use the language and we are here (the university) to learn so it is very normal to make mistakes. Honestly, it is really annoying that the teacher does not correct us when we make errors so in the end I do not know if what I say is correct or not and I do not feel that my language is improving as in this conversation class we talk only to each other, but not with the teacher and she is native. I do not feel that I am learning anything new in this class, as firstly, my errors are not corrected. Secondly, I interact with my classmates but not with the teacher so nothing new (Focus Group; March, 2016).

In this advanced conversation class, the teacher normally brings different topics and activities and asks the students to be in groups to interact with each other. The students in this context feel that it is the norm that the teacher provide direct feedback when they make errors. This was also emphasised by Seedhouse (1997, p. 571) as he claims that 'making linguistic errors, having them corrected directly, and overtly is not an embarrassing matter'. Other authors such as van Lier (2000, p. 182), argues that correction is 'an important variable in language learning'. Moreover, the idea of group work for the students is something new, and they did not use to work in groups in the other classes. They also do not feel that they learn from the teacher as they argue that talking to the teacher is the

only chance for them to communicate with an expert that has native like pronunciation. This was also pointed out by Walsh, when he says 'in many cases and in many parts of the world, a teacher articulation of a second language may be the only exposure to the language that learners receive' (Walsh, 2011, p. 6). However, maybe the students miss the key point, which is in interaction in the conversational class; they are extending their ability to use the English language, which was the goal of this class as mentioned by the teacher. The students may not realise this as their awareness of learning is at a transactional level, where they are only aware of learning as taking away something new from the lesson and the correction is the focus of this. Therefore, the teacher is making the classroom work in an effective way, but could do better to make the students understand how this is working.

7.6 The Use of Discourse Markers

The frequency of the discourse markers such as (yeah, ok, so, right) in spoken conversation is important comparing to other word forms (Fung & Carter, 2007). According to Dalle and Inglis (1990), discourse markers as one of the discourse features, serves a range of different functions in order to accomplish mutual understanding and intersubjectivity to make sure that the social interaction goes smoothly. Furthermore, they have a significant role in promoting effective interaction and offering pedagogical clarification particularly in classrooms (Carter & McCarthy, 2006). In this extract, I investigate the role that some discourse markers (henceforth, DMs) play in teacher-student interaction and the relationship between DM and the construction of learning opportunity.

Excerpt 7.5 Episode (Back up): mentioned by 8 students (class 1)

248.	T:	so (.) you must? Have backup (1) plan (.) ok (.)
249.		Why you spend all this time preparing all these
250.		Slides and visual aids why (1)cause you know that
251.		These? (.) will help you (.) to give your
252.		Presentation in a good way if don't do thi::s
253.		{pointing to the flash} so you xxx need this (.)
254.		Right (1) ahaa? (.)
255.	ss	[[yeah=

256.	T:	=ok so you have to have a backup plan (.) so
257.		what's a backup plan (2)ahaa? for example(3)
258.	Maha:	To aaa (2)
259.	T:	to bring for example another flash you're your
260.		flash Xxx check? Your [flash before
261.	Ss:	[before you come xxx xxx=
262.	T:	=yeah check your laptop before you come (.) ahaa=
263.	Sommia:	=to printing your slides(2)
264.	T:	yeah ahaa you must do all of these things (.) you
265.		know if you have CD (Check it is not affected by
266.		virus so always duplicate all the materials that
267.		you can not work Without them (.) clear ahaa=
268.	Ss:	=yeah (.)
269.	T:	Ok (.) 2 years ago I went to present my paper in a
270.		Conference so (.) what did I do. I saved my
271.		presentation in five places (.)
272.	Ss:	xxx five=
273.	T:	=five ok (.) 2 flash memories (.) my laptop (.) I
274.		Send my presentation to my email and I gave one to
275.		my you see [Friend (2)
276.	Ss:	[xxx oh xxx waw {laughter}(2)
277.	Maha:	the conference aaa here in Libya (2)
278.	T:	yes in Libya in postgraduate academy (1)
279.	Maha:	so you should have another backup plan {laughter}
280.		print handouts (.) you know the 'electric'
281.		and internet coverage is disaster =
282.	ss:	={laughter} (.)
283.	T:	oh yeah disaster you see it is really something to
284.		always think about it in Libya yea you are right
285.		and even if there is electricity maybe there is no
286.		internet so no access to your email {laughter}(.)

287.		so (.) another thing to do is to (.) ahaa? (1)
288.	ss:	[[xxx xxx to print handouts (.)
289.	T:	Ok (.) yeah so because if you lost your file what
290.		you or there is no electricity and don't have
291.		handouts what will do (.) I just stand in front of
292.		the audience {laughter} I'm here good morning? And
293.		give just bla bla bla=
294.	Ss:	=yea xxx {laughter} (.)

In this episode, the teacher initiates the turn and makes a new phase with the discourse marker 'so' in line 201 telling the students to have a backup plan as one of the skills in preparing the presentation. Opening a new exchange with this discourse marker typically occurs so often and frequently in all classrooms around the world. The teacher comes back to the phrase back up, and initiates a question in lines 209 and 210. He allows 2-second wait-time in line 210 then uses the discourse marker 'ahaa', which was mentioned in the focus group by the students, is that whenever they hear this discourse marker they know that they have to provide an answer. Therefore, the teacher uses it to encourage the students to say what is backup plan and offering example about it. Even after 3 seconds of silence in line 210, the students could not answer the teacher's question, which made the teacher thinks that the students do not understand what does 'back up' means. Therefore, in lines 212 and 215, the teacher offers an example about the phrase, and encourages the students to offer other examples by the use of 'ahaa again. This discourse marker prompts the students response (R) in line 216 when Sommia latches turn offering another example of a backup plan, which it seems that it has been accepted as an example by the teacher indicating by the discourse marker 'yeah' in line 217. By the use of DM 'ok', the teacher starts a new phase which telling them what he personally did when he presented a paper in a conference. The latter explained about saving the presentation slides in five places as a backup plan, yet he did not mention printing the slides. This is why Maha in line 230 first asks about the location of the conference whether it is in Libya. In response to the student's opening turn or initiation (I), the teacher confirms the place in line 231. Then, Maha comes back to the point referred by Sommia in line 216, which is having printed copies of the

presentation's slides. Here Maha makes a link between the current situation in Libya due to the conflict and a serious electricity shortage so that having printed handouts is an important backup plan. She reminds the teacher by using the DM 'you know' the shortage of the electricity resulted to the shortage of the internet in Libya in lines 232-234 as a reason behind the necessity of having printed handouts. The teacher builds on the student's turn in (lines 236-240) to which the former offers a preferred (agreeing) response by the use of the discourse marker 'yeah' and the repetition of the word disaster in line 236. Then, the teacher continues to confirm what Maha has turned his attention to and highlights the importance of having printed handouts of the presentation slides as an example of backup plans in preparing for presentation.

Different discourse analysis studies in the literature tackled the issue of the discourse marker in a different way. For example Walsh (2006, 2011) highlights the significance of using discourse markers such as the acknowledgment tokens (ugh, yeah, oh), which perform an essential function of what he called 'oiling the wheels of interaction' so that ensuring that everyone in the class knows that s/he is understood by others. In this episode, the teacher as well as the students frequently make use of acknowledgment token to demonstrate understanding such as 'yeah' in lines 208, 215, 217, 221, 236, 242 and 'oh' in line 236. As it can be seen in this excerpt, there is no repair. In spite of the students' mistakes in lines 216, 230 and 233. These mistakes were totally ignored by the teacher so that the communication was not impeded because of these mistakes. This goes parallel with what Walsh points it out in his work. However, there is another discourse marker in this extract, which is 'ahaa' that was not found in other studies, which tackled the issue of discourse markers. This DM or feedback loop has different functions, for example in Arabic language as in English; normally we use this discourse marker in the spoken conversation to indicate that we are still listening especially in phone calls and sometimes to provide preferred agreeing. In this episode, the teacher uses 'ahaa' in lines 207, 210, 215, 220 and 240. Noticeably, after each use of this DM by the teacher there is a student's turn, which

might indicates that this DM creates an opportunity for students to participate. Nonetheless, in line 217, the teacher uses it to indicate an acceptance for student's suggestion, but for the rest it seems that it was used to encourage the students to interact and respond to the teacher. This function was also mentioned by one of the students in the focus group,

Sometimes when the teacher asks questions we do not know whether this question is for us to answer or not as sometimes I try to answer but the teacher just do not let me finish my answer and interrupts me and keep explaining about a point related to this question so then I recognize that he just tries to introduce a topic by asking that question but for example I notice when he says 'ahha with load voice he wants us to answer the question (focus Group; March, 2016).

What has been mentioned by the student above could be one of classroom talk as conversational, but not always, and it is the teacher talk that manages the shift in order to facilitate learning so that the students know what is conversational, and what is not conversational a classroom-like. Walsh (2011) also points out that the use of the discourse markers such as so, right ok, next, now, etc., perform key functions in classroom such as giving directions to the discourse and assisting the students to follow what is being said in the classroom. Thus, if these discourse markers used appropriately, they greatly assist in shaping the 'space for learning' , (Walsh & Li, 2013) which in the case of this study assist in constructing the learning opportunity. In lines 201, 209, 222, 223, 239, 240 and 242, the teacher uses (ok, so) as transition markers in order to signal the start of one part of the lesson, to turn the learners' attention and to shift their focus to some important points in the lesson. This is as in line 240 when mentioning the necessity of printing handouts as an important backup plan. These discourse markers mentioned above are significant for the learners in the classroom as they help them in 'unravelling the interaction' and 'navigate their way' through the discourse (Breen, 1998). The latter also argues that the discourse markers perform like intonation patterns in a spoken text or punctuation marks in the written language because they are fundamental to understanding. Therefore, the essential category of the discourse markers is that they assist the teacher to guide the students throughout the discourse 'hold their attention, announce a change in activity, and signal

the beginning or end of a lesson stage. Crucially, they help a class ‘stay together’ and work in harmony’ (Walsh, 2011, p. 7).

Furthermore, there is the use of the discourse markers ‘you know and you see’ by the teacher and one of the students in this extract. According to Carter and McCarthy (2006), ‘you know’ is normally used in the discourse to mark shared information. If we notice in line 233 one of the students (Maha) used the discourse marker ‘you know’ to bring the attention to that shared situation by everyone in the class, which is the lack or the shortage of electricity and network coverage. This, to link between this situation and the point of printing handouts as an important back up plan due to this shared situation. The teacher builds on the student’s turn in (line 236) and he uses ‘you see’, which usually used to mark new information (Carter & McCarthy, 2006), to alert the students’ attention to the important point mentioned by Maha. Now the lack of electricity in Libya is not new information, yet the link between printed handouts and this situation might be considered as new information for the teacher and for the students. Thus, these two discourse makers ‘you know and you see’ function as important tools in classroom discourse in ‘establishing common ground, demonstrating empathy between tutor and students, and in creating a sense that ‘we’re all in this together’ (Walsh, 2011, p. 101). Therefore, according to (Walsh, 2006; 2011; Walsh and Li, 2013) discourse markers in general are used to create ‘shape space’ where learning can take place ‘space for learning’. As it has been shown in this example that there is a relationship between the use of the discourse marker and the students’ participation, which as a result might be one of the factors that affect the recalling or the noticing process of some students of the word “backup”.

7.7 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I set out to analyse the links between what the students reported in the questionnaire and some discourse features of teacher talk. The details of these features of teacher talk in these learning opportunities episodes were looked at carefully from

conversation analysis view to find out what made the recalled items (questionnaire data set) salient to the students. The field notes and the students' perceptions were included in order to triangulate with my interpretations of the data. The aim of this chapter was not just describing classroom interaction, but to offer fine-grained analysis of micro-contexts of learning opportunity episodes. Therefore, it is kind of language learning analysis of students comments and looking at it from the point of view of salience of their noticing. In other words, what they are noticing as salient in the lesson. However, this research is not about how learners progress in their learning, it is more about teaching pedagogic interaction and its impact on the construction of learning opportunity.

Findings of this analysis suggest that in episodes 7.1, 7.2, 7.3, 7.4 and 7.5, there is a relationship between the discourse features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunities. Even though there are some of the students are actively engaged in these episodes through interaction, there is a number of students who did not verbally interacted, but recalled these learning items in the questionnaire. Thus, engaging the learners in this kind of dialogue where they have to think, reflect and interact might not be useful only for the students who overtly interacted in this excerpt but also for other listeners (learners) who were quiet and silent. In other words, it seems like some learners could profit from the interaction between the teacher and other students in the lesson without being verbally involved. This finding also substantiates previous findings in with Slimani's study (1889) who claims that it was not necessary for some of students to take part in the verbal interaction (overt participation) to be successful in recalling new learning items from the lesson.

The endeavour behind this is not just simply to describe classroom interaction, but more importantly; a fine-grained and detailed analysis of micro-contexts of these episodes accompanied with focus group and field notes data so that it might offer us unique insights into the relationship between what teachers teach and what learners learn. Therefore, the answer of this research question aims to contribute to our understanding of how teachers through their classroom talk create learning opportunities for students in language classrooms so that the focus is more about the teaching rather than the learning itself. Therefore, this finding could suggest a complexity in terms of how students participate:

perhaps they notice when they are participating by listening, rather than when they are speaking. This valuable finding would support the idea of learning opportunities in teacher talk rather than just in student talk.

Chapter 8 The of the Native language (L1)

8.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter, in which the ‘learning opportunity episodes’ that capture the learning opportunities, which are taken from the transcription of classroom discourse, are analysed from different perspectives of different datasets, including focus group and field notes datasets. This integrated way of analysis was conducted in order to find out relationships between some features of teacher talk and the constructing of learning opportunities. That analysis has addressed the study’s second research question on the interactional features of teacher talk and its influence on the creation and the construction of learning opportunities. In this chapter, one of the main features of teacher talk, which is the use of the (L1) native language (L1; in this study L1 is Arabic) as it is shared by the teachers and the learners will be focused on. In other words, one of the aims of this study is to explore the role of L1 that plays in constructing learning opportunities in the particular situations that I examine, in EFL Libyan university context with a focus on teacher talk. In the literature, there is a considerable number of studies that investigate classroom discourse regarding the issue of the use of L1. Nevertheless, the focus was on the student-student peer interaction rather than teacher-student interaction (Behan & Turnbull, 1997; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 2001; Swain & Watanabe, 2012). Therefore, in this section I explore whether there is a relationship between the use of the native language (the L1) and the construction of learning opportunities in EFL classroom with a focus on teacher-student interaction.

However, the analysis of this chapter is somehow different from the analysis of the preceding chapter. This because the majority of data in Focus group and teacher’s comments in the field notes is about using the native language in classroom, which might give an impression that it has a noteworthy impact on teacher-student interaction, which will be discussed in detail in this chapter. The data in this study shows that there is a direct and indirect influence of the use of L1. The direct impact is when there is a direct connection between this discourse feature, which is using L1 in classroom discourse, and

the recalled learning opportunities that were mentioned by the students in the questionnaire. The indirect impact would be in creating the suitable and comfortable environment for learning as it was mentioned by the participants of this study and was highlighted by some studies in the literature (Nassaji 2009; Storch & Aldosari, 2010) (for a detailed review on this topic see section 3.1.3). Therefore, the analysis of this chapter aims at investigating the following research question:

RQ 3 What functions does the L1 serve in teacher/students interaction in the construction of learning opportunity?

In order to answer this research question, I start with analysing the excerpts that include the recalled learning items that were mentioned by the students in the questionnaires and relate them to some discourse features of teacher talk. However, this is not the case in terms of including the episode 8.1 in which there is no recalled learning items mentioned by the students, but the reason for including this excerpt is to show how the teacher provides scaffolding with the use of L1 to help the students to generate L2 learning item.

8.2 L1 for Scaffolding

In this section, I investigate how the L1 is used in explaining difficult grammar, which is the accuracy context. As the data show, the teacher tends to employ the L1 to provide scaffolded help for the sake of what Swain called languaging, when using the L1 as a mediating tool to produce L2 forms. Swain uses the word language in a verb form 'languaging', which forces us to understand language as a process rather than as an object (see section 2.1.4). As such, utterances, which are in Arabic, were translated and checked by back translation during the process of transcribing the data. Thus, the brackets are used to include the translated words. The use of the L1 is one of the resources to which teachers have recourse in accomplishing their pedagogical agenda. Thus in a form of Accuracy context, when learners fail to produce the required response, the teacher usually uses the L2 to initiate repair. When learners show no uptake, the teacher switches to L1 to scaffold

learners, helping them to be able to produce the targeted response as it can be seen in the following extract.

Excerpt 8.1

483.	T:	this is a possessive adjective (4)
484.	xs:	his=
485.	T:	=his (3) {yes} (.) yes my hands change into
486.		his (3) if? The speaker is female (.) what can we
487.		say (4) لو المتكلم مؤنث شن بنقولو بلغته هو if
488.		the speaker is female what we will say in his
489.		words) (2)
490.	xs:	she (.)
491.	T:	no::? (.) {teacher nodding (no) and pointing to
492.		Wafa}
493.	Wafa:	her=
494.	ss:	=her xxx her (.)
495.	T:	yes her {writing on the board the sentence by
496.		using the possessive her}

Usually, following Teacher's initiation, learners manage to produce the targeted L2 response. For example, in the above extract, the teacher uses the L2 to assist the learner to produce a complete answer instead of a contracted form. Hence, teacher tries to give a prompt in the L2 to be completed by the learner. Since this is not successful, T follows the L2 prompt with the L1. This strategy is successful in triggering the learner to come up with the L2 form, providing a complete answer. In this extract, the learner's answer is appropriate but is not the precise targeted form or it is not the one that is expected by the teacher.

This is different from extract 8.2 below, in which the student produces a wrong answer 'I'm finished' in (line 699); thus, the teacher first produces a strong unmitigated repair in the L2 'no (0.2) 'that's wrong' (line 700). Second, he provides the Arabic meaning of the sentence used by the student followed by English explanation in lines 701-703. Then the teacher

gives a metalanguage prompt in the L2 explaining how the required response would need an auxiliary verb in line 708, since Fatima suggested another auxiliary line 707, which is the one intended by the teacher. The teacher initiates another repair by switching to Arabic in line 709. The learners follow in the L2 producing the correct answer in line 711. However, the teacher pointed to Fatima to hear the answer from her, as he wants to make sure that she recalled the intended structure that he wants them to use as it can be seen in lines 712 and 713. The teacher repeats her answer in the L2 followed by an Arabic equivalent lines 715 and 716.

Excerpt 8.2 Episode (I have finished): mentioned by 16 students (class 5)

719.	Fatima:	ok teacher I'm finished=
720.	T:	=no (2)that's wrong don't say I'm finished I'm
721.		شن معناها
722.		{means what اني انتهيت خلاص اني مت معناها}
723.		means I'm finished means I'm died} [completely
724.	ss:	[{laughter}
725.	T:	لازم تستخدوا فعل ميت{dead} finish {you must use
726.		a verb}=
727.	Fatima:	=I did finish (1)
728.	T:	we need another auxiliary verb not did (2)
729.		{verb indicates فعل يدل على التصرف الثالث (2)}
730.		third past participant}
731.	ss:	[[have xxx have finished {xxx
732.	T:	{pointing to the same student who said the sentence} Fatima (1) aha=
733.		=I have finished=
734.	Fatima	I? have <u>finished</u> yea (1) اني كملت or you can
735.	T:	say I finished ok please not I'm finished?
736.		{laughter}
737.	ss:	{laughter}

The data also reveal another use of the L1 to provide the learners scaffolded help in order to produce the required L2 response when the learners delay in providing it. This is described in Üstünel (2004) as a preferred action after a pause. Thus, in the interaction in 8.1 extract, the task is to change a direct sentence 'My hands are very dirty' Nahla said into an indirect speech. The lines above are taken from a long sequence. Before these lines, a student has answered the first part of the sentence with 'his', while some other learners have said 'her'. The teacher then repeats the learner's answer in line 485, followed by an Arabic agreement token 'aiwaa'. In line 486, the teacher asks a question in the L2. After a pause of (4) seconds in line 487, he initiates repair by saying the question in Arabic in line 487. The learner follows, providing the answer in English. The teacher then uses the L2 line 491 to provide a negative evaluation of the wrong answer initiated by the learner in line 490 while pointing at Wafa who gave the correct answer in line 493. In the subsequent turn, the learners follow, repeating the correct answer in line 494. The teacher then moves to the board to write the answer while accepting the learners' response 'yes'. To sum up, as it can be seen in the data, the teacher used L1 to serve as a mediating tool to provide

scaffolding for the students to produce L2 forms. In the next section, I analyse the relationship between emotions in classroom interaction and the use of the native language, which is shared between the teachers and the students.

8.3 Emotions and L1

The discussion of feelings and emotions with the use of L1 has been pointed out by some researchers (Bakhtin, 1993; Reichert, 2011; Vitanova, 2005). This because there is a considerable number of code switching research that emphasising the importance of emotion gearshift in classrooms. Thus, when the teachers want to put emotions they switch to their language, particularly if it is shared between the teacher and the students. The example of this is as it happened in extract 8.2 when the teacher used L1 in line 702 to add a sense of humour to explain about the grammatical mistake that led to totally different meaning from the one that intended by the learner. Moreover, it has been claimed that by the use of L1, teachers help in reducing students' anxiety in classrooms (Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Harbord, 2012; Storch & Aldosari, 2010). This is what was mentioned by one of the participant teachers, so when I asked the teacher about the reasons for them to use L1 in classroom Ahmed commented:

I know that not so many teachers admit to using L1 in classroom as they link it to their deficiency to use L2 all the time. However, most of the times I use it to lower students' anxiety, as you know that students are with different language proficiency levels and I need to consider that. For example sometimes I start my class with a quick chat in L1 with them or I tell a joke, because the L1 is the language of emotions and in this way I think that by using L1 particularly at the beginning of the class I make the students feel that I am close to them and it is not a crime if they use their L1 with me specially that I know many teachers prevent the student to use it. (Field notes, 2016)

Lowering student anxiety and achieving a good teacher-student rapport are very desirable aims and greatly to be encouraged. Nevertheless, a number of researchers such as (Harbord, 2012; Smiley & Antón, 2012) claim that chatting in L1 before the start of the lesson and telling jokes to reduce students' anxiety, might have a negative effect on the overall tendency towards L2 use in the classroom. Thus, when many effective L2 strategies are available to the teacher, the advantages of L1 use for this purpose would seem to be outweighed by the potential dangers. Alternative strategies might include telling simple jokes or chatting to the students in L2 before the lesson or during breaks, and being prepared to reveal as much personal information about oneself as one asks of the students.

The teacher in the following example (8.3) used the L1 in order to attach the emotional side of the current political situation in Libya to this example. Viewed from this perspective, this episode might be evidence for students' recall to the word ISIS in which the emotional connection plays an important role in making this learning item salient to them. The students recalled the word ISIS as an equivalence for the Arabic word 'Daesh' "داعش".

Excerpt 8.3 Episode (ISIS): mentioned by 7 students

1682.		Please (.) make? an eye contact don't forget to
1683.		. smile::: (4) aha . ok today I'm going to talk
1684.		About [aaa
1685.	ss:	[{laughter}
1686.	T:	Clear (3) clear?
1687.	ss:	Yes=
1688.	T:	=aha unless? the topic is very xxx something which
1689.		Is=
1690.	sx:	=bad=
1691.	T:	=Yes like for example ISIS (2) can you smile when
1692.		you want to talk about ISIS (6)
1693.		داعش و المصايب اللي صابرة توا في
1694.		{ISIS and the current disasters in our
1695.		البلاد} like today {smiling} I'm going to Talk
1696.		about the bad situation in Libya=
1697.	ss:	= {laughter} (1)
1698.	T:	Ok do not smile when you are talking about such
1699.		about these topics Clear? (2) or today I'm going
1700.		to::: {smiling} talk about ISIS=
1701.	ss:	= {laughter}=

In the above extract (8.3), the teacher was providing the students some advices regarding eye contact and smiling which are also part of assessment criteria of presentation skills' module. The teacher here tells students to make eye contact and to smile at the audience during the presentation. Then, in line 1668, the teacher alerts the students to some situations when they should not smile if they want to talk about some topic regarding the current political situation in Libya. The teacher uses the current issue of ISIS as an example of such these topics that the students should not smile if they choose to talk about it in their presentations. Seven students recalled the word ISIS as an equivalent for the Arabic word 'Daesh' "داعش" (abbreviation for terrorist groups called themselves the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria) as a new learning item for them. The teacher in lines 1671 and 1672 uses the word ISIS as he thought that it is a very well known word as Libya is severely suffers from this terrorist group after 2011. Yet, after six seconds of silence, the teacher recognises from the students' facial expressions that some of them do not understand the word ISIS. Therefore, in lines 1673 and 1674, the teacher uses L1 to provide the Arabic equivalence 'Daesh' 'داعش' to the word 'ISIS' and he puts it in a sentence to indicate that it is one of the disasters that the country severely suffers from them.

What one of the students mentioned in the focus group about the use of L1 and the emotional side of the current situation in Libya confirms this. So Amina says:

When the teacher asked us not smile at the audience if we choose to talk about some topics and he mentioned ISIS, I thought that it is a type of disease and I could not find a reason why I cannot smile if for example I am going to talk about the ways to treat this disease.... until the teacher translated it and I recognised that he is talking about 'Daesh' "داعش".... Ooh how different is the word ISISI from 'Daesh' "داعش" as the Arabic word with all its cruelty. With mentioning this word in Arabic I felt the pain in my heart so that I recognised that it is impossible for me to smile at the audience if I talk about it even if I want to. (Focus Group, March, 2016)

The example above revealed an interesting phenomenon, which is a mix of humour and sadness. The function of the humour might be to elicit laughter, which gets attention and focus as everyone wants to know the stimulus for laughter, something perhaps we humans are programmed to share. Therefore, the above example shows the link between the use of L1 and the emotional side that might be the reason for recalling this particular learning item.

Another similar example of the emotional side linking the use of L1 with the current political situation in Libya of recalling the new vocabulary is in this following extract (8.4) (bullet when it is used as bullet point and bullet as a gunfire). In this example, the teacher explains about the length of each sentence in the presentation's slides. Because one of the criteria of oral presentation assessments is not to have long sentences in the slides, so that is why the teacher was making emphasis on summarising long sentences into short bullet points. However, the teacher was pointing out that he does not want to see too many bullet points in each slide. Thus, the teacher made analogy between putting too many bullet points in the slides and shooting the audience as it can be seen in lines 937,938,939,940, 941 and 942. Again in lines 946, 948, 950 and 951. This because the word bullet in English can be used with the word point to mean bullet point and by itself to mean gunfire, while in Arabic language, there are two different words for them. Therefore, he made use of this to reinforce the importance of using reasonable numbers of bullet points in the slides, which according to his criteria is between three to four bullet points for each slide. Five students reported the two meanings of the word bullet in the questionnaire as new learning items for them.

Excerpt 8.4 Episode (Bullet): mentioned by 5 students (class 9)

925	T:	The little number of the words? (.) aha (.) so?
926		Three to seven points per slide (1) one slide
927		Three to seven (.) I prepared just three . just
928		Three yea (.) just? Three (.) bullet pointe (.) ok
929		What about if you are having more than three (.)
930		Xxx . what xxx the slide (.) slides? Are cheap yea
931		You are not going to pay for it (.) [to buy

932	Sx:	[{laughter}]
933	T:	Some slides yea (.) that's for free yea (.) but?
934		Instead of having <u>six bullet points</u> per one slide divide them. Into slides (.) (am I alright) (1)
935		whats bullet (2)
936	Ss:	aaa xxx (1)
937	T:	Ok (.) so? حني نسمعوا في الرصاص دبما والا (we always hear the
938		Gunfire right?) (3) <u>bullet?</u> In English means point
939		<u>and gunfire and gun fires are . painful</u>
940		صوت الرصاص ماوه ماحدي يسمعه (what a
941		Strong sounds that bullets make no one likes to
942		Hear it)) yes? Clear (.)
943	Ss:	Yea=
944	T:	=yea remember this (.) remember if كان واحد بي
945		Someone)) {imitating shooting on students} (2)
946		Does it pain?
947	Ss:	Xxx sure
948	T:	Does it pain? Ha (3)
949	Sx:	Sure yea=
950	T:	=yea sure (.) so remember? (.) that you are
951		Shooting your audience if you are using (.) a lot
952		Of bullet points (.) ok (.) so? yes three to seven
953		bullet points

8.4 The Use of L1 and Turning Students' Attention

The example below suggests another use of L1, which is when the teacher uses it for turning students' attention to something important regarding assessment criteria of their presentations. However, from CA perspective, it might not be only the use of L1 that made the phrase 'visual aids' in the extract below 8.5 salient to the students in this example. This because as we can see from the excerpt below that the overlaps (turns 449 and 450; 460

and 461) and the latches (turns 452, 453 and 454) as examples of some features of naturally occurring conversation. From the perspective of conversation analysis, the more natural occurring conversation in the class the more L2 learning take place. Therefore, in analysing this discourse, the overlaps and the latches were taken into consideration to investigate how the teacher and the students co-construct learning opportunities. My main aim for analysing this excerpt is to see what made this phrase in particular salient to 13 students as this number is considered significant comparing to other number of students' recall in this study. In this excerpt, in lines 447 and 454, the teacher starts by asking 'what? visual aids ... Why? do you use visual aids'. The teacher was explaining about the importance of using the visual aids in presentations, and he was insisting to the students to use visual aids in their presentations. Thus, he repeated this phrase 7 times; one of them is accompanied with the use of L1 in line 459 in a way of pushing the student to repeat it 3 times in lines 460, 462 and 464. However, the teacher allocates little extended wait-time for the students to answer his questions in lines 447, 449, 454, 457 and 461, because in lines 449 and 461 he interrupts the students' turns, which is indicated by the overlaps. In line 454, he spoke exactly when the students had just said the words (aids and purpose). Moreover, in turn 457 the teacher only allocates less than a second to the students to answer the question. However, in lines 460, 462, and 464 as it can be seen, the students strove to contribute to the discussion, yet the teacher was interrupting them each time. Nevertheless, this phrase was noticed and recalled by 13 students. Therefore, another way of looking at this from CA perspective is to see it as 'conversational' with participants participating equally. In line 465, the teacher used L1 to confirm that all the students must use visual aids in their presentations. This gives the impression that it is very important to use visual aids when they will do their presentations, as the students will be assessed based on these presentations. This coincides with what one of the students mentioned in the focus group.

'actually it is very rare that the teacher uses the Arabic language but when he says something in Arabic usually to refer to something that most likely important for the exam'.

(Focus Group, March, 2016)

The teacher appears to concur with the students' comment, with the subsequent representative of his view:

'I also find it [the L1] very useful when I use it with the students who do not pay attention to something important for their exams or for example, I tell personal stories or jokes for attracting thier attention.' (Ahimd, March 2016)

Therefore, the teacher used the first language to focus the students' attention to the importance of using visual aids in their presentations so it might be another reason that made the students to notice and recall this phrase and the number of recalls suggests that his strategy is successful.

Excerpt 8.5 Episode (visual aids): mentioned by (13) students (Class 4)

446.	T:	You need to use? Do you need to use <u>visual aids</u> ::
447.		(1) visual aids aha (.) like what? visual aids (1)
448.	Ss:	Xxx audio [xxx
449.	T:	Audio [aha[Xxx cable (fonts) ha (2) yes xxx
450.	Ss:	[xxx
451.		What is benefit whats the problem of using visual
452.		Aids=
453.	Sx:	=For purpose=
454.	T:	=Why? do you use visual aids (.) is it important
455.		to use visual aids (3)
456.	Ss:	[[yes
457.	T:	Which is important (.) using words to explain the
458.		Point you want to say xxx a lot of words in slide?
459.		Or شنی قولوها باللا {what is it say it now} (2)
460.	Ss:	Xxx useful [visual aids
461.	T:	[use of? (.) <u>visual aids</u> (1) which one=
462.	Ss:	= [[visual aids=
463.	T:	=Could achieve the target the target perfectly (1)

464.	Ss:	[[Visual aids=
465.	T:	=Visual aids or words [كلم حتسنخمو ان شاء الله] {all will
466.		use visual anyway with God willing}
467.		(1) so these materials you need to
468.		Prepare (1) ok (2) so let me get to the structure
469.		Now (2) how can I structure my presentation now

In the above section, I analysed the extracts that include the recalled learning items that were mentioned by some students in the questionnaires to investigate the relationship between the use of L1 and the salience of these learning opportunities for the students. Nonetheless, episode 8.1 were included to show how the L1 was used by the teacher to help the students to generate L2 learning items. In the following section, as stated earlier, a discussion of teachers and students' comments about the use of L1 and its impact on creating the suitable environment for learning.

8.5 Findings and Discussion of Focus Group and Teachers' Comments in Field Notes

Unlike the other issues that were discussed in the focus group with the students and with the teachers in their comments in the field notes, when it comes to the issue of using the native language (L1), it gets very excited and both of the participant parties (students and teachers) talked excessively about this point. Therefore, I decided to dedicate a whole section for their comments about this point as it might give an impression that it has really a significant impact whether it is direct or indirect on their recall to the learning opportunities that are connected to this discourse feature, which is using L1 in classroom discourse. The comments that were made by the teachers and the students indicate that the L1 is normally used in some manners without exception by both participant parties in the L2 classrooms. They mentioned different reasons and functions for using the L1. Under this main category which is the use of L1, three subcategories were emerged, which are

explanation and clarification, balance in classroom, and creating less intimidating environment for learning.

8.5.1 Explanation and Clarification

According to the participants' comments in this research, the most considerable way in which the L1 is used seems to be in the clarification and the explanation of complex language. This can consider for example, technical terms, but also including the phrases and the words that the teachers notice their students as having difficulty to understand. For instance, the following comment made by Ahmid (the teacher):

Sometimes I use the Arabic language when I feel it is really needed or necessary for example to explain or to clarify or when I notice from their facial expression that they did not understand complex term specially you know that in presentation skills there are many technical terms regarding the use of PowerPoint or the use of the internet. And there are many students do not have laptops or internet so many terms are new for them ... so I mostly use L1 to clarify or explain a phrase or a word that the students facing difficulty in understanding it in the English language. (Ahmid, March 2016)

The study were conducted in a poor area and because of the conflict they lost most of the internet cables and due to the shortage of electricity almost all the area have electricity for only three or four hours a day. Moreover, most of the students do not have computers at home and even those who have do not have internet. Therefore, there were a considerable number of technical terms, regarding the use of computers and PowerPoint some students do not know. Comments made by some students in the focus group indicate that they were grateful and appreciative of such an approach stating by the teacher for example, the following comments are representative:

In my opinion I think that the teachers use the Arabic language when it is necessary inside the classroom...because if the teacher does not use it from time to time to

explain a new or complex words I feel that I lost the track of the discussion and as a result I feel behind which makes me feel isolated. (Focus Group, March 2016)

The above comment mentioned by the student, makes the point about focusing and refocusing very clear as this point suggests that the L1 helps the students to focus more particularly in this context. The students also mentioned other contexts and procedural classroom issues with regard complex language with which they may have difficulty to understand. This is in consistent with the different contexts acknowledged by Macaro (2005) in which the L1 have a tendency to be used. For example, clarifying complex grammatical structures or explaining how an activity or a task should be carried out activities' instruction, building rapport, keeping control and most importantly for the students (what will be on the exams) as one of the students comments:

I can give examples of the contexts when we need the teacher uses the Arabic language, for example explaining the instruction of the different tasks that we have to do in the class and very important when explaining very well the areas of what will be in the exams. (Focus Group, March 2016)

Once again, this matches with the contexts emphasised by Macaro (2005, p. 69) when he claims that the second most shared use of the L1 is in the clarification and the explanation of the complex grammar rules and structures. Macaro also has a pragmatic view in stating the idea when the teachers share the same L1 with the students. He suggests that it might be a positive resource, which may assist the students in learning the L2 with Sonya [the teacher] commenting:

I do not understand why we should look at the use of L1 of course with a limit access in a negative way.....could you tell me if the students do not understand for example the instruction of the task how they will learn or how he or she will carry on the task or take the benefits of the task. (Sonya, March 2016)

With the following representative of some of the students' view, it seems that the latter appear to coincide with the teacher's view regarding this point:

I think a little bit of Arabic will be good.... In those classes where the teachers do not use any Arabic I feel isolated to be honest I feel bored when I do not understand so I think incorporating some Arabic in the class makes it enjoyable and helpful.

We are not asking for using Arabic all the time during the class, as we know that this is our only chance to use the English language we only ask for specific situations when we don't understand instruction or a difficult word... I do not see it as a bad thing [using the L1].

I used to be an A plus student in almost all the modules and my teachers know that but only in some classes that are taught only in L2 I have lower marks because when I don't get the meaning of some words I lose my ability to focus and I cannot get it.

I think the teacher should do their best to use simple language [English] when they want to explain a meaning of a word if they want to use the English language all the time during the class. (Focus Group, March 2016)

From what was mentioned above, it could be seen that the students' responses prefer using the L1 from time to time in different language learning contexts. This also suggests that the students are aware of the benefits of using L1. This was evident when the one of the students said that she loses his ability to focus when he misses the meaning of some words. The following students' responses also confirm that students prefer including L1 in some classes such as grammar and reading and phonetics:

I personally prefer the excluding of the Arabic language in the conversation classes (speaking classes) in which the students can improve their fluency but in other classes like grammar and reading and phonetics we need using some L1 [Arabic language]

Look I think using a little bit of Arabic specially in teaching the grammar rules is very important ... it [the L1] is very central that we understand the rules very well so that we can apply these grammar rules when we use the language. (Focus Group, March 2016)

The following category that is related to making a balance between the time and the use of L1 especially, in this time of disruption and instability in Libya due to the current situation.

8.5.2 Balance in the Classroom

Due to the current crisis of instability in Libya, the time of the academic year has been reduced. Both of the teachers commented that in terms of the time needed to clarify and explain complex core concept, using L1 could be economical for them, but at the same time they have concerns about the amount of L1. Sonya (the teacher) states:

Now the length of each semester was reduced to 8 weeks instead of 12 weeks which means that now we have less time as teachers to teach all the curriculum and do not forget that many times we even stop in between for some days if the conflict and hassles start in this area which happens a lot.....normally in each lesson I have at least three or four tasks to do with the students so for me using L1 to tell the instruction for example to the students really saves time for me and ensure that all the students know what to do at least. (Sonia, March 2016)

I tried both ways (using and not using L1) in explaining complex vocabulary and for instruction as well..... I take really more time when I do not use the L1 especially for the complex core vocabulary because the students cannot master the language in conducting the tasks or the activates if they stuck or do not understand some important words....even the students with high language proficiency level sometimes the activity presented to them might not have been accomplished or completed as effectively without their use of L1. (Ahmid, March 2016)

This is could be perhaps the case for first and second year students coming from a secondary school level where they might not have been exposed to considerable amount of English in their classrooms. These students of course need more time to understand the instruction of conducting the classroom activates. Nonetheless, both of the teachers highlight the fact the use of L1 should be always accompanied with valid and good reason so that it is not used arbitrary. For example to confirm and ensure comprehension,

particularly in explaining grammar at lower proficiency levels, which was also identified by Marcaro (2005) and Tang (2002). However, the latter stresses that there has to be always a valid reasons for using the L1 in language classrooms and it should not be over-used.

Ahmed states:

I think it is very important that we [teachers] should think of how to make a balance in terms of this issue in classrooms [using L1 in teaching L2] because to be honest the reason for using L1 should be clear in our case (the current situation in Libya) it is all about time we need to save time specially for teaching grammar to lower level students..... so I ask the students to use the Arabic language in explaining the structure and grammar rule to me to make sure that they understand very well but at the same time, I do not want it to hear more Arabic than English in my class.

(Ahmid, March 2016)

In this context mentioned by the teacher in the previous comment, he uses a strategy of making the student explain the grammar rule or the instruction of an activity in the Arabic language. This because he wants to make sure that the students get the point and understood what he explains in L2, so that he saves time to repeat the explanation again, in case of the student do not understand what he wants them to do. However, as mentioned before both of the students strive to make a balance regarding this point.

Nonetheless, there are some students who want to study abroad, to follow their higher education in English context have a kind of opposite opinions in terms of if the L1 is over-used inside the classroom. From their opinion, they think if the L1 will be used in unlimited way or excessively in the language classrooms, it will make them less prepared for study abroad in English context.

I feel at ease when the teacher use L1 when they set an activity so that we go directly to the task without spending so much time looking for the meaning of some vocabularies that hinder our capability to do the task.....but I do not want to rely on

using this strategy [using L1 for translating the new words] as I am working very hard to get a scholarship and doing my master in L2 context and I'm not sure if this will be useful for me so I should try to get used to listen to the English language all the time inside the classroom. (Focus Group, March 2016)

Yes, I agree with Yosef (the student above) that more exposure to the English language in the classroom would be very useful in terms of preparing us to get used to it when we go to study abroad in a context of L2 but this does not mean that the teacher should not use L1 at all especially in explaining the grammar rules which I struggle with because we need to make sure that we understand the basics of the language to be able to build on.....so may be it is just a matter of limited amount of L1 that's it. (Focus Group, March 2016)

As we can see even the students who want to get used to use only English in the classroom in order to prepare themselves to study abroad, could not deny the fact that they feel at ease when the teacher uses L1 from time to time. Thus, the teachers from the following comments appear that they are aware of this fact, which will be discussed in the next section.

8.5.3 Creating Less Intimidating Environment

Both of the participant teachers in this study and several students appreciate the occasional usage of L1 in order to create more relaxed and less intimidating environment for the students inside the classroom.

Sonya said:

I can imagine myself when I was a student [language student] hearing English [L2] all the time in the classroom is a shock.....it [the L1] is so helpful in terms of giving example from the real life events or in telling the anecdotes because it [the L1] is familiar and less threatening for the students. (Sonia, March 2016).

Ahmid also commented:

Sharing the native language with the students gives us credits as teachers to create relaxed classroom atmosphere because saying some Arabic phrases from time to time but of course it should be at the right moment helps in building and creating a climate of equality and trust shared with the students..... (Ahmid, March 2016)

Comments by students echoed this opinion with several expressing the perspective that, for example:

I really feel that I am behind when the teacher uses the English language all the time without a consideration that we [students] with different language proficiency levels so I really prefer the teacher to a balance between using English and Arabic until she or he make sure that our levels are improved and become nearly equal.

I do see the benefits of using English all the time I mean only English in the classroom but I would feel more comfortable with at least a bit Arabic in between as sometimes I gave up during the lesson and looking and feel stupid and board as I feel everyone understands except me.

When the teachers sometimes uses the L1 I find the environment relaxed and happy as you know if I cannot understand I feel threatened. (Focus Group, March 2016)

These finding suggest that using the native language, espacially as one of the teachers said if it is shared by the teacher and the students would help in creating less intimidating environment in the classroom. Some researchers such as Storch and Aldosari, (2010), have highlighted this point. Their study was conducted in the Saudi context, and they appreciate the value of using L1 for creating more relaxed environment in the classroom, which as a result may create opportunities for language learning success.

8.6 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I set out to analyse the functions that the native language (the L1) does serve in constructing and creating the learning opportunities in EFL classroom. To achieve this aim I combine the following data sets: Students' feedback report data, transcribed recorded data in which some learning opportunities episodes were taken from, focus group discussion and teachers' comments from the field notes. According to the data of this study, it is clear that the L1 was used for scaffolding to help the students' languaging (producing L2). It is a shared understanding in the classroom a kind of silent understanding, so that a teacher uses the L1, but the students should respond in L2 and continue with L2. This is not automatic that is something particular to the classroom and has been established as a way of doing things in classrooms. It is complex as how it happens is unclear but it has become the context for the phenomenon.

The L1 also served as an emotional mediating tool that helped the students as follows: 'to understand and make sense of the requirements and content of the task; to focus attention on language form, vocabulary use, and overall organization' which coincides with what a social-cultural theory of mind suggests (Swain and Lapkin, 2000, p. 268). It was also used for turning the students' attention for something important regarding the assessment criteria when it needed by the teacher. In addition, what the students mentioned in the focus group and what the teachers commented in the field notes suggest that the maintenance and the development of the L1 in the classroom advocates and supports the creation of the learning opportunities of the second language. Therefore, this also might lead to the seeming paradox that 'the more use of the L1, the higher becomes the learners' proficiency' that was supported by (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Swain, Kinnear & Steinman, 2015). In the next chapter, I look at the findings of this study as a whole by providing an overview of the whole study and a discussion of its findings including the answers of the research questions.

Chapter 9 Discussion

9.1 Introduction

In the previous chapters (6, 7 and 8), I have discussed the links between different types of learning items reported by the students in the questionnaire and some discourse features of teacher talk including the use of L1. The details of these features of teacher talk in these learning opportunities episodes were looked at carefully from conversation analysis view (principles of CA) to find out what made the recalled items (questionnaire data set) salient to the students. The field notes and the students' perceptions in the focus group were included in order to triangulate my interpretation of the discourse data. Therefore, the aim of the previous chapters was not just describing classroom interaction, but to offer fine-grained analysis of micro-contexts of learning opportunity episodes. In this chapter, I offer an overview of the whole study and a discussion of its findings.

9.2 Summary of the Study and its Findings

Following the social cultural theoretical framework (see Chapter 3), I investigated and examined the nature of teacher-students' interaction in EFL classrooms in the Libyan university context in order to understand how learning opportunities can be jointly constructed with the students in a classroom with limited resource environment. Throughout this research, I aim to consolidate and operationalise the notion of learning opportunity as a key concept in understanding classroom learning, so readers can understand learning opportunity as a unit of analysis of classroom interaction that can be constructed jointly by teacher and students in a language classroom. My research questions have focused on:

- a. Defining or characterising learning opportunities as ultimately determined by the students according to their feedback in the recall reports. (RQ1- What kind of

learning opportunities do students construct from classroom interaction and teacher talk?)

- b. Exploring the relationship between what teachers teach and what learners recall in the recall charts. (RQ2- What is the relationship between features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunity?) and
- c. Finding out the relationship between the use of the first language (Arabic) and the construction of learning opportunity. (RQ3- What functions does the L1 serve in teacher/students interaction in the construction of learning opportunity?)

To achieve these specific objectives and to answer the research questions of this study, this research undertook a discourse analysis study guided by a qualitative approach. Data were collected through questionnaire, classroom observation, field notes and focus group interview. The discourse data were analysed by using principles of conversation analysis and Walsh's analytical framework for analysing classroom interaction data. By the use of content analysis, the responses of the students from the focus group, the researcher's field notes were also analysed for the purpose of transparency and triangulation of the data.

9.3 Discussion of Findings

9.3.1 Capturing learning opportunity

The first research question was as follows:

RQ1. What kind of learning opportunities do students construct from classroom interaction and teacher talk?

I analysed these questionnaires to access and see what kind of learning opportunities that arise in the classroom, which the students were able to remember and report them in the questionnaire. The idea was to track these learning items back in the classroom transcription to see what is in the transcription data that connects with the recall data. Then to see if there are relationships between recalling these learning opportunities and the discourse features of teacher talk in order to answer the second research question.

The students in their reports started with more vocabularies in the first weeks, as it seems that they recall what is reportable in the questionnaire, so it tends to be the vocabulary items are somehow more salient as learning opportunities in the classroom talk. Yet, when they became more customized to the questionnaire, they have more categories such as grammar, topic area, skills/strategies and the others. So the categories other than vocabulary as discussed in chapter 6 that they increase every time.

Findings reveal that the number of the recalled learning items in the classes (4, 5, 6, 7 and 10), which are more teacher fronted and have more teacher talk and less students talk, was more than the number of those that were more students-centred and have more students' talk (classes 2, 3, 8, 9, 11 and 12) (see table 6.1). In other words, what seems to be interesting is that there are more recalled items in the classes that are teacher-fronted and have more teacher talk (phonetics and presentation skills) than the other classes which are student-centred and have less teacher talk (the advanced conversation class) (see section 6.4 for more details). The detailed findings in relation to the classification of the learning opportunities have been presented in Chapter 6. Therefore, this study suggests that learning opportunities may arise from the verbal and the non verbal interaction as well and the fact that if the student is silent and does not verbally interact in the classroom does not mean that there is no construction of the learning opportunity.

Actually, this goes in line with a number of studies, which claim that covert involvement can be useful for students who are not participating or taking part in the classroom discourse (Allwright, 1980; Ellis, 1984; Slimani, 1989). Ellis conducted a study to find out the influence of formal instruction on the acquisition of WH questions by children aged between 11 and 15 years old. He pointed out that the student who interacted less showed more progress than high interactors regarding the use of (when) questions. Allwright (1980) explains this contradiction by saying that it might be possible for low input interactors (Seliger, 1977) to progress by listening and attending to high input generators output. Thus, the quietest student in Allwright's study, showed the most improvement in

her language achievement. This was the case in this study as the quietest students recalled more learning items in the questionnaire than the verbally interactive students did. However, in the one hand, Long (1983) and his proponents claim that the greater the quantity of meaning negotiating, the greater the opportunities of language acquisition taking place. Among the interactional features, asking for clarification requests is the predominant features in two-way communication tasks. However, in her studies, Slimani-Rolls (1989; 2005) showed that more than half of the students who asked for information during the interaction did not claim to have learned the explanations offered. The results of her study throw doubt on the necessity of the interactional features that are so much appreciated by the researchers mentioned above.

To my knowledge, this kind of research has been less emphasised in the literature and few studies tackled this issue with a focus on teacher talk. For example, Dobinson (2001) conducted a study to uncover possible links between language learning and classroom interaction, yet the focus was only on learning new vocabularies not learning opportunities in general. The study also investigates if the teacher has a role to play in classroom interaction. In other words, the study aimed to find out if learners came out from lessons equipped with the new vocabulary that are in the teacher's agenda or if these learners retained and recalled different vocabulary were not intended by the teacher. Dobinson's study (2001) focused on retention and recall rather than learning per se as the author felt that learners might not feel confident to claim that they had learnt something 'as learning is difficult to define' but would be more possible to talk about what they could remember or recall from each observed class as the case of the current study (P. 191).

The focus of this study is in line with Slimani (1989) and Dobinson (2001) in terms of looking at the relationship between students' verbal interaction and learning opportunities. However, this study aimed to further the discussion to expand the notion of learning opportunity that is in the interaction through negotiation of meaning by focusing on the learning opportunities that can be generated through the features of teacher talk with or without students explicitly interact or take part in classroom interaction. Both of the above-mentioned studies argue that it was not necessary for some of students in these studies to take part in the interaction to be successful in up taking or recalling new learning items

from the lesson, which coincides what has been found in this study. It seems like some learners could profit from the interaction between the teacher and other students in the lesson without necessarily being involved. Furthermore, they argue that covert participation in the classroom interaction sometimes seemed more effective than overt participation in assisting the recall of these learning items.

Dobinson found out that whether learner initiated or teacher initiated seemed to make slight difference to recall the new vocabulary in the study of Dobinson (2001), unlike the study of Slimani (1989) where she found that learners who topicalize do not necessarily benefit from their involvement as their listeners did. More verbally active learners might offer a linguistic display for silent participants to profit from, so 'learners benefited much more from their peer's rare instance of topicalization' than from the teacher's topicalization' (P. 211). However, these two studies are not the first studies to raise these issues: Schumann and Schumann (1977) and Allwright (1980) as well found evidence to advocate this idea. In these studies, it has been argued that one explanation for the apparent effectiveness of covert participation that what Schumann and Schumann (1977) called (eavesdropping) or Allwright (1980) (spectator interaction) might be mainly effective for learners of this kind in terms of recalling new learning items.

The following research question is discussing how these opportunities are co-constructed in both contexts: less interactive teacher centred and more interactive students' centred contexts. However, this study is not designed to be evaluative so that it does not compare between these two contexts but to provide thick description.

9.3.2 Links between Teacher Talk and Constructing Learning Opportunity

Another set of findings, which have emerged from the data aimed at answering the second research question.

RQ 2 What is the relationship between features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunity?

Findings of the analysis suggest that there is a relationship between the discourse features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunities. These were shown in episodes 7.2, 7.3, 7.4, 7.5 and 7.6 (see Chapter 7 for more details). However, even in the detailed analysis of these excerpts, again there is a number of students who did not verbally interact, but recalled these learning items in the questionnaire. Thus, engaging the learners in this kind of dialogue where they have to think, reflect and interact might not be useful only for the students who overtly interacted in these excerpts but also for other listeners (learners) who were quiet and silent. In other words, it seems like some learners could profit from the interaction between the teacher and other students in the lesson without being verbally involved. This finding also substantiates previous findings in with Slimani's study (1889) who claims that it was not necessary for some of students to take part in the verbal interaction (overt participation) to be successful in recalling new learning items from the lesson.

The endeavour behind this is not just simply to describe classroom interaction, but more importantly; a fine-grained and detailed analysis of micro-contexts of these episodes accompanied with focus group and field notes data so that it might offer us unique insights into the relationship between what teachers teach and what learners learn. Therefore, the answer of this research question aims to contribute to our understanding of how teachers through their classroom talk create learning opportunities for students in language classrooms so that the focus is more about the teaching rather than the learning itself. Therefore, these findings suggest a complexity in terms of how students participate: perhaps they notice when they are participating by listening, rather than when they are speaking. This valuable finding would support the idea of learning opportunities in teacher talk rather than just in student talk.

In this research, it was found that the following discourse features of teacher talk have a relationship with the creation and the construction of the learning items mentioned by the students in the questionnaire. These findings are in consistent with Walsh (2002; 2006;

2011) and Walsh and Li (2013) in terms of suggesting a relationship between discourse features of teacher talk and creating the space for learning opportunity.

Extended wait-time

As mentioned in Chapter 7, the extended wait-time is the time teachers allocate for students to encourage them to answer questions. Many teachers struggle to allow adequate wait-time, (silence) time, in the classroom context. Sometimes silence can be deemed threatening, suggesting the teacher is not performing their job adequately (Brown, 2001). However, confirming what Walsh (2002) has found out. The findings in relations to this features suggest that the extended wait-time contributes to First, increasing the number of learner responses so that the learner is then more likely to produce answers that are more complex. Second, extending learners interaction. Consequently, contributing to the construction of the learning opportunity mentioned by the students in the recall charts.

Teacher Questions

Classrooms around the world in general are dominated by questions and answers routine, and teachers ask most of the question (Tan, 2000). The functions that the feature of asking question in classroom serves are varied. This section focused on finding out if there is a role that teacher questions play in constructing learning opportunity. However, the aim of this study is not to investigate whether the use of different types of questions such as display or referential questions lead to more or less verbal interaction, yet to investigate whether there is a relationship between teacher's question and the salience of the students' recalled learning item. The findings suggest what has been mentioned by (Chaudron, 1988; Tan, 2000) that questioning typically used by the teachers in language classroom to check comprehension, test, activate learners' response, promote involvement and to elicit response.

Walsh (2002, 2006, 2011) declares that if we aim to make the discourse in the language classrooms more communicative, we should use more referential questions that lead to 'greater effort and depth of processing on the part of the teacher, one possible reason for language teachers' preference for display questions over referential questions' (Walsh, 2011, p. 120). Conversely, the analysis highlights that the use of display questions in a kind of communicating way was beneficial in guiding the students to the right answer, or at least to the words that the teacher is looking for in order to rephrase the sentence. Johnson pointed this out in his claim that asking display questions is an extremely complex skill, as it requires a skilful management of students' turn or contribution to bring her/him to the intended answer that the teacher is looking for (Johnson, 1992).

In addition, the use of questions also enables teachers to control the discourse as it is shown in the episode 7.3 particularly, if the teachers know already the answers. In section 7.3, the learner's offer was rejected when the teacher latched a turn asking the student to think of another one, as the word mentioned by the student is not what the teacher is looking for. This made the student to come up with another word, which was accepted by the teacher. This goes inline with Lin (2000). The latter argues that the teachers reject often 'good answers' and this because these answers do not conform to the answers that teachers are looking for, pushing the learners to do their best in order to guess or think what is inside the teacher's head and what he/she is exactly looking for (Lin 2000). This was also confirmed thirty years ago when Van Lier (1988) concluded by arguing that 'an analysis must go beyond simple distinctions taxonomies such as display and referential questions, yes/no and open-ended questions, and so on.... Research into questioning in the L2 classroom must carefully examine the purposes and the effects of questions' (p. 224).

Scaffolding

In section 7.4 where this discourse feature was discussed in detail, it was found that the teacher scaffolded the learners in different ways such as demonstration, modelling, reinforcement and providing definition as proposed in excerpt 7.4. Some researchers claim that the above-mentioned features can be considered as scaffolding strategies or different types of scaffolding (Walsh, 2006; Rajab, 2013). As discussed in chapter two, teachers

utilise scaffolding, by providing the learner with linguistic support at the appropriate time (Kasper, 2001). However, the teacher should also consider what Walsh calls timing and sensitivity ‘timing and sensitivity to learner’s needs are of utmost importance and many teachers intervene too often or too early’ (Walsh, 2006, p. 35). The role of the teacher is to alter the form of the learner’s output, by shaping it into a more acceptable form to provide meaningful support as in the case of excerpt 7.4, so the teachers need to listen carefully and actively.

Content feedback

Regarding the content feedback, it is when the teacher provides feedback on the content of what the learner says, rather than the form it takes. The findings suggests that this kind of feedback creates an environment that pushes the learner to contribute more, by requesting a clarification or a confirmation from the teacher. Thus, there is more chances here to create learning opportunities for students’ involvement in classroom interaction as discussed in Chapter 7 (see section 7.5).

The use of the discourse markers

The frequency of the discourse markers such as (yeah, ok, so, right) in spoken conversation is important comparing to other word forms (Fung & Carter, 2007). According to Dalle and Inglis (1990), discourse markers as one of the discourse features, serves a range of different functions in order to accomplish mutual understanding and intersubjectivity to make sure that the social interaction goes smoothly. In the extract 7.6, I investigated in detail the role that some discourse markers (DMs) play in teacher-student interaction and the relationship between DM and the construction of learning opportunity. The findings in section 7.6 support what has proposed by (Carter & McCarthy, 2006) who suggest that they have a significant role in promoting effective interaction and offering pedagogical clarification particularly in classrooms. In this episode, the teacher as well as the students frequently make use of acknowledgment token to demonstrate mutual understanding such as ‘yeah’,

so that there was no repair in spite of the students' mistakes. These mistakes were totally ignored by the teacher so that the communication was not impeded because of these mistakes (see section 7.6) for more details. This goes in parallel with what Walsh points it out in his work. Walsh highlights the significance of using discourse markers such as the acknowledgment tokens (ugh, yeah, oh), which perform an essential function of what he called 'oiling the wheels of interaction' so that ensuring that everyone in the class knows that s/he is understood by others Walsh (2006, 2011).

The findings in relation to the above mentioned discourse features of teacher talk have been presented in detail in Chapter 7.

9.3.3 The use of L1

RQ 3 What functions does the L1 serve in teacher/students interaction in the construction of learning opportunity?

In chapter 8, which meant to answer the third research question, I set out to analyse the functions that the native language (the L1) does serve in constructing and creating the learning opportunities in EFL classroom. To achieve this aim I combined the following data sets: Students' feedback report data, transcribed recorded data in which some learning opportunities episodes were taken from, focus group discussion and teachers' comments from the field notes.

The data in this study proposed that there is a direct and indirect influence of the use of L1. The direct impact is when there is a direct connection between this discourse feature, which is using L1 in classroom discourse, and the recalled learning opportunities that were mentioned by the students in the questionnaire. The indirect impact would be in creating the suitable and comfortable environment for learning as it was mentioned by the participated students and teachers of this study and was highlighted by some studies in the literature (Nassaji 2009; Storch & Aldosari, 2010) (for a detailed review on this topic see section 3.1.3).

The following section includes the functions that the L1 served in teacher/students interaction as revealed by the analysis of the excerpts that include the recalled learning items, which are related to the use of the shared L1.

L1 for Scaffolding

This section investigated how the L1 is used in explaining difficult grammar, which is the accuracy context. As the data suggests, the teacher tends to employ the L1 to provide scaffolded help for the sake of what Swain called languaging, when using the L1 as a mediating tool to produce L2 forms. Swain uses the word language in a verb form 'languaging', which forces us to understand language as a process rather than as an object (see section 2.1.4).

Thus in a form of Accuracy context, when learners fail to produce the required response, the teacher usually uses the L2 to initiate repair. When learners show no uptake, the teacher switches to L1 to scaffold learners, helping them to be able to produce the targeted response. In other words, the teacher used L1 to serve as a mediating tool to provide scaffolding for the students to produce L2 forms as it was revealed in extract 8.1. According to the data of this study, it might be clear that the L1 was used for scaffolding to help the students' languaging (producing L2). It is a shared understanding in the classroom, a kind of silent understanding, so that a teacher uses the L1, but the students should respond in L2 and continue with L2. This is not automatic, that is something particular to the classroom and has been established as a way of doing things in classrooms. It is complex as how it happens is unclear but it has become the context for the phenomenon.

Emotions and L1

The study suggests that the teachers switch to their language when they want to put emotions as the L1 is shared between the teacher and the students. This lends support substantiates number of code switching research that emphasising the importance of

emotion gearshift in classrooms (Harbord, 2012; Storch & Aldosari, 2010). The example of this is as it happened in extract 8.2 when the teacher used L1 to add a sense of humour to explain about the grammatical mistake that led to totally different meaning from the one that intended by the learner. The teachers used L1 for lowering student anxiety as well, which was emphasised by (Bruen & Kelly, 2017). As they claim that, the use of L1 for reducing student anxiety is very desirable aim and greatly to be encouraged to achieve good teacher-student rapport.

In addition, the teacher in the examples 8.3 and 8.4 used the L1 in order to attach the emotional side of the current political situation in Libya to these examples. Viewed from this perspective, these episodes might be evidence for students' recall to the word ISIS and the two uses of the word bullet in which the emotional connection plays an important role in making these learning items salient to them.

The Use of L1 and Turning Students' Attention

Another function of L1 is when the teacher used it for turning students' attention to something important regarding assessment criteria of their presentations. Therefore, the teacher in extract 8.5 used the first language to focus the students' attention to the importance of using visual aids in their presentations. My main aim for analysing this excerpt is to see what made this phrase in particular salient to 13 students as this number is considered significant comparing to other numbers of students' recall in this study. The teacher used L1 to confirm that all the students must use visual aids in their presentations. This gives the impression that it is very important to use visual aids when they will do their presentations, as the students will be assessed based on these presentations. This coincides with what some of the students mentioned in the focus group. As a result, it might be one of the reasons that made the students notice and recall this phrase and the number of recalls suggests that his strategy is successful.

Nevertheless, from CA perspective, it might not be only the use of L1 that made the phrase 'visual aids' in the extract 8.5 salient to the students in this example. This because in this excerpt there is a significant number of overlaps (turns 449 and 450; 460 and 461) and latches (turns 452, 453 and 454) as examples of some features of naturally occurring conversation. From the perspective of conversation analysis, the more natural occurring

conversation in the class the more L2 learning take place. Therefore, in analysing this discourse, the overlaps and the latches were taken into consideration to investigate how the teacher and the students co-construct learning opportunities.

Another set of findings from the current study is related to the use of L1 in the classroom. Unlike the other issues that were discussed in the focus group with the students and with the teachers in their comments in the field notes, when it comes to the issue of using the native language (L1). Both of the participant parties (students and teachers) become very excited (students and teachers) when they talk about this point. Therefore, I decided to dedicate a whole section in Chapter 8 to discuss their comments about this point as it might give an impression that it has really a significant impact whether it is direct or indirect on their recall to the learning opportunities that are connected to this discourse feature, which is using L1 in classroom discourse.

9.3.4 Discussion of Focus Group and Teachers' Comments in Field Notes

The participated students and teachers in this study mentioned different reasons and functions for using the L1. Under this main category which is the use of L1, three subcategories were emerged from the data, which are explanation and clarification, balance in classroom, and creating less intimidating environment for learning.

Explanation and Clarification

According to the participants' comments in this research, the most considerable way in which the L1 is used seems to be in the clarification and the explanation of complex language. This can consider for example, technical terms, but also including the phrases and the words that the teachers notice their students as having difficulty to understand. This is in consistent with the different contexts acknowledged by Macaro (2005) in which the L1 have a tendency to be used.

One of the comments mentioned by the student in section 8.5.1 makes the point about focusing and refocusing very clear regarding explaining a new or complex words as this point suggests that

the L1 helps the students to focus more particularly in such contexts. The students also mentioned other contexts and procedural classroom issues with regard complex language with which they may have difficulty to understand.

Balance in the Classroom

Both of the teachers commented that in terms of the time needed to clarify and explain complex core concept, using L1 could be economical for them, but at the same time they have concerns about the amount of L1. This is due to the current crisis of instability in Libya as the time of the academic year has been reduced, and the teacher have a very short time to finish the curriculum.

According to the findings related to this point, the teachers used the L1 to confirm and ensure comprehension, particularly in explaining grammar at lower proficiency levels, which was also identified by Marcaro (2005) and Tang (2002). One of the teachers also makes the students explain the grammar rule or the instruction of an activity in the Arabic language. This because he wants to make sure that the students get the point and understood what he explains in L2, so that he saves time to repeat the explanation again, in case of the student do not understand what he wants them to do. However, as mentioned before both of the teachers strive to make a balance regarding this point.

Creating Less Intimidating Environment

The last point in relation to the use of L1 in this section, was stressed by both of the participant teachers and several students. They appreciate the occasional usage of L1 in order to create more relaxed and less intimidating environment for the students inside the classroom. These finding suggest that using the native language, especially as one of the teachers said if it is shared by the teacher and the students would help in creating less intimidating environment in the classroom. Some researchers such as Storch and Aldosari, (2010), have highlighted this point. Their study was conducted in the Saudi context, and they appreciate the value of using L1 for creating more relaxed environment in the classroom, which as a result may create opportunities for language learning success.

To conclude, striving to get a balance in this controversial issue, which is using the native language especially if it is shared between the students and the teacher is challenging for the teachers. However, the data suggests that L1 was used for scaffolding to help the students' languaging (producing L2). It is a shared understanding in the classroom a kind of silent understanding, so that a teacher uses the L1, but the students should respond in L2 and continue with L2. This is not automatic that is something particular to the classroom and has been established as a way of doing things in classrooms.

The L1 also served as an emotional mediating tool that helped the students as follows: 'to understand and make sense of the requirements and content of the task; to focus attention on language form, vocabulary use, and overall organization' which coincides with what a social-cultural theory of mind suggests (Swain & Lapkin, 2000, p. 268). It was also used for turning the students' attention for something important regarding the assessment criteria when it needed by the teacher. In addition, what the students mentioned in the focus group and what the teachers commented in the field notes suggest that the maintenance and the development of the L1 in the classroom advocates and supports the creation of the learning opportunities of the second language. Therefore, this also might lead to the seeming paradox that 'the more use of the L1, the higher becomes the learners' proficiency' that was supported by (Swain & Lapkin ,2000; Swain, Kinnear & Steinman, 2015).

9.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, an overview of the whole study and a discussion of its findings was provided. In the next final chapter, I summarise how the findings of this research contribute to the knowledge of the field. The limitations and the difficulties experienced during the research journey will be discussed. I also provide implications and recommendation for further research.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

This final chapter will conclude the study as it summarises the main areas covered in this thesis. It starts with thesis overview (Section 10.2) with regard to the research questions, findings and suggestions presented in earlier chapters. Then, it highlights the contribution of the study (Section 10.3) and provides the limitations and difficulties experienced during the journey of this research (Section 10.4). Lastly, the chapter ends by discussing implications and suggestions for further studies (Section 10.5).

10.2 Thesis Overview

This study offers a multi-layered analytical approach to investigating the role of teacher talk in creating the learning opportunities in the Libyan university context in order to answer the following three research questions:

RQ1: What kind of learning opportunities do students construct from classroom interaction and teacher talk?

RQ2: What is the relationship between features of teacher talk and the experience of learning opportunity?

RQ3: What functions does the L1 serve in teacher/students interaction in the creation of learning opportunity?

In the literature review, a research gap was identified which is the idea of learning opportunity as a concept is widely used and found in the literature, typically without explicit definition and without showing what learning opportunities might look like in the discourse (Alwright, 2005; Crabbe, 2003; Crabbe, 2007; Zhu, 2016). In addition, few studies have been conducted to focus on teacher talk and classroom interaction so that this area of research is less emphasised. These studies have mainly focused on small-group or one-to-one interactions and have been carried out in first language learning contexts (Cazden,

2001, Hellermann, 2005; Marshall et al, 2009). Even when similar studies have been conducted in second language environments, researchers more often investigate classroom discourse in lower-level language classrooms (Hall, 1995, 1998, 2004; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Ho, 2006).

In response to the above research needs, Chapters 2 and 3 were allocated to discuss the theoretical and the conceptual frameworks that underpin this research. In Chapter 2, I provided an overview about the notion of social-cultural theory and its relevant constructs.

In Chapter 3, the conceptual framework reviewed the themes and the concepts of classroom interaction, teacher talk and learning opportunity and identified key concepts relevant to the present study. Chapters 4 and 5 propose a fine-grained, multi-layered analytical approach. Chapter 4 was devoted to the research design. It provides a detailed discussion about employing a qualitative discourse analysis study as a design frame for this research including the role of reflexivity. This chapter also tackled the issues of trustworthiness and generalisability in this research. In further sections, the course, the research sitting and the criteria for sampling and participants are described as well. In Chapter 5, the methodological advantages and challenges of combining all the research and analysis instruments used in this research were discussed and evaluated. Chapter 5 further explored the practical issues raised in the data preparation, treatment and analysis phases of research design.

Chapter 6, 7 and 8 presented the analysis and findings using a multi-layered analytical approach, and in an integrated way, these chapters further extended the discussion by linking the current findings to the literature.

Chapter 6 presented the analysis and findings of the data derived from two instruments, which are the questionnaire data set and transcriptions of the recorded classroom data set. This chapter provided a fine-grained analysis, which is led by what the students take from the lesson (recall data). Thus, it indicated what is in the classroom process that seems to

be memorable and significant in some ways for the students. The questionnaires were coded and analysed to access the learning opportunities that arise in the classroom, which the students were able to remember and recall them in the questionnaire. These learning items in the questionnaire were tracked back in the classroom transcription in order to find out connections between the recalled learning items and classroom discourse data set. Two interesting findings arose from the analysis of this chapter that attesting some of the complex nature of the real practice of classroom interaction.

First, the number of the recalled learning items in the classes that are more teacher fronted and have more teacher talk and less students talk, was more than the number of those that were more students-fronted and have more students' talk. Moreover, it was not necessary for some of students to take part in the verbal interaction to be successful in recalling new learning items from the lesson. Furthermore, the data suggests that covert participation in the classroom interaction sometimes seemed more effective than overt participation in assisting the recall of these learning items. Second, there are some recalled items in the questionnaires take place in more than one episodes of various length existing in different parts of the transcript. In addition, while most of the items were found in the transcription of the recorded classrooms, a few were found in the field notes, some were written on the board and some were found in the course materials and textbooks. However, a few are not found in the transcripts, field notes and course materials, one can suggests that the explanation for their existence in the questionnaires might be that what went on during the lessons reinforced maybe some previous learning and thought those particular back to the learners' mind.

From a conversation analysis perspective, chapter 7 was set out to offer fine-grained analysis of micro-contexts that focuses on the connections between what the students reported in the questionnaire and some discourse features of teacher talk. In other words, looking at the analysis from the point of view of salience so that what the students are noticing as salient in the class. In order to triangulate the transcribed data of the recorded classrooms, the field notes and the students' perceptions were included as well. The endeavour behind this is not just simply to describe classroom interaction, but more importantly; a fine-grained and detailed analysis of micro-contexts of these episodes

accompanied with focus group and field notes data so that it might offer us unique insights into the relationship between what teachers teach and what learners learn. This might be achieved by looking at the moment-by-moment management of topics and turns in the interaction or the discourse.

The findings of this chapter suggest that there is a relationship between the discourse features of teacher talk and the construction of learning opportunity by the students. In this chapter, also it has been documented that covert participation in the classroom interaction sometimes seemed more effective than overt participation in assisting the recall of these learning items. Therefore, findings suggest that it seems like some learners could profit from the interaction between the teacher and other students in the lesson without necessarily being verbally involved.

In chapter 8, one of the main discourse features, which is the use of L1 was looked at carefully. In the analysis, I focused on exploring the role of L1 that plays in constructing learning opportunities in the particular situations that I examine, in EFL Libyan university context. All the data sets of this study were combined to conduct the analysis that is related to the use of L1. In this chapter, the findings suggest that the L1 served as an emotional mediating tool that helped the students as follows: for turning their attention to something important related to assessment criteria, to language form, vocabulary use and overall organization. The use of the first language was also found to play an important role as it served as an emotional mediating tool for scaffolding, languaging (producing L2). The analysis of the teachers' comments in the field notes and the students' feedback in the focus groups suggest that the maintenance of some of the L1 in the classroom advocates and supports the creation of the suitable environment that leads to the creation of learning opportunities of the second language.

Overall, as discussed in Chapter 9, these findings contribute to our understanding of how teachers through their classroom talk create learning opportunities for students in

language classrooms so that the focus of this research is more about the teaching rather than the learning itself. Therefore, these findings suggest a complexity in terms of how students participate: perhaps they notice when they are participating by listening, rather than when they are speaking. This valuable finding would support the idea of learning opportunities in teacher talk rather than just in student talk.

10.3 Contributions of the Study

10.3.1 The Concept of Learning Opportunity

As mentioned in different parts of this study, the concept of learning opportunity is widely used in the literature without clarifying what it looks like in the data (discourse). This research extends our knowledge of the notion of learning opportunity and classroom interaction by providing new conceptualisation of learning opportunity as a unit of analysis in the discourse of classroom interaction.

Learning opportunity in this study is not the final product represented by learning outcomes. Learning opportunity in this research is represented as junctions that come together. It is the space for learning constructed by both parties the teacher and the students (Walsh & Li, 2013). It is when we have the attention of the students and then the focus of the teacher and somehow they touch in this spot or this junction and wherever there is a junction there is a constructed learning opportunity. In this research, it is always from the learning opportunity to reasons for students' recall I am trying to know something. Although it cannot be seen clearly from the surface of the discourse as it happens inside the head, yet, what can be possible, is to see some patterns in a way that there is an accumulative effect, so the teacher says something and for example to come back again to the same point to add an emphasis. In this way, there is this kind of discourse in classroom repetition of the same message a significant way of reinforcing. In other words, this research aims to engage with the concept of learning opportunity and classroom interaction. Therefore, throughout the process of analysis, I was not trying to be reductionist or to simplify the concept of learning opportunity to claim that it can be easily visible in the data. Learning opportunity as mentioned above is a cognitive interactional

space for learning within effective social and emotional dimensions and it is individual, situated and complex.

The findings of this study suggest that the important factors that affect the construction of learning opportunity are the whole idea of engagement and learner agency. In language classrooms, the language is the means and the aim at the same time (Hall, 2011, p. 32). Thus, it may not be how well the course is designed or how well the teacher interacts, instructs or gives feedback. A key factor is how on task the learner is actively and cognitively engaged. What I propose throughout this research is that if the student notices something that has salience and recalls in the questionnaire, I construct this learning item as a learning opportunity. Hence, it is not just the input; it is the input that is engaged with. This concurs well with Zhu's claim when he considers learners' engagement in learning activity is very essential condition for learning. Furthermore, Zhu stresses that the learners' agency play an important role as well in learning opportunity (Zhu, 2016).

Henceforth, the learner agency plays an important role in the co-construction of the meaning with the help of the teacher. The dataset from the student in this study shows how they are pulling the learning opportunities not just the teacher pushing, so the learning opportunity is co-constructed jointly by the students and the teacher. In effect, learners are agentive so that they bring strategies, choices, and cognition to a language learning task (Van Lier, 1996). Van Lier suggests that if learners are agentive so they bring strategies, choices, and cognition to a language learning task (Van Lier, 1996). Consequently, it suggests that the greater agency the students show in the process, the greater potential for learning they have, but it is not necessarily the case for the learners who verbally interact. The learning opportunity and classroom interaction is a joint endeavour as described by Breen (2001) it is 'Jointly constructed: whether or not the teacher plans a lesson in advance, the actual working out of the lesson (and the language within it) is a joint endeavour' (p. 129).

10.4 Limitations and Difficulties Experienced During Research

The methodology adapted in this research did not come without challenges. As discussed in limitations provided in the chapter of research instruments (see section 5.2), the first challenge was collecting video-recorded data. It was not possible to have the teachers' and the students' agreement to be video recorded. Their reasons for refusing to be video recorded were not always clear. Reasons could include indifference, such as their language proficiency and the fact that most of the students were obviously females, as they have their cultural justification for their refusal. Therefore, I only had the chance to have audio-recorded classroom data. Consequently, in spite of documenting the non-linguistic details as much as possible in my field notes, a significant amount of these details and body language including gestures were missed. The communication in classroom is multimode and focusing only on language means missing out body language and gestures. The second challenge was conducting the transcription process of the audio-recorded classrooms data. It was painstaking process and took much more time than expected due to the difficulty of understanding teachers and students' pronunciation and adding the CA details and conventions.

In addition, as a limitation in this study, there is a lack of a balanced proportion of corpus representation. As mentioned in Chapter 6 that the decision about which excerpts should be included in the analysis was made upon the top recalled learning opportunity episodes. As a result, the majority of the representative episodes come from three classes out of the 12 classes. Moreover, as there is one episode for each learning reported item in the questionnaire, it ended up with a significant number of episodes, so it was not possible to include all of them in the analysis. Moreover, It was not possible to explore all the connections of the telling excerpts that represent the 'particular personal insights which resonate in terms of the connections they make' (Kiely & Askham, 2012, p. 506).

This research does not achieve everything in explaining some aspects of learning, yet it does provide a perspective on how students construct and make sense of their teacher talk. However, it might be better if I could have the chance to conduct a stimulated recall with

the teachers to ask them about specific decisions that were made regarding particular episodes.

10.5 Implication and Further Avenue for Research

For improving teacher education, we need to understand what quality interaction is. This kind of research can familiarize teachers with these discourse features and patterns that might construct learning opportunity. Means, this research where the findings have the potential to improve the work of the teachers might lead to improve the language curriculum. Therefore, this study has gone some way towards enhancing our understanding of the complexity of the concept of learning opportunity, and the ways classroom interaction facilitates learning.

The study also suggests teacher education programmes should raise teachers' awareness and to enable them to be reflective practitioners to improve their language classroom and to improve the context of instructed second language acquisition. Furthermore, these programmes should raise teachers' awareness of the ways their language use (including the use of L1) facilitates learning, as it has a direct effect on the construction of learning opportunities in EFL classrooms and an indirect effect on improving the quality of classroom life. In other words, In order to improve language classrooms, the study suggests teacher education programmes especially these within a reflective practice framework should help the teachers understand, reflect and improve their teaching. Exploring the notion of learning opportunity might be a focused way in which this can be achieved. As once we have a better understanding of what learning opportunities are from the research then, a better teacher learning and reflection experience can be designed. Hence, the teacher can be more aware and more sensitised to how their classroom work and the language classroom become more student-centred.

This research is focusing on learning opportunity as a part of product (learning outcome). More research is needed to better understand how learning outcomes result from learning

opportunities. In addition, as mentioned in Chapter 2, the total number of the transcribed recorded classrooms is nearly 500 pages with fine-grained CA transcription. Thus, I would like to take this research further in the future to write papers that focus more on the conceptualising the notion of engagement. A considerable number of research show how central this is to learning, yet it is still unclear what facilitates, supports, grows engagement in classrooms. In addition, more research needed that focus on investigating the relationship between the concept of languaging and the construct of zone of proximal development (ZPD).

Appendix A Questionnaire

Question: What points have you come up in today's DATE/التاريخ/
lessons? Please answer FULLY and in DETIALS. Try to remember EVERYTHING Name/
الاسم:.....

سؤال: اجب على السؤال التالي بالتفصيل إذا أمكن. من فضلك حاول ان تتنكر اي شيء

1. Grammar: قواعد :

2. Words and phrases: كلمات : عبارات

3. Ways of using the languages:

طرق لاستخدام اللغة :

الإنجليزية

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

4. Ideas of how I can learn better:

أفكار عن امكانية التعلم بشكل

... :أفضل

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

5. Other (s).....(Please specify)

أشياء اخرى.....(حدد من فضلك)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

أشكركم علي حسن تعاونكم/ Thank you so much for you cooperation/

Appendix B Focus Group Guide

Focus group guide

Introduction	<p>THE ROLE OF TEACHER TALK IN CREATING LEARNING OPPORTUNITY IN EFL CLASSROOM IN THE LIBYAN UNIVERSITY CONTEXT</p> <p>My name is Rima Eshkal. First, I would like to thank all of you for your coming and taking part in my study. I'm PhD student at the University of Southampton and I'm conducting a research about classroom interaction and teacher talk in EFL classroom and now I'm collecting the data for this research.</p> <p>As I mentioned before that your participation in this study is voluntary and please feel free to leave the discussion if you feel uncomfortable at any time. However, I really wish that you could stay and share your feedback as your opinions are really valuable for my research. All what you will say will be confidential and none of your teachers will know anything from what you will say in this discussion. Please feel free to say any thing comes in your mind and no matter how you feel that it is not very important, as everything that you will say is very important for my research.</p> <p>I will only be the moderator as I will not participate in the discussion so please when I ask you a question please feel free to discuss it together without waiting for me directing who should talk, but please I would be so appreciated if you can speak one at a time so what you will say will be clear in the recording.</p>
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Introductory section	So now, first please introduce yourself and tell me in which year you are.
Questions	<p>What do think about your teacher talk? Does your teacher allow you enough time to practise the language?</p> <p>Do you feel free to interrupt and ask the teacher questions about something that you don't understand it during the lesson?</p> <p>How about using L1 in the classroom whether you or the teacher? What do you think about it?</p> <p>Which class you prefer? The interactive or the less interactive and why?</p> <p>Do you find it easier to answer the questionnaire after the first time please tell me your experience about answering the questionnaire?</p>
Conclusion	We are now have to leave there unless anyone have any other comments to add before we end the discussion. I would like to thank you all so much for your participation in this focus group, your feedback and opinions are really very valuable and useful for this research.

Appendix C Arabic Consent Form

(نموذج موافقة)

عنوان الدراسة: دور اللغة التي يستعملها المدرس في خلق فرص للتعلم في فصل اللغة الانجليزية في الجامعات الليبية

اسم الباحث: ريم البرانى اشكال

من فضلك قم بوضع علامة ✓ أمام العبارات التالية إذا كنت توافق على محتواها:

- لقد فهمت المراد من الدراسة ولدي الحق في السؤال عنها متى ما

- أوافق على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة البحثية ولا أمانع في استخدام بياناتي لغرض الدراسة

- أدرك أن مشاركتي في هذه الدراسة تطوعية ويحق لي الانسحاب منها متى ما

كما أني أدرك أن معلوماتي وبياناتي المقدمة أثناء مشاركتي في هذه الدراسة ستحفظ بسرية تامة ولا يحق لأي أحد سوى الباحث ومشرفه الاطلاع عليها. كما أن جميع البيانات ستستخدم فقط لأغراض هذه الدراسة.

الاسم:

التوقيع:

التاريخ:

Appendix D English Consent Form

Study title: The role of teacher talk in creating learning opportunity in EFL classrooms in the Libyan university context

Researcher name: Rima Eshkal

Staff/Student number: 24591882

ERGO reference number:

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (insert date /version no. of participant information sheet) and have had the

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Appendix E Participant Sheet

Participant Information Sheet (Face to Face)

Study Title: The role of teacher talk in creating learning opportunity in EFL classroom in the Libyan university context.

Researcher: Rima Eshkal

Ethics number:

Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

What is the research about?

This research is conducted as part of the requirements needed for PhD degree in Applied Linguistics. The researcher is a PhD student at University of Southampton, the UK, who is interested in classroom interaction and how the teacher by their use of language create more opportunities for language learner to uptake and what are the factors that affect this process. Thus throughout my research I will try to answers these questions:

1. *How does teacher talk and the interaction around it constitute learning opportunities in ESL classroom?*

1a. *What features of language use that might enable teachers to construct or obstruct Learning opportunities?*

1b. *What are the students' perception towards the use of language of their teachers*

2. *What is the relationship between features of language use and the creation of learning opportunities?*
3. *What functions does the L1 serve in teacher/learners' interaction in the creation of learning opportunities?*

This project is funded by the Libyan government and sponsored by the University of Southampton.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen to take part in this study as you are learning English in Libya in a university level. Or, you teach English as a foreign language in Libya for university students.

What will happen to me if I take part?

First of all, I will observe one EFL classroom twice a week for six weeks. During the observation I will do 2 things, audio record the classes and take field notes in order to capture any aspects such as body language or gestures for example, if the teacher or one of the students answer question by nodding this will not appear in the audio data so I need to write down this in my field notes. At the end of each observed lessons, the students will be asked to answer open ended questionnaire. After these six weeks I will conduct 2 focus groups and the number of the students will be around 5 students each. In these focus groups I will ask the students simply how was it the process of answering the questionnaire and if they have something to add about what they have learnt from these classes and what their perceptions

towards the use of language of their teachers and what they think about using the first language which is (Arabic language) whether by their teacher or by them. Therefore, for the teacher and the students, when you take part in this study you should be aware that this study will last for six weeks and during these six weeks the researcher will observe the class twice a week and the observed classes will be audio recorded. All the students of this class will be expected to fill the questionnaire at the end of each observed class [the time needed for questionnaire is about 10 minutes]. The researcher will also ask some students to participate in the focus group.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

In my research, it might be no benefits to the teacher or to the students. However, the benefit will be adding to current knowledge regarding the role of the teacher talk and the interaction around it in creating learning opportunities to the language learners. Teaching English is different from teaching other subjects such as history or math. In language teaching the mean and the aim are the same, so that we teach the language by the use of language. Therefore, according to some research such as (Wlash, 2006) learning opportunity in language classroom cannot be predicted from the lesson plan or the classroom material such as textbooks. I aim to show that students might learn from the teacher talk and the interaction around it more than from points planned in the textbook or in the lesson plan.

Are there any risks involved?

No sensitive topics (such as politics or other issues regarding their private life) will be included in the questionnaire or in the focus group questions. As far as I concern, this is the only risk in my research which is asking sensitive questions regarding politics or private issues and both of them will not be included in my research

Will my participation be confidential?

First all the information obtained from or about participant will be kept on a password-protected computer. Secondly, the participant will be given pseudo names in my research (in the transcribed data of the audio recording, questionnaire and focus group participants) and as I mentioned above no sensitive topics (such as politics or other issues regarding their private life) will be included in the questionnaire or in the focus group questions Thirdly, collected data will not be shown by or displayed to any person, including their class teacher, other than the researcher and his supervisor.

What happens if I change my mind?

Your participation in this research is voluntary. Once you change your mind and want withdraw, you can do this without being required to even give a reason. This will not affect your study at all. It would be highly appreciated if you just let the research know. In addition, you will have the opportunity to attend other classes, so that their learning is not disadvantaged by your withdrawal.

What happens if something goes wrong?

If you have any concerns or complaints, you can contact The Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee Prof Chris Janaway (02380593424, c.janaway@soton.ac.uk). Or, Research Governance (02380 595058, mad4@soton.ac.uk) is happy to be the named party.

Where can I get more information?

Contact Rima Eshkal at 00218912124617, 00447827397736 or email me at ree1g13@soton.ac.uk or contact my supervisor Richard Kiely at his email R.N.Kiely@soton.ac.uk

Appendix F Transcription Convention

Key to transcription

The conventions that I used in this transcription were adapted from (Richards, 2003; Mackey and Gass, 2005; Wray et al 1998). I created only one convention that refers to utterances that are quieter than surrounding.

Speakers:

T: refers to the teacher

xs: refers to unknown student

Ss: refers to more than one unknown students

Key conventions:

(.) Pause of about less than one second, but above this will be with number

[] Overlaps

— Underline for making emphasis

() Unsure transcription

xxx Unable to transcribe

= Latched utterances

[[Speakers start at the same time

? Resining intonation

. Falling intonation

:: Sound stretching

< > Speaking modes

{ } Contextual events or translation for Arabic words

- A hyphen to refers that a word has started but not finished

** Two asterisks to refer to utterances that are quieter than surrounded

Appendix G Field note sample

	15/03/2016	class 1
		presentation skills
1	warming up [lit 10 mins]	
1	Asking about weekend.	on the board
1	* Have you been to Farium.	Introducing main points
1	* sensitive topic → change it.	
1	* 9:35 - Denas. What about me	
1	→ all up →	
1	* practice: everyone introduce her/his topic. * 9:41: Animal. but we don't merge topics yet	activity
1	→ changing mind.	start a video Tips for perfect presentation
1	* listening to the video.	listen again.
1	7 mins.	
1	* I going around the tables checking student playing w/ phone	

Appendix H Focus Group 2 (Use of L1)

Rima	How about you Sana	
Sana	<p>I really feel that I am behind when the teacher uses the English language all the time without a consideration that we [students] with different language proficiency levels so I really prefer the teacher to a balance between using English and Arabic until she or he make sure that our levels are improved and become nearly equal.....I do see the benefits of using English all the time I mean only English in the classroom but I would feel more comfortable with at least a bit Arabic in between as sometimes I gave up during the lesson and looking and feel stupid and board as I feel everyone understands except me.....When the teachers sometimes uses the L1 I find the environment relaxed and happy as you know if I cannot understand I feel threatened.</p>	less intimidating environment
Waleed	<p>I feel actually the same (as Sana) I really hate it when the teacher uses english all the time and my mind starts to think about things totally outside the class as I'm not with them (the students) and onestly I feel like the teacher by totally exluding te L1, she is ignoring us and focusing on only the students with good English level.</p>	less intimidating environment
Safinaz	<p>For me the L1 works as an alert I do not know why maybe because Mr Ahmed normally when he wants to point out something important he says that in Arabic so my brain sends signal that tooot (imitating car honk) to wake me up (loughter)</p>	Turning attention

Omnia	'actually it is very rare that the teacher uses the Arabic language but when he says something in Arabic usually to refer to something that most likely important for the exam'.	Turning attention
Hisham	If we just get some hints about the meaning of difficult words or when he (the teacher) wants us (students) to do some activities or tasks we ned to understand at least the method or how to do it in Arabic because that's unfair when I look around I see some of my classmates immediately start working out the task but some other we need to wait until we get some help	Explanation and clarification
Fatima	In my opinion I think that the teachers use the Arabic language when it is necessary inside the classroom...because if the teacher does not use it from time to time to explain a new or complex words I feel that I lost the track of the discussion and as a result I feel behind which makes me feel isolated	Explanation and clarification
Malak	I think we need it in explaining the instruction of the different tasks that we have to do in the class and very important when explaining very well the areas of what will be in the exams.	Explanation and clarification

Appendix J Field notes (Teachers comments) Sonya

Class	Comments	Theme
Class 3	If you notice today when I asked them couple of questions at the beginning and they were very easy questions from the previous classes only one or two students could answer them..... they were very easy especially the last question about opinions it's just opinions it was just to make them participate but it's very difficult to make students of this class talk	questions
Class 3	of course I know that it advisable to allow sufficient time for the student after asking questions but as I told you we have only six weeks to cover all this syllabus if I will wait each time I ask question it will be impossible to finish on time and also sometimes silence for some students means time for chat about something outside the class	Wait-time
Class 3	Imagine if as in the case of one my classes if I have around 20 students and if I allow an opportunity for each one of the students to talk for 2 minutes and wait for their answers when I ask them for extra couple of seconds ... so will I have enough time time to finish at least half of the textbook.... I know it is a language classroom and students' participation is an important part of it but I have no choice I need to finish the text book.	Wait-time/students' participation
Class 4	Now the length of each semester was reduced to 8 weeks instead of 12 weeks which means that now we have less time as teachers to teach all the curriculum and do not forget that many times we even stop in between for some	The use of L1

	days if the conflict and hassles start in this area which happens a lot.....normally in each lesson I have at least three or four tasks to do with the students so for me using L1 to tell the instruction for example to the students really saves time for me and ensure that all the students know what to do at least.	
Class 4	I do not understand why we should look at the use of L1 of course with a limit access in a negative way.....could you tell me if the students do not understand for example the instruction of the task how they will learn or how he or she will carry on the task or take the benefits of the task.	The use of L1

Appendix L Classroom Observation Sample (Transcription)

1.	0:00	Ss:	choosing a subject=
2.	0:02	T:	= ok what else=
3.	0:03	Ss:	xxx choosing information about xxx
4.	0:10	T:	ah=
5.	0:11	Mona	=choosing information xx
6.	0:12	T:	choosing sorry (1)
7.	0:13	Mona :	information=
8.	0.14	T:	=ah xxxxx information yea what else what kind of
9.			information you need
10.	0.20	Ss:	the general idea xxx the general aaa information but
11.			aaa speaker
12.	0.24	T:	ah (4) yea that's why xxx delay [to prompt you xx
13.	0.28	Ss:	[Laughter
14.	0.31	T:	yea what else (3)
15.	0.33	Hana :	choosing attractive topic (2)
16.	0.35	T:	choosing what (1)
17.	0.36	Hana :	attractive topic=
18.	0.37	T:	=ahhhh [its very xx and most important thing

19.	0.39	Ss:	[and discuss xxx and xxx=
20.	0.41	T:	=is to choose what (1)
21.	0.43	Ss:	=attractive topic=
22.	0.45	T:	ah not only attractive but xxx which you
23.			interested in yea the topic that you are
24.			interested=
25.	0.53	Ss:	in=
26.	0.54	T:	=in think about topics which are not interesting (1)
27.	0.57	Ss:	no no=
28.	0.59	T:	= xx be boring yea
29.	1.02	Ss:	yeaaa
30.	1.02	T:	silence (doing sth for 20 second)
31.	1.22	T:	xxxxxxxxxxxx what else what else you need to
32.			prepare (3) do you need to be ready (1)
33.	1.29	Ss:	yes yes (xxx lesson)
34.	1.32	T:	ah
35.	1.33	Ss:	xxx [xx
36.	1.34	T:	[do you need to practise=
37.	1.34	Ss:	=simply ya sure xxx=
38.	1.36	T:	=before you come
39.	1.38	Ss:	xxxx smile (2)
40.	1.40	T:	do you need to do rehearsal=
41.	1.40	Ss:	=yes ya xxx=
42.	1.41	T:	=rehearsal is like practice yea=
43.	1.44	T:	= aha [before you come and aha
44.	1.44	Ss:	= [yes xxx
45.	1.46	T:	what do you need to do (2) do you need to
46.			practise and prepare (6)
47.	1.51	Seha m:	xxx to manage your work xxx to the students (2)
48.	1.59	T:	ah to manage(2)

49.	2.01	Seha m:	yeaa to manage
50.	2.03	T:	to manage what (2) yea you need to think to manage aha to manage what (3)
51.	2.08	Ss:	xxx control time=
52.	2.08	T:	yea this the major thing yea (some knocked the door xxx (15))
53.	2:23		you need to control what to manage what (2)
54.	2:25	Ss:	xxx time=
55.	2.26	T:	=to manage the time (1) what else (2)
56.	2.28	Seha m:	you have specific time to do the presentation (1)
57.	2.30	T:	aha what else (3) you need to manage what (4) [aha
58.			what else
59.	2.34	Xs:	[aha
60.	2.37	T:	you need to manage you fear right(2)
61.	2.35	Ss:	yea like your anxiety xxx some confidence may be =
62.	2.36	T:	yeaaa you [need to manage your anxiety
63.	2.38	Ss:	[xxxx
64.	2.41	T:	aha xxx you may be anxious at some xxx kind of
65.			anxiety or reluctance to speak or afraid to talk
66.			about xxx in front of audience [right
67.	2.48	Ss:	[yeaa xxxxx
68.	2.50	T:	yea (1) like I'm afraid to speak to the audience
69.			to make a lot of mistakes I'm afraid of some
70.			further questions that you might xxx the

71.			presentation [so I need to xxx my topic right
72.	3.01	Ss:	[yea xxx
73.	3.03	T:	so every {some one knocked the door xxxx (17)}
74.			now we started to talk about how to give an <u>you</u>
75.			effective presentation oka:: (2) so (God
76.			willing) this semester you learn how to give and
77.			<u>practise giving</u> so you are going to give not less
78.			than four presentations (ان شاء الله) (God willing)okay
79.			so that why we have small number of students you
80.			will not have a big number okay s:: after three
81.			lectures from now (ان شاء الله) (God willing) after I
82.			will explain <u>everything</u> how to manage the time how
83.			to manage the [way how xxxx
84.	3:55	Seha m:	[xxxx=
85.	3:57	T:	=all the how can you do xxx your anxiety I will
86.			teach you (ان شاء الله) (God willing) and you will
87.			learn how can you manage all these things you will
88.			will learn how to choose a xxxx our=
89.	4:13	Seha m:	= information=

90.	4:14	T:	= yea information xxx that's related <u>we will learn</u>
91.			what we xx dare [xxxxxx]
92.	4:29	Ss:	[xxxxxx]
93.	4:30	T:	xxxx this semester xxx because something new for
94.			you xxx the assessment (2) there is no med term
95.			exams? there is no final exam? (.) <u>but but</u>
96.	4:45	Ss:	(laughter)
97.	4:46	T:	yes there a lot of exams every lecture=
98.	4:49	Ss:	=there going to xxx=
99.	4:50	T:	there will be exam xxx you=
100.	4:54	Ss:	= (laughter)
101.	4:55	T:	and how xxx the form of sorry {talking to
102.			someone came to ask the teacher about something}
103.			I have certain criteria and I'll give this okay(3)
104.			criteria okay to follow and to concentrate on them
105.	5:18	Ss:	xxx
106.	5:19	T:	so within a minute I will start (انشاء الله) (God but
107.			willing) and I will give my presentation okay
108.			{teacher prepare the data show and students chat
109.			not loudly}
110.	5:59	T:	mmmm mmm that's very annoying (2)that's awful
111.			did I teach you before=
112.	6:04	Ss:	=yea no xxx
113.	6:06	T:	aha that's why (2) that's why:: (2) so let me tell
114.			you something before we start {prepare something}

115.			ok let me tell you something before we start xxx
116.			sorry today I was a bet late xxx (noise of
117.			something fell down)xxxx which is xxx to some of
118.			you (again some noise of something fell down)next
119.			lecture (ان شاء الله) (God willing) will start on time
120.			(2) one thing if you came late if you came tale I
121.			will fix the door (ان شاء الله) (God willing) I will ask
122.			those people to fix it (2) so if you came late
123.			please don't knock the door don't knock the door
124.			just open it and come in (3)
125.	7:49	Ss:	(ان شاء الله) (God willing)
126.	7:50	T:	please yaaa [without good morning yea without good
127.			morning
128.	7:51	Ss:	[(laughter)]
129.	7:52	T:	just go xxx okay (1) aa if you came late aa for a
130.			couple of minutes aa not [half an hour
131.	8:00	Ss:	[(laughter)]
132.	8:01	T:	okay (2) this my way of xxx with students ok xxx
133.			some students ask me for a permission can I come
134.			in (4)
135.	8:17	Ss:	(laughter)

136.	8:18	T:	what's wrong there okay (2) then if you want to so
137.			bring coffee you want to bring juice no problem
138.			but just take out with you at least that's it ok
139.			(1) the most important and the most important
140.			thing I want xxx I want you to concentrate to
141.			learn feel relaxed because this the most important
142.			thing fee::l (2) [relaxed
143.	8:39	Ss:	[relaxed
144.	8:43	T:	please ok aha (4) today we will learn how to give
145.			an effective presentation and xxx what the skills
146.			that we need to have before we xxx to give a good
147.			presentation xxx presentation (3) let us start
148.			with the definition let us start with the (2)
149.			[definition
150.	9:08	Ss:	[definition
151.	9:09	T:	what what's presentation skills what's communicate
152.			presentation skills what's presentation what is
153.			presentation so a xxx presentation is means of
154.			communication it's a way to communicate
155.			with who communicate with your fellows if you are
156.			instructor communicate with your team if you are
157.			a manager communicate with your friends if you
158.			want to share an interesting topic with them or

159.			xxx with them so you need to go and collect data
160.			and then put them into slides and we will learn
161.			what slides and what is the benefits of using
162.			slides (2) aha and then come and present these
163.			data or xxx you give us the results when you
164.			will come to discuss your project you will xxx (
165.			ان شاء الله (God willing) when you graduate ok so you
166.			need to use the=
167.	9:59	Sx:	=presentation=
168.	10:00	T:	=the slides to present the result that you have (2)
169.			ha the result of your project right (1)
170.	10:05	Ss:	Right xxx
171.	10:00	T:	Ok so this is the def- definition (.) so? What do
172.			You need before you start doing a presentation
173.			<u>Before you start decide</u> ok oh sorry I'm ok now I
174.			(accept) To do a presentation right (.) what are
175.			The steps that you need before that (1) you just
176.			Got ha (1)
177.	10:24	Ss:	Xxx [plan
178.	10:26	T:	[yea you just got some:: steps you have plan
179.			you need to set your plan carefully=
180.	10:30	Ss:	Yea::
181.	10:32	T:	<u>You need to s::et your plan carefully prepare you</u>

182.			<u>Need to::</u> (1)
183.	10:37	Ss:	[[practise=
184.	10:39	T:	Practise practise practise practise practise (.)
185.	10:41	Ss:	Practise [pract-
186.	10:42	T:	[ok yea (3) let me talk about start with
187.			Plan what should we (2) do in xxx what should we
188.			Prepare ok=
189.	10:52	Ss:	xxx
190.	10:53	T:	So (.) planning (.) you (3) planning usually
191.			Includes four questions (1) okay (2) what should
192.			You put into your consideration before you <u>start</u>
193.			<u>Planning</u> ok now I said I want to plan my pro-
194.			I want to set a plan for my projext (.) so::: ha
195.			What do you need to know? (1) you need to ask
196.			Yourself several questions? What are these
197.			Questions? (1) the first question you need to know
198.			That ha don't write you will have the handout?
199.			ان شاء الله today so today xxx I will give the
200.			Hound out to the photocopy shop xxx (2) so don't
201.			bother yourself just follow xxx understanding is
202.			The most important xxx please ok (.) yes (1) so
203.			you have some questions you need to give the

204.			Answers in order to set a careful perfect plan (1)
205.			Ok (1) the first question you need to find an
206.			Answer for it (1) it who's the audience (2) who's
207.			The audience who's going to see who's going to be
208.			There who's going to attend your presentation to
209.			Xxx (3) experts=
210.	12:00	Seha m:	=Students (1)
211.	12:01	T:	Instructors?(1)
212.	12:02	Ss:	[no
213.	12:03	T:	[who's (1) why do need to know them why do you
214.			Need to know them xxx what kind? Of information
215.			What type of information? Should you bring to
216.			them:: if they are your friends? So you need to
217.			Bring xxx for them yea
218.	12:14	Ss:	Yea::=
219.	12:15	T:	Because they're your friends right? (1) if your
220.			Audience ha is your instructors or some experts
221.			<u>Aha::</u>
222.	12:23	Sx:	Will [be::
223.	12:24	T:	[so you need to got? (1) ha (1) the level of
224.			You--=
225.	12:26	Ss:	Xxx=
226.	12:27	T:	=ha presentation should be:: (1)
227.	12:29	Wafa :	Formal=

228.	12:30	T:	Ah should be:: formal should be higher (.) so the
229.			First question you need to answer . is who is your
230.	12:36	Sx:	(Some of)
231.	12:37	T:	Audience (1) why? Are they there why are they g-
232.			Why are they are they going to attend your
233.			Presentation? ()
234.	12:43	Ss:	xxx
235.	12:44	T:	Ok (.) because they like you?(1)
236.	12:46	Ss:	No:: {laughter}
237.	12:48	T:	Aha::[they like? the things that you are going
238.	12:50	Seha m:	[xxx
239.	12:51	T:	To <u>pres::ent</u>
240.	12:52	Sx:	Ya=
241.	12:53	T:	=So:: by the end of your presentation (.) you need
242.			To make sure that they xxx yes they got something=
243.	12:58	Ss:	yea
244.	12:59	T:	Yea they are satisfied yea=
245.	13:01	Maha :	=Yea satisfied yea
246.	13:02	T:	You have satisfying you have got something new?
247.			<u>New::</u>
248.	13:06	Ss:	Yea xxx=
249.	13:07	T:	<u>New new</u> (1) so it's not just presentation juat to
250.			Marks for it (.) that's the xxx you need to choose

251.			You're your confirmation xxx you (.) okay (2) what
252.			Is your goal (2) you need to set your? Goals aha
253.			(.) there . xxx the <u>latest technologies</u> I have
254.			ever seen (1) not we have ever seen (2) no (.)the
255.			latest technology the world (.) because you might
256.			not (.) you might not <u>the word updated?</u>
257.			So you need xxx for example xxx to show the latest
258.			Technology in the world (.) so:: yea . it will be
259.			(interesting) xxx to you (.) right? (.) it will be
260.			interested to follow xxx format you are going
261.			to set right?
262.	13:57	Ss:	Se- xxx=
263.	13:58	T:	Aha::: What else? (.)oh
264.	14:01	Ss:	Xxx=
265.	14:02	T:	=You. need to know the time [of your presentation
266.	14:02	Seha m:	[yea
267.	14:00	T:	You need to know the time? of your presentation
268.			Which is actually one thing quite xxx
269.	14:09	Ss:	Quite xxx صعب (difficult)(1)
270.	14:10	T:	Amm=
271.	14:11	Ss:	{laughter}
272.	14:13	T:	Ready to give presentations?=
273.	14:14	Ss:	={laughter}

274.	14:15	T:	For five minutes (3) <u>get ready to cov-</u> to <u>cover e::verthing?</u> A lot of things in five minutes=
275.	14:23	Ss:	No no
276.	14:24	Seha m	Of course we may fo- it
277.	14:25	T:	you will see
278.	14:29	mona	We have to we have to=
279.	14:30	T:	you have to ready okay? (.) <u>you have to be</u> <u>ready?=</u>
280.	14:34	Ss:	=ready
281.	14:35		Otherwise:: you will? (2) ah im not going to say
282.			It=
283.	14:41	Ss:	=xxx=
284.	14:42	T:	Yes (.) so the time is really xxx of the time it doesn't matter the time is not the important ok xxx [aha
285.	14:51	Sx:	You [lose-
286.	14:52	T:	[but once you know the time? (1) you need to <u>set?</u> <u>Youself::</u>
287.	14:54	Sx:	Yea choose=
288.	14:55	T:	choose
289.	14:56	Sx:	yea
290.	14:57	T:	Choose the most xxx the most important=
291.	14:58	Mona	=information=
292.	14:58	T:	=information (.) and share (.) them with your
293.			Audience (.) okay .(2)
294.	15:05	Ss:	Yea xx
295.	15:07	T:	Sometimes you forgot xxx sometimes you have ten
296.			minutes(2) so you need to manage (1) <u>never</u> <u>ever</u>
297.			Finish before the time never ever finish after

298.			<u>the time you must appreciate your audience</u> <u>time?</u> (3) aha::: (2) is it difficult.
299.	15:26	Mona	No=
300.	15:27	Seham	=just we need to practise=
301.	15:28	T:	=Okay::=
302.	15:30	Sx:	Af--
303.	15:30	T:	=just follow these steps that I'm going to give
304.			You (ان شاء الله) (1) okay? And everthing will be (1)
305.			easy (ان شاء الله) ok (1) aha
306.	15:39	Sx:	{coughing}
307.	15:40	T:	Aha::: what the question that we need to answer
308.			Before we go to the xxx aaaa next step is (3)
309.	15:48	Ss:	Where where
310.	15:50	T:	Where . you will take (3) xxx where where wherever
311.			(this is) (2)
312.	15:56	Safa	The material matters
313.	15:58	T:	Actually (1) no xxx whether you give a
314.			Presentation in small room or in a big room ok (4)
315.	16:10	Ss:	[[what what's the difference (1)
316.	16:12	T:	I will tell you (later) . (2) if I'm going to give
317.			a presentation in a <u>small room?</u> (1) so the
318.			audience will be ten just here maximum right aha
319.	16:22	Ss:	Xxx
320.	16:25	T:	Aha and the (distance) . xxx yea
321.	16:27	Ss:	yea
322.	16:29	T:	Xxx to a lot of people yea
323.	16:29	Ss:	Mmm {laughter}

324.	16:31	T:	Yes like in a (hall) so I will prepare . myself to
325.			Xxx I'm ready yea:: (.) I'm ready to give
326.			Presentation (.) ok (.) with small number in a
327.			Small room yea: (.) so . it was xxx (2) so the
328.			Place here is very important (1) what else? (1)
329.			you need to know whether it is equipped with data
330.			Show with audio (1) or no (2) (all these you
331.			suppose to know)(3) you need to know the
332.			facilities that are available these ok (2) you
333.			need to know the equipments there (2) ok (1)
334.			clear(1)=
335.	17:19	Ss:	=Yea=
336.	17:20	T:	=Clear=
337.	17:21	Ss:	=yea (2
338.	17:22	T:	Let's go to the next step which is? (2) you said
339.			planning=
340.	17:24	Ss:	=planning
341.	17:25	T:	And you need for
342.	17:26	Ss:	Planning and preparing
343.	17:27	T:	Aha:: (2)
344.	17:28	Seha m:	Practice
345.	17:29	T:	<u>Preparing?</u> The second is (1)
346.	17:31	Ss:	Preparing
347.	17:32	T:	<u>The second is [preparing</u>
348.	17:34	Ss:	[Preparing
349.	17:35	T:	What do you need to prepare (4)what do you need to
350.			prepare (.) aha?
351.	17:3	Safa	To xxx information=

352.	17:40	T:	Yes (2) you need to answer three question (2) <u>why</u>
353.	17:46	Ss:	Why why=
354.	17:48	T:	And what and who as I told you (1) okay (2)
355.			?Why you are presenting (.) why you are presenting
356.			this model (.) why the audience are ther (.) and
357.			(2)
358.	18:00	ss:	Xxx=
359.	18:01	T:	=?who are (reports) ok (1) then (2) why you are
360.			Presenting (1) what is this presentation about (1)
361.			Who are you are presenting=
362.	18:10	Ss:	=to
363.	18:11	T:	To (2) ok (1)
364.	18:12	Sx:	Yea
365.	18:14	T:	<u>?how to design aha::</u>
366.	18:16	Sx:	To the s-=
367.	18:17	T:	=when it comes to preparing one xxx presentation
368.			(2) I need to know how can I <u>design</u> (1) my slides
369.			How can I choose xxx (2) from where shall I start
370.			(1) ok? (2)
371.	18:27	Ss:	Yea
372.	18:29	T:	And remember? <u>To design a good presentation you</u>
373.			<u>must xxx clear plan:: (2) use very clear (2)</u>
374.	18:37	Ss:	Massage=
375.	18:38	T:	=Massage ? <u>very sure direct massage</u> (2) . limited

376.			number of massages xxx (1) how many massages
377.			Should you send or can you send in your
378.			[Presentation (.) aha
379.	18:50	Seha m:	[no need to=
380.	18:52	T:	How many (3)
381.	18:54	Ss:	xxxxxx
382.	18:55	Safa	It depends on a-=
383.	18:56	T:	It <u>depends</u> ? (1) aha what else aha=
384.	19:00	Seha m:	Xxx more others=
385.	19:02	T:	=aha (.) it depends on the topic (.) aha amm what
386.			Else (6)
387.	19:07		If the topic is related to different points (.)
388.			Each point will send different massage (.)
389.	19:13	T:	Aha (.) what else (1) so how many massages
390.	19:16	Sx:	Three=
391.	19:16	T:	=one two three four five sex seven eight nine ten
392.	19:20	Ss:	Xxx
393.	19:20	T:	The number of massages [so if you got one massage
394.	19:22	Ss:	Four five xxx
395.	19:23	T:	For one slide it means you will have lot of (1)
396.	19:26	Ss:	massages
397.	19:27	T:	Massages at the end right? (5)
398.	19:32	mona	I think it's amount [of t-
399.	19:33	Ss:	[three three (3) three
400.			Maggages (1)
401.	19:36	T:	You will xxx wonderful if you xx three massages
402.			(3)

403.	19:41	Ss:	Xxx=
404.	19:41	T:	=never (1) don't overwhelm them (2) don't
405.			Overwhelm the audience (.) ok . so? (1) now (2)
406.			What is the problem (.) when it comes to
407.			Preparing (.) whats whats the first problem you
408.			May face (5)
409.	19:59	mona	(too much topics) (2)
410.	20:03	T:	It is (.) it is but xxx yes yes ok (2) good choice
411.			(2) the problem that you have too much [choices
412.	20:17	Ss:	[[choices=
413.	20:18	T:	=choices (3) you have a lot of choices so (.) aha
414.			Clear aha (1)
415.	20:34	Ss:	[[Yes
416.	20:36	T:	Clear (1)
417.	20:37	Ss:	Yea yes xxx (1)
418.	20:40	T:	You need to think for a xxx and you need to have
419.			to collect some ideas which are related to your
420.			Topic . xxxx others (.) look? at the xx that I'm
421.			using here (2) look at the xxx that I'm using here
422.			Xxx (2) I don't want you to compare (1) ok (2)
423.	21:00	Ss:	Ok
424.	21:02	T:	Xxx what you need to do to that xxx
425.	21:04	Sx:	To do search xxx=
426.	21:06	T:	=ok (2) (goal) [ha you can follow the patterns

427.	21:09	Ss:	[yea
428.	21:14	T:	Xxxx sorry the following you can use the following
429.			Items to make the context of your presentation (1)
430.			You need to prepare the handouts (2) you need
431.			Prepare [xxx for them [xxx the most important
432.	21:22	Ss:	[extra copies
433.	21:31	T:	Ok=
434.	21:32	Sx:	yea
435.	21:33	T:	You are not allowed to <u>read?</u> you are not going to
436.			Xxx read? it (.) ok (.) no (.) xxx just notes just
437.			What? (2)
438.	21:40	Ss:	[[notes
439.	21:42	T:	First of all just to remind <u>you</u> (1) ok (2) but if
440.			you are going to read (3) I will stop you
441.	21:50	Sx:	mmmm
442.	21:51	T:	Ok=
443.	21:52	Ss:	=Yea=
444.	21:53	T:	=Clear=
445.	21:54	Ss:	Yea
446.	21:55	T:	You need to use? Do you need to use <u>visual aids::</u>
447.			(1) visual aids aha (.) like what? visual aids (1)
448.	22:06	Ss:	Xxx audio [xxx
449.	22:07	T:	Audio [aha[Xxx cable (fonts) ha (2) yes xxx
450.	22:07	Ss:	[xxx
451.			What is benefit whats the problem of using visual
452.			Aids=
453.	22:17	Sx:	=For purpose=

454.	22:18	T:	=Why? do you use visual aids (.) is it important
455.	22:22		to use visual aids (3)
456.	22:23	Ss:	[[yes
457.		T:	Which is important (.) using words to explain the
458.			Point you want to say xxx a lot of words in slide?
459.	22:31		Or شئی قولوها يالله {what is it say it now}(2)
460.	22:33	Ss:	Xxx useful [visual aids
461.	22:34	T:	[use of? (.) <u>visual aids</u> (1) which one=
462.	22:35	Ss:	=[[visual aids=
463.	22:40	T:	=Could achieve the target the target perfectly (1)
464.	22:42	Ss:	[[Visual aids=
465.		T:	=Visual aids or words [all will
466.			use visual anyway with God willing}
467.			(1) so these materials you need to
468.			(.) ok now prepared myself I prepared my topic ok
469.			I have xxx date I put it put it all materials that
470.			From the internet (.) prepared my visual aids (.)
471.			Now I need to know how to structure my
472.			Presentation and how can I structure my PowerPoint
473.			Slides (.) ok (.) so xxx and structure (1) so how
474.			Can I structure my presentation (4) your
475.			presentation should be xxx (.)ok (.) should have

476.			Objectives (3) you should have introduction (3)
477.			You should have the main (2)
478.	23:40	Seha m:	Content=
479.	23:41	T:	=Content (2) and of course you need to end with
480.			The (2) [summary conclusion recommendation advice
481.	23:45	Seha m:	[summary
482.	23:56	T:	And . you should xxx (2) ok (.) so this is
483.			a structure . this the structure of your
484.			Presentation (.) ok (.) so this xxx your .
485.			Presentation structure (1) so we have <u>three?</u> three
486.			Ha (.) remember the word three ha (.) three (1)
487.			Remember three ha (.)
488.	24:16	Sx:	three
489.	24:17	T:	Three [main massages I said three main massages
490.	24:18	Mona :	[massages
491.	24:24	T:	Do we have something which is called the role of
492.			Three (.) there is something <u>called?</u> (.)
493.			<u>The role of three?</u> Three (.) three xxx (.) three
494.			Ha three (pass you) together (.) introduction (.)
495.			What should we cover in the introduction (.) you
496.			Need to grab your audience ha (1) [get your
497.	24:43	Sx:	[attention

498.			Audience [attention (.)
499.	24:45	Ss:	[attention=
500.	24:48	T:	Ok (.) aha (.) and then the main theme which is=
501.	24:51	Sx:	=body=
502.	24:52	T:	Contains the content which is relevant to your
503.			Topic I mean relevant to your topic of course but
504.			Xxx direct <u>and?</u> (.) ha (1) (feel) you should xxx
505.			Mention (2) ah relevant (.) sorry xxx then you
506.			need to get some xxx Conclusion which is not or
507.			should have the (.) Key massage=
508.	25:13	Ss:	=the last massage=
509.	25:13	T:	=the key massage (1) ok (.) clear (.)
510.	25:16	Ss:	Yea
511.	25:17	T:	Ok (2) . so here we have the three Presentation
512.			Essentials (.) three presentation essentials (.)
513.			Ok (.) three (.) yes (.) so we have? Three parts
514.			Parts (.) we have three massages (.) we have three
515.			Presentation essentials (.) we have <u>three?</u>
516.			<u>essential parts three</u> [essential esse-
517.	25:45	Sx:	[points
518.	25:46	T:	you need to cover (.) aha which Are (1)
519.	25:47	Ss:	Xxx (.)
520.	25:48	T:	Xxx it is very useful (.) it is <u>very?</u>
521.	25:52	Ss:	[[useful
522.	25:54	T:	Xxx <u>Use visual:: aids?</u> =
523.	26:01	Ss:	=Aids (.)

524.	26:02	T:	Where you can (2)
525.	26:04	Ss:	Xxx=
526.	26:05	Sx:	Practise practise practise=
527.	26:06	T:	Practise not? not three (.) ok <u>lots</u> (.) practise
528.			Practise practise practise practise practise (1)
529.			Ok (.) (then)? the audience? aaa <u>remember</u> this is
530.			The=
531.	26:21	Mona : :	=Xxx three questions=
532.	26:22	T:	Da- your audience? Will
533.			<u>Only remember three massages</u> (.) ok (1)
534.			so you need to memorable (1) you need to make the
535.			presentation? (2)
536.	26:38	Ss:	Memorable
537.	26:39	T:	[Memorable (1) ok (3)
538.	26:40	Mona : :	[xxx
539.	26:47	T:	Don't (forget)? To use (3)
540.	26:50	Sx:	PowerPoint=
541.	26:51	T:	<u>ice breakers</u> xxx power point slides (3) ok (.)
542.			Aha now this is the the importance of using visual
543.			Xxx (.) even the slides are (.) [visual right
544.	27:03	Sx:	[yea
545.	27:04	T:	Ok course aha (.) aha (.) power point slides are
546.			Designed <u>to get?</u> To get what (.) the audience (.)
547.			<u>Attention</u> (.) to (form) (2) hmm? (1)
548.	27:16	Ss:	Audience [participation

549.	27:17	T:	[Audience participation some kind of
550.			Audience participation (.) ok (.) why visual why
551.			Slides (1) because (3) ah (.) humans=
552.	27:30	Ss:	=like visuals=
553.	27:33	T:	= (like) visuals this is the (break) this is the side
554.			You (break) what do you have to (brake) what do
555.			You have? (1) visuals this is what you have (.)
556.			Yes (.) human like (2) [visuals
557.	27:47	Ss:	[[visuals (3)
558.	27:54	T:	Like children right (2)
559.	27:56	Sx:	Yes
560.	27:57	T:	They like watching (2)
561.	27:58	Mona	Colures and [xxx
562.	27:59	T:	[yes (2) . can we understand some of
563.			what are they saying? Xxx children right (.) they
564.			Cannot understand (.) but they are following the
565.			(.) the images that they can see (1)
566.	28:07	Ss:	Yea=
567.	28:08	T:	=aha <u>so</u> ? do they like images do they like visuals=
568.	28:12	Ss:	=yea
569.	28:13	T:	Of [course (2)
570.	28:13	Seha m:	[Of course yes (.)
571.	28:14	T:	Of course you [do
572.	28:16	Seha m:	[engage xxx the points [xxx

573.	28:17	T:	[yea:: exactly
574.	28:19	Sx:	Xxx an easy way yea=
575.	28:20	T:	A picture . (.) is (.) worth thousands words a
576.			Picture worth xxx thousands words (.) a picture
577.			Worth thousands words (1) ok (.) so one picture
578.			Can explains one=
579.	28:38	Sx:	=one=
580.	28:39	T:	Xxx to see the one hour just bring (.) one photo
581.			One xxx can explain what are you going to say (2)
582.			Okay? (2) so? (2) ok I will use visual aids (.)
583.			What else (2) what else (3)
584.	28:57	Ss:	The language (used)=
585.	28:58	T:	=you need (.) step by step (.) we are we are going
586.			(.) this is will be? the last thing to talk about
587.			(.) ok (.) you need? to remove the bullet points?
588.			what's the bullet points (3) what are the pullet
589.			Points to ha (.) ha bullet points point point
590.			Two three four five (.) ok (.) a lot of bullet
591.			Point (.) . ok <u>a lot of bullet points</u> don't? use
592.			The bullet points (1) {hit strongly the board}
593.			This is bullet point yea (8) ok (2) (this) picture
594.			(.) but it doesn't mean that I'm not going to
595.			Write anything on my slides? (2) no=
596.	29:40	Sx:	=no=

597.	29:41	T:	=you will write three words (4)
598.	29:45	Ss:	{laughter}
599.	29:47	T:	Ok=
600.	29:48	Ss:	=XXX=
601.	29:48	T:	=ok (.) oh? You might have <u>just just</u>
602.	29:53	Mona :	Three points=
603.	29:54	T:	Three (.) bullet (.) points (1) three? Three (.)
604.			Just three per slide (.) ok (.) just three per
605.			Slide and xxx remember three (.) ok (1) so (.) try
606.			To use picture (.) pictures instead of (2)
607.	30:12	Ss:	Words words=
608.	30:15	T:	Yes:: (6) so? Xxx use visuals (.) like what
609.			Pictures (.) graphs (.) tables whenever you can
610.			(2) aaa xxx you are only using thirty eight
611.			Percent of communication xxx (.) but xxx power
612.			Point is the main thing (.) ok (1) so (.) when you
613.			are speaking? (.) your audience they will catch
614.			Only thirty eight percent of what you are saying
615.			(2) what about sh- what about the xxx percentage
616.			Here (2)aha (.) the visuals (1)
617.	30:50	Seha m:	The visual aids=
618.	30:51	T:	=yea (4) the visuals will explain the remaining
619.			. Percentage (3) ok (3) clear (1)
620.	31:02	Ss:	yea

621.	31:03	T:	Clear (.) which is around 26 (3) xxx the visual
622.			Presents the sixty percent (2) (come on).(3) too
623.			Much right xxx (.)
624.	31:16	Ss:	xxx
625.	31:19	T:	Is it important=
626.	31:20	Ss:	Yea yes
627.	31:21	Sx:	of course [yes
628.	31:22	T:	[?where sh- choose (.) where shall I put my visuals (2) <u>where shall I put my visuals</u> (1) on my
629.			Right on my left (.) in the middle in the top
630.			Where? (.) ha (.) [where
631.	31:37	Ss:	[xxx right [right
632.	31:38	T:	[it should [be
633.	31:39	ss:	[(on the right)=
634.	31:40	T:	=on
635.	31:41	Ss:	In the xxx right left right [xxx
636.	31:44	T:	[(speaker) (1) it
637.			Should be on the speaker's [left
638.	31:50	Sx:	[the audience [xxx
639.	31:51	T:	[ok (.)
640.	31:53	Sx:	Xxx=
641.	31:55	T:	=yes (.) ok (.) so? your visual should be (.) here
642.			(2) on the speaker's (.) left (.) so here? we have
643.			(.) three bullet points (.) three bullet points
644.			(.) and then (2)
645.	32:12	Sx:	The picture=
646.	32:13	T:	Xxx the form (.) aha look=
647.	32:14	Sx:	=right=
648.	32:15	T:	=two or three aha (1) and then

649.	32:22	Sx:	The picture (.)
650.	32:20	T:	Xxx to explain the written words (.) which is a
651.			Picture (.) is (2)
652.	32:28	Ss:	Xxx
653.	32:29	T:	. Worth thousands (2) words=
654.	32:30	Sx:	=words (2)
655.	32:32	T:	?you xxx visual (.) aha (1)
656.	32:35	Ss:	xxx
657.	32:33	T:	Would be xxx? (.) like what (.) like this
658.			picture(1)
659.	32:36	Ss:	(yea this xxx)=
660.	32:38	T:	=what's this (3) . xxx
661.	32:43	Ss:	Xxx (3)
662.	32:46	T:	Did it xxx woke you up
663.	32:47	Ss:	Yes yea
664.	32:48	T:	Did it xxx woke you up?
665.	32:49	Ss:	Yes yea=
666.	32:53	T:	=which xxx of sleep
667.	32:58	Ss:	{laughter}
668.	32:59	T:	They want to sleep {laughter} ok use visuals as
669.			pictures (.) do you know how can you find pictures=
670.	33:00	Ss:	=no {laughter} (2)
671.	33:01	T:	So? (.) aha so need to put pictures (.) how
672.			Can you find picture (.) very easy (.) just
673.			Go to google=
674.	33:10	Sx:	=(Right click)
675.	33:11	T:	Yea (.) [picture
676.	33:12	Sx:	[Xxx
677.	33:13	T:	Just find the things that you want to (2)
678.	33:15	Ss:	(do) research [aa xxx
679.	33:16	T:	[research of (.) just write key

680.			Word (.) just write key word (.) and you will have
681.			Thousands of [pictures right click again to
682.	33:22	Ss:	[[pictures (1)
683.		T:	download it but aha use google image that will
684.	33:23		give more options Choose the . most=
685.	33:25	Sx:	=Suitable=
686.	33:26	T:	=aa (.) yea (.)
687.	33:28	Mona	Teacher=
688.	33:29	T:	Xxx yes=
689.	33:30	Mona	How many pictures we can use or or a or in each
690.			Slide [xxx
691.	33:35	T:	[Look look (.) don't overuse anything don't
692.			Overuse words Don't overuse pictures <u>don't overuse</u>
693.			<u>Tables</u> (.) ok
694.	33:43	Mona :	But xxx (1) [ok
695.	33:45	T:	[per slide? Xxx per slide ok
696.			For example you might have one one picture (.) you
697.			Might have three you might have two (.) ok . but
698.			No xxx than two (2)
699.	33:56	Sx:	Yea {laughter} (1) [three pictures
700.	33:58	T:	ok [no more than three
701.	33:58	Ss:	[xxx what size
702.	33:59	T:	You? Might have (.) you will have some slides here
703.			(.) You will have one (.) xxx for one bullet point
704.			(.) you will have that I will speak about this

705.			Later (.) ok (.) but? it doesn't mean that I need
706.			To use one xx for each bullet point (.) or for
707.			each point no (.) don't? overuse things (.) ok (.)
708.			Don't overuse words don't overuse (1)
709.	34:20	Ss:	[[pictures (.)
710.	34:21	T:	Visuals (.) ok (.) so you need to do remember this
711.			Ok (.) the bullet points represents only (.)a the
712.			Massage=
713.	34:31	Safa :	=xxx=
714.	34:32	T:	Xxx ah (.) the people will be able to remember
715.			Your massages after three days (.) ok the bullet
716.			Points the will not remember they will just
717.			Remember ten percent of your bullet points (.)
718.			just ten percent of your bullet points . they will after three days yea they will just remember ten
719.			Percent xxx visuals they will be able to remember
720.			Xxx . percent (1) clear
721.	34:58	Ss:	Yea
722.	34:59	T:	Ok (.) now (1) which? one is responsible <u>for</u>
723.			<u>Achieving your objectives</u> (2) ok (.) remember
724.			The power point will achieve thirty three percent
725.			And the visual will achieve sixty seven or sixty
726.			Something (.)
727.	35:14	Ss:	Yea=
728.	35:15	T:	=Ok (.) remember this (.) the visuals are very

729.			Important (.) look at this? (1) look at this (2)
730.			So here (.) text? Xxx percent (.) visuals fifty
731.			Five percent (.) verbal the speech by the
732.			(speaker) xxx present thirty [eight
733.	35:34	Ss:	[Xxx=
734.	35:35	T:	=ok (.) that's messy yea (.)
735.	35:36	Ss:	Yea=
736.	35:37	T:	=(exactly) . (.) aha (.) clear (.) so even? if
737.			they Just xxx ok (.) just watching (1) will you
738.			get the massages
739.	35:46	Ss:	No no=
740.	35:47	T:	You will get fifty five percent of your of the
741.			Presentation (.) ok (.) it's like when you
742.			Watching an Indian movie (3) do you speak Indian
743.	35:56	Ss:	No no
744.	35:57	T:	Do you understand Indian language (.)
745.	35:59	Ss:	No no (3)
746.	36:02	T:	Do? Understand Indian language xxxx in mind (.) ah
747.			You see [b-
748.	36:08	Sx:	[xxx
749.			but you keep forward the move of (forward) xxx
750.	36:10	Sx:	{laughter}
751.	36:12	T:	{laughter} . (I never understood) xxx I know that
752.			some people they this thing but ? they are they
753.			Are doing what? (.) ha (1)
754.	36:20	Ss:	Visual xxx
755.	36:21	T:	Following what? (.) the visuals=
756.	36:23	Ss:	Yes

757.	36:24	T:	Aha (3) exactly xxx {sounds of birds as some of windows are broken} ok (.) clear (.)
758.	36:33	Sx:	xxx
759.	36:34	t:	Clear?
760.	36:35	Sx:	[[yes
761.	36:36	T:	Ok (.) now (1) . I understood xxx the importance
762.			of using visuals and you understood what does it
763.			Mean of using visuals xxx (what you need to
764.			prepare) what do you need to collect (.) ok (.)now
765.			(.) let's (.) go (.) to (.) the (.) design (.) of
766.			Our slides (1) you slide (2)
767.	37:06	sx:	Should be xxx (.)
768.	37:08	T:	(the size the words)xxx after [the size of visual
769.	37:07	sx:	[xxx
770.	37:13	T:	Should be (2)
771.	37:14	sx:	xxx
772.	37:15	T:	Should be what? (2)
773.	37:17	sx:	(attractive)=
774.	37:18	ss:	{reading from the board} =[[big (.) simple (.)
775.			clear ()
776.	37:23	T:	Clear (.)
777.	37:24	ss:	Yea=
778.	37:25	T:	Ok (.) So? B big (.) should be? (2)
779.	37:29	ss:	=simple=
780.	37:30	T:	=simple (2) what kind of simplicity should I have
781.			(2)
782.	37:33	mona	Aaa simple words=

783.	37:34	T:	=simple words=
784.	37:35	ss:	Xxx [xxx
785.	37:36	T:	[simple visual (.) don't (make) it complex?
786.			(.) [aaa full of complex xxx needs aa xxx (simple)
787.	37:40	sx:	[no
788.	37:44	T:	Ok (.) clear (.) ok {laughter} (2) and big (3)
789.			What does it mean big (2)
790.	37:57	sx:	Clear=
791.	37:58	T:	=What does it mean big (1)
792.	37:59	ss:	Xxx=
793.	38:00	Seha m:	=The size=
794.	38:00	T:	=sorry (.)
795.	38:02	Seha m:	The size size
796.	38:03	T:	Aha (.) the size of what (.)
797.	38:04	Ss:	Xxx the text
798.	38:06	T:	the text what else {shushing the students wants
799.			Mona to finish}
800.	38:07	Mona :	Aa picture=
801.	38:08	T:	Aha xxx yes
802.	38:10	Ss:	xxx
803.	38:14	T:	Ah sorry
804.	38:14	Ss:	xxx
805.	38:15	T:	Should be able to read everything from the back:::
806.			(2)
807.	38:18	Ss:	xxx
808.	38:21	T:	So (.) should be big (2) <u>should be big</u> ok (.) how
809.	38:26	T:	Can I (do) (.) I measure the [s-

810.	38:29	Sx:	I set in the back
811.			room (.)
812.	38:31	T:	Aha (.) ok (6) at least 28 but preferably 36 (.)
813.			Ok . () so got the size this the size (.) do we
814.			Have certain fonts (.) for the words for the text
815.			Do? We have certain forms (.) <u>yes</u> here we go (.)
816.			Ok (.) you will find xxx you have [xxx
817.	39:02	Ss:	Yea=
818.	39:03	T:	You have a lot of fonts yea
819.	39:04	Ss:	Yea=
820.	39:06	T:	You have a lot of fonts (.) ok (.) . all these
821.			Things that I'm saying now you will (give the
822.			evaluation) remember (.)
823.	39:15	Ss:	Yea=
824.	39:16	T:	Ok [xxx
825.	39:16	Mona :	[ok teacher the style of font [should be normal
826.	39:17	Xs:	[yea
827.	39:20	Mona :	Xxx=
828.	39:21	T:	Xxx (everyone) (.) OK (.) yea so now we are
829.			talking About the size (.) so the size? Ha minemum
830.			Should be? Ha at least
831.	39:30	Ss:	28 [xxx
832.	39:32	T:	28 ok (.) and (.) xxx thirtyish this is thirty
833.			something yea thirty two or four three this is
834.			Xxx look at the size (.) ok (.) is it clear (.)
835.	39:46	Ss:	Yea=

836.	39:47	T:	=Is it clear (.) can you (do) that (.)
837.	39:49	Ss:	Yea=
838.	39:50	T:	=Can you see
839.	39:51	Ss:	Yea=
840.	39:51	T:	Ok (.) use the floor test (.) what does it mean
841.			Floor test (2) what does it mean floor test (3)
842.	39:57	Ss:	Xxx the floor Background xxx=
843.	40:00	T:	=yea the colour of the back ground (.) ok for
844.			Example (.) for example (.) don't? use aa grey
845.			text
846.	40:10	Ss:	And=
847.	40:11	T:	=And white background (.) it . will be fantastic
848.	40:13	Ss:	{laughter}
849.	40:14	T:	Ok (.) so (.) as? you can see (1) your background
850.			Should dark=
851.	40:20	Ss:	=yes
852.	40:22	T:	And . it should blue (.) dark blue? Dark blue . ok
853.			Xxx (.) ok (.) dark blue xxx don't xxx it blue yea
854.			Its blue but not dark blue (.) clear (.)
855.	40:39	Ss:	Yes
856.	40:40	T:	Ah (.) good (.) like? This one is it clear (.)
857.	40:42	Ss:	yea
858.	40:45	T:	Ok (.) if I (.) if I have a slide blue one can you
859.			Try it
860.	40:51	Ss:	yea
861.	40:52	T:	can you try let's try it why not yes why not {he
862.			Is working with his laptop}xxx

863.	41:02	Ss:	Yes it's clear yes its clear (6)
864.	41:11	Mona : m:	وَاللهِ رَبِّيْ بِسْتَرِ صَعْبَ رَاهُو (Swear to God it's difficult) (.)
865.	41:14	T:	No no no
866.	41:15	Seha m:	[no:: (1)
867.	41:17	Sx:	It's (long) (1)
868.	41:19	Ss:	Yea xxx
869.	41:20	T:	Xxx
870.	41:21	Ss:	[{laughter}
871.	41:21	T:	[what would you do if I xxx the slide like this=
872.	41:23	Ss:	=xxx لَا ان شاء الله تساعدنا (no you will help us with God
873.			willing)xxx=
874.	41:25	T:	Aha? (.) You are not going (.) remember? (.) aa
875.			you are not going to what? (.)
876.	41:29	Ss:	Xxx [xxx
877.	41:31	T:	[aha means if you (are not) following
878.			something like this I'm not going to put your
879.			Slides (3) (this what you said) right?
880.	41:39	Ss:	Yea xxx
881.	41:40	T:	Right?
882.	41:41	Ss:	Yea xxx
883.	41:42	T:	Agree=
884.	41:42	Ss:	=Yea xxx=
885.	41:43	T:	=Agree=
886.	41:43	Ss:	=Yes xxx=
887.	41:44	T:	=aha (it's so clear?) come on (.) (ok) (.) (it's
888.			Just morning) yea=
889.	41:51	Seha m:	(not all of us) for [use

890.	41:51	T:	[aha now xxx some excuses (.)
891.			No excuse=
892.	41:57	lail a:	= (that [that) xxxx coluore for the text may be
893.	41:57	T:	[aha
894.	41:57	lail a:	xxx=
895.	41:59	T:	=but it's annoying xxx it's noisy yea (.)
896.	42:02	Ss:	Yea xxx no its not xxx=
897.	42:04	T:	It's noisy it depends xxx in why even though why
898.			[Ok=
899.	42:08	Sx:	[It's it's (sometimes uncomfortable for us=
900.	42:09	T:	=yea for you . (.) exactly (.) ok so (8) ok (3)
901.			You got the benefit of using this xxx text now (.)
902.			It's very important(.) ok so it should be (.) like
903.			This (.) now simple? (1) what kind of simplicity
904.			should I have (.) look from xxx that we have (2)
905.	42:40	Ss:	Xxx [two
906.	42:40	T:	[one two three four five (.) six seven eight
907.			Nine what (.) xxx you choose the only important
908.			And . the most important (.) the simple? sorry the
909.			Simplest one (.) I will choose the simplest one
910.			Ok (.) the most (important) one (.) ok the xxx one

911.			clear (1)
912.	42:59	Ss:	mmm
913.	43:01	T:	Ok (2) then (3) when we are talking about
914.			simplicity here (.) we are talking the little
915.			number of massages (.) . the little number [of xxx
916.	43:12	Sx:	[xxx
917.	43:13	T:	The little number of the words? (.) aha (.) so?
918.			Three to seven points per slide (1) one slide
919.			Three to seven (.) I prepared just three . just
920.			Three yea (.) just? Three (.) bullet pointe (.) ok
921.			What about if you are having more than three (.)
922.			Xxx . what xxx the slide (.) slides? Are cheap yea
923.			You are not going to pay for it (.) [to buy
924.	43:44	Sx:	[{laughter}
925.	43:44	T:	Some slides yea (.) that's for free yea (.) but?
926.			Instead of having <u>six bullet points</u> per one slide divide them. Into slides (.) (am I alright) (1)
927.			whats bullet (2)
928.	43:55	Ss:	aaa xxx (1)
929.	43:58	T:	Ok (.) so? حنی نسمعوا في الرصاص دبما والا? (we always hear the
930.			Gunfire right?) (3) <u>bullet?</u> In English means <u>point</u>
931.			<u>and gunfire and gun fires are . painful</u>

932.			صوت الرصاص ماقواه ماحد يحيى يسمعه ((what a
933.			Strong sounds that bullets make no one likes to
934.	44:18		Hear it)) yes? Clear (.)
935.	44:19	Ss:	Yea=
936.		T:	=yea remember this (.) remember كأن واحد بي (if
937.			Someone)) {imitating shooting on students} (2)
938.	44:29		Does it pain?
939.	44:30	Ss:	Xxx sure
940.	44:34	T:	Does it pain? Ha (3)
941.	44:34	Sx:	Sure yea=
942.		T:	=yea sure (.) so remember? (.) that you are
943.			Shooting your audience if you are using (.) a lot
944.			Of bullet points (.) ok (.) so? yes three to seven
945.			bullet points
946.		T:	The little number of the words? (.) aha (.) so?
947.			Three to seven points per slide (1) one slide
948.			Three to seven (.) I prepared just three . just
949.	45:01	Ss:	= xxx=
950.	45:02	T:	<u>(words)</u> (.) three? I prefer three and I want you
951.			To=
952.	45:07	sx:	=use three=
953.	45:08	T:	=use . three (.) ok (.) what about if I have more
954.			Words (.) what xxx just xxx ok (.) reduce the
955.			Number of words (.) ok xxx instead of saying long
956.			Sentence just reduce to (.)
957.	45:25	Ss:	Three xx

958.	45:26	T:	Xxx=
959.	45:26	Mona :	=Xxx if we can't get of aaa (1) many sentences
960.			with three words what we should do (2)
961.	45:35	T:	don't come (.)
962.	45:36	Ss:	{laughter}
963.	45:39	T:	You? <u>Must</u> though [xxx three (.) look three to
964.	45:40	Sx:	[why xxx
965.	45:42	Ss:	Seven=
966.	45:43	Mona :	=But if xxx seven her we can five (.)
967.	45:47	t:	I told you yea I told you yea <u>three to seven</u>
968.			Try to use a few but don't exceed seven (.) ok
969.			Yes please=
970.	45:45	Lial a:	=why is it restricted (1)
971.	45:57	T:	. because this is the (specific) presentation (2)
972.			Ok (.)
973.	46:02	Mona :	(I see)
974.	46:03	T:	So:: yea (2) clear (.)
975.	46:05	Seha m:	teacher
976.	46:06	T:	aha
977.	46:06	Seha m:	Xxx here in line three words in the same line or=
978.	46:11	T:	=bullet? Points (.) aha but yea (.) three to seven
979.			Words per line (.) oh sorry per bullet points ok
980.			(.)
981.	46:22	Sx:	per xxx for one point=
982.	46:23	T:	Per one point (.) yea one point three

983.			To seven words (.) look at this how many words do
984.			We have here {writing on the board}(6)
985.	46:29	ss:	Xxx one two three [four
986.	46:30	T:	[look at this for example (.)
987.			Aha=
988.	46:32	Sx:	=Aa five=
989.	46:33	T:	=One two three four five (.) simple yea (.) aha
990.			Less than seven yea (.) less than seven (.) look
991.			At this (2) aha should be able to read everything
992.			From the backward (.) can you can you reduce the
993.			Number of these words (3) can you reduce the
994.			Number of this (2)
995.	46:52	ss:	yea (.)
996.	46:53	T:	The first one [the first point Should be able to
997.	46:54	ss:	[yea yea
998.	46:55	T:	read everything from yes from the back (.)
999.	46:59	ss:	[[yes Xxx on xxx three words=
1000	47:00	T:	will these words yea (.) can you reduce them to
1001			two words (4)
1002	47:05	sx:	Aaa it should be::=
1003	47:06	Hana	not complicated=
1004	47:07	T:	=the opposite? (1)
1005	47:07	Hana	simple=
1006	47:08	T:	aha that's one aha (.)
1007		sx:	obvious=
1008	47:09	T:	=think of another one {moving his hands right and

1009	47:09		left to mean it's almost the word}
1010	47:00	Sx:	=clear=
1011	47:10	T:	=yess clear and (.) s
1012	47:12	ss:	[[simple=
1013	47:03	T:	. (yea alright) (.) ok (4) or? not
1014			Readable from the back=
1015	47:21	ss:	=xxx=
1016	47:22	T:	Read it fro- (.) you need to find a way .
1017	47:25	sx:	Clear from xxx=
1018	47:26	T:	=xxx <u>otherwise you lose:: marks</u> (.) ok (.)
1019			Otherwise you will lose (.) marks (.) Clear
1020	47:38	sx:	Yea=
1021	47:39	T:	And remember (.) remember one slide one [massage
1022	47:41	sx:	[xxx
1023	47:43	T:	One slide one massage (.) ok just xxx if? You
1024			won't Do this and you did this (.)
1025	47:56	Mona	{laughter}
		:	
1026	47:57	T:	What's this (4) what's this (2)
1027	48:02	ss:	Xxx=
1028	48:03	T:	waw
1029	48:04	ss:	((we will not be able to do the مش حنفروا نديروا هكى
1030			Same))
1031	48:05	t:	=yea (5) . this (3) can you have something like
1032			This (.)
1033	48:14	ss:	No=
1034	48:16	T:	=aha (.) you will laugh if you xxx (2) so you
1035			Didn't accept it yea (.) because you used to see
1036			These slides [yea simple? (.) clear (.) direct (.)

1037	48:23	ss:	[xxx yes xxx yes
1038	48:27	T:	Slides . <u>not like this</u> (6) xxx not your slides
1039			{laughter} (.) ok (.) . remember (.) remember
1040			To say more while saying less is [the secret of
1041	48:47	ss:	[[the secret xxx
1042	48:48	T:	Being (.) simple (4) ok (3) <u>to say more while</u>
1043			<u>Saying [less is the secret of being</u>
1044	48:49	ss:	[less
1045	49:00	t:	[simple
1046	49:01	ss:	[simple
1047	49:04	T:	((يعني بالعربي شئ) (what does it mean in Arabic))=
1048	49:03	sx:	= خير الكلام ماقل و دل (the best of speech to say less
1049			But means more))=
1050	49:04	T:	((ماشاء الله عليك) (God protects you))
1051	49:06	ss:	{laughter}
1052	49:07	T:	Ok? I want you to do I? <u>want you to do this</u> (.)
1053			Can you do this? (2)
1054	49:16	ss:	Yea xxx can xxx=
1055	49:17	T:	=otherwise go and drop the course (.)
1056	49:20	ss:	Xxx {laughter}
1057	49:21	T:	Drop the course (.) take another one=
1058	49:24	Mona : :	Ok teacher how many slides xxxx=
1059	49:27	T:	=aa (.) ok (.) (just ok)
1060	49:29	ss:	xxx
1061	49:30	T:	But the five minutes (.) within the given time you
1062			Must finish so you need to control this=
1063	49:34	ss:	yea
1064	49:35	T:	Ok (.) and we will talk about this when we talk

1065			About the practice (.) ok (.) clear
1066	49:40	ss:	yes
1067	49:44	T:	Ok (.) so this is <u>big and simple</u> [we said
1068	49:46	ss:	[Xxx now
1069	49:47	T:	It should be? The design should be [big (.) simple
1070	49:48	ss:	[simple and
1071	49:53	T:	And clear right (.) we talked about simplicity(.)
1072			We talked about the slide=
1073	49:55	Seha m:	=slide=
1074	49:56	T:	And we talked about the (.)
1075	50:00	Ss:	Xxx clear=
1076	50:00	Ss:	Yea clear (1)
1077	50:02	T:	This is the name of the font it should be Arial
1078			Or Helvetica Helvetica (.) this is the two types
1079			Don't use any other types (.) right? They won't be
1080			Clear they won't be clear . (.) ok (.) blue? Back
1081			Ground xxx look at this (4) ok (.) how can you do
1082			how can you change your background xxx it's very
1083			Easy yea (.) just (.) ok (.) right click (.) aha
1084			Format (.) sorry (.) ok (.) aaa format background
1085			(.) aa format shape (.) ok oh oh sorry
1086			{working on His laptop to change the
1087			Background}(26) just xxx in purpose (3) ya ha (.)

1088			It should be there (.) like format background yea
1089			(.) <u>format background</u> (.) ok and then here xxx
1090			Choose=
1091	51:27	Sx:	=yea xxx=
1092	51:27	T:	The colour () you you won't be able to find the
1093			Dark colour here (.) so go to <u>more colours</u> go to
1094			<u>more [colours]</u>
1095	51:33	Ss:	[colours=
1096	51:35	T:	And chose the dark blue from here (.) ok (4)
1097	51:42	Sx:	نختاره من هنی ((can I choose it from here))
1098	51:44	T:	Clear (2) {sound of exposure} ok (12) so now lets
1099			Talk about clarity here (.) {reading from the
1100			board} aha should be blue Background with yellow
1101			text and [avoid overuse of red (.) yes::: xxx ok
1102	52:11	Sx:	[[avoid overuse of red
1103	52:17	T:	Should xxx white (.) aha don't? use shadows don't
1104			Use (.)
1105	52:25	Sx:	animation=
1106	52:26	T:	=Underline or italics no (.) xxx like this (.)
1107	52:29	sx:	Should be=
1108	52:30	T:	=ok (.) so? It shouldn't be underlined (.) it
1109			Shouldn't be underlined (.) it shouldn't be
1110			Shadowed (.) it shouldn't be (.) italic like this
1111			(.) Or bold like this (.)
1112	52:46	safa :	Excuse me=
1113	52:46	T:	yes

1114	52:47	safa : T:	(But one we got question from) xxx that we have to underline just one word= =aha if you want to emphasis word aha
1116	52:53	ss: T:	Xxx
1117	52:54	T:	The words [yea
1118	52:56	ss: T:	xxx
1119	52:57	T:	The word yea if I want to xxx sure (.) ok (.) yes
1120			Ok (.) but I'm talking about (.) it shouldn't be
1121			Like this (.) look at this it's xxx but? If you
1122			have a word and you want to make a prominent (.)
1123			. yea it's ok (.) ok you? Can make it bigger (.)
1124			In size (.)
1125	53:16	ss: T:	Yea
1126	53:17	T:	Ok (.) clear (.)
1127	53:20	ss: T:	Yes (7)
1128	53:29	T:	Ok (.) this is when we talk about clarity right
1129			(.) ok (3) xxx background sometimes xxx be red
1130			Easy background xxx go to xxx background and right
1131			Xxx yea it won't be clear it won't be clear (.)
1132			Ok (.) so use the simple fonts colours and graphs
1133			Use images and (.)
1134	54:02	ss: T:	Clipart=
1135	54:03	T:	=clipart (.) ok (6) this is everything thing about
1136			Preparation (.) this is everything about
1137			Preparation (.) remember

1138	54:20	ss:	(practice)=
1139	54:21	T:	Remember (6) you see that this is the essential
1140			Point to give any presentation to what (.)
1141	54:32	Ss:	Practice practice=
1142	54:34	T:	Practice or you call it rehearsal you call it (1)
1143	54:37	Ss:	[Rehearsal
1144	54:38	T:	[rehearsal (.) rehearsal means to do practice yea
1145			Same (.) ok (3) if? You fail to practise it means=
1146	54:46	Ss:	Xxx failure=
1147	54:47	T:	You are going to=
1148	54:48	Ss:	=Fail=
1149	54:49	T:	=yes
1150	54:50	Sx:	If you [fail
1151	54:51	T:	(do [you xxxx)=
1152	54:52	Sana : :	شئي علاش هکي ((what why it's like this)) (.) if you
1153			Fail to prepare or to practise
1154	54:57	T:	If-? {lauther} . what's the difference between
1155			Prepare and practice
1156	55:02	Sana : :	Prepare and practice=
1157	55:03	T:	=aha (.) if you if you fail to prepare or you (.)
1158			<u>fail</u> (.) to practise (.) you cannot (.) fail to
1159			Practise ok but practice is a xxx preparation yea
1160			Xxx you prepare yourself you prepare yourself
1161			To use what to xxx practise (.) ok so if you did

1162			Not do this it means you are preparing yourself to
1163	55:28	Sx:	Fa- xxx=
1164	55:29	T:	=to . fail (.) ok (.) remember? (.) practice (1)
1165	55:34	sx:	Makes perfect=
1166	55:25	T:	=yea (.) why (.) aa oh is it practise for one time
1167			(.) Ok I find some mistakes here ok let me
1168			Practise again (.) the second time and solve these
1169			Problems yea and then xxx the first xxx I got new
1170			Problem yea let me ha overcome these problems then
1171			Other problem and other problems than you are then
1172			You will be until you are perfect xxx yes (.) yes
1173			<u>I'm ready to go and give presentation</u> (.) and you
1174			Will have some mistakes <u>مرة اخرى</u> (once again)
1175			{laughter}
1176	56:09	Ss:	{laughter}
1177	56:10	T:	Even? If you do a lot of practice (.) Ok (.) of
1178			Course (.)
1179	56:14	Ss:	Xxx=
1180	56:15	T:	Yes you may do some mistakes (.) but at least you
1181			Have tried to overcome these=
1182	56:20	sx:	=the fear=
1183	56:22	T:	<u>The? Major errors (2) clear</u> (.)
1184	56:25	ss:	yes

1185	56:27	T:	Ok how can I practise (.) <u>how can I practise</u>
1186			Or how can I do rehearsal (.) rehearse ?outload
1187			Yes imagine yourself that there are some people
1188			In front of you ok ask your father and mother or
1189			Your brother or your siblings or xxx and imagine
1190			Yourself xxx of a lot of audience=
1191	56:54	sx:	=جمهور ((audience))=
1192	56:55	T:	=set . and start rehearsal** rehearse? For at
1193			Least (.) at least <u>فيها</u> ((with t for confirmation))
1194			Aha first second third four aha (.) rehears with
1195			All visual aids and handouts (.) ok (.) yes you
1196			Need to practise using all visual (.) what? You
1197			Need to make sure that everything (.)is working
1198			Yea (.) everything is working whether you using
1199			Audio or you are bring some photos like this
1200			(.) is it clear (.) the background and the colour
1201			Yea it's clear (.) ok (.) clear ()
1202	57:44	ss:	yes
1203	57:45	T:	Aha (3)
1204	57:47	Mona	Teacher and an an now in presentation an can do
1205			Pictures like these [aa like this way (.)
1206	57:52	T:	[aha
1207	56:54	T:	Like this way yea (.)

1208	57:55	Mona :	ابوة ((yes))
1209	56:56	T:	Like this way (.) ok (.) go rehearsal? Rehearsal
1210			In front of a clock (.) aha
1211	58:02	Mona :	And to set timer yea=
1212	58:04	T:	Yea (.) so you may have one or two papers for one
1213			Bullet point like this one (.) aha (.) in front of
1214			Clock? <u>Infront of mirror</u> . am I crazy to talk to
1215			Mirror but I think you spend most of time in front
1216			Of mirror=
1217	58:29	ss:	Yea {laughter}
1218	58:31	T:	Am I right=
1219	58:32	ss:	Yes {laughter}
1220	58:33	T:	Ok so please (.) spend sometimes while you are
1221			doing your rehearsal yea (.) ok please (.) start
1222			With the mirror and then go to your family other
1223			Wise they will be victims yea (.)
1224	58:45	ss:	{laughter}
1225	58:49	T:	Rehearse in front of them when you are ready:: (.)
1226			Xxx after you will discover your mistakes (.) what
1227			About rehearse or rehears practise in front of (1)
1228	59:02	Sx:	friends
1229	59:05	T:	In front of friends (.) <u>ask your friend to come</u>

1230			<u>and watch your presenatnion (.) and try to::</u> (.)
1231	59:10	Safa :	Ask=
1232	59:11	T:	Yea try to ask and please show me where [the
1233			strong
1234	59:17	xs:	[xxx
1235	59:20	T:	And where are the weak points (.) what are my
1236			Mistakes please xxx for me (.) ok (.) clear (.)
1237			هيا توا نرجعوا لـ So you may ask a friend (.) mirror
1238			(coming back to mirror) (.) I don't have a mirror=
1239	59:37	ss:	{laughter} xxx
1240	59:39	T:	Xxx they have like this
1241	59:43	Ss:	yea
1242	59:45	T:	Sure:: (.)
1243	59:46	Mona :	Yea front camera
1244	59:49	T:	Yea {showing them something} (6)
1245	59:53	Ss:	Aaha {laughter}
1246	59:55	T:	Ok (.) rehears? In front of (2)
1247	60:00	Ss:	Xxx (yourself)=
1248	60:02	T:	=xxx (if you have) video or tape record yourself
1249			(.) and then (.) that's it=
1250	60:07	ss:	={laughter}
1251	60:08	T:	No:: [go and xxx xxx
1252	60:10	ss:	[xxx and xxx=
1253	60:11	T:	=watch? Yourself (.) <u>to watch your mistakes</u> (.)
1254			<u>And try to overcome them</u> (4) ok you must do it
1255			That's why I advise all of you when you come to

1256			Present here (.) <u>please ask a friend</u> (.) ok after
1257			When you do this (.) ten times xxx (.) when you
1258			Come here (.) to my class and present (.) give
1259			your phone to a friend (.) and ask her to video
1260			Record your presentation (.) I know that xxx xxx
1261			Xxx xxx=
1262	60:44	sx:	Yea=
1263	60:45	T:	be careful (.) ok (.) yea so:: you must video
1264			Record yourself ask a friend to video record you
1265			(.) so you can go to work it on and watch yourself
1266			and watch your mistakes come to the xxx xxx
1267			Presentation with new [mistakes yea {laughter}]
1268	61:04	ss:	{laughter}
1269	61:05	T:	Sure? You will (do) with mistakes . no problem
1270			(.) ok (.) but please? Come with <u>new::</u> (.)
1271			Mistakes (.) only? This (.) <u>no</u> you must learn from
1272			The others experience (.)
1273	61:17	ss:	Yea
1274	61:19	T:	You must watch your friends while they are
1275			Presenting and take care of the mistakes that
1276			They have done don't repeat their mistakes (.)
1277			<u>Don't repeat their mistakes</u> (.) <u>don't (be)</u> (.)
1278			That's it (.) you got it (.) aha? Clear=
1279	61:34	ss:	=yea=
1280	61:35	T:	=so (.) the xxx xxx is to video record yourself

1281			Because it will be easy for you to watch yourself
1282			And watch your mistakes and (.) yea evaluate
1283			Yourself (.) aha (.) ok this is one thing . (2)
1284			what about the time you xxx xxx xxx the time
1285			For your presentation (.) right (.) yes rehears**
1286			Rehears? (.) in front of (2)
1287	62:04	ss:	Xxx (a clock) (2)
1288	62:07	T:	Clock? (.) rehears give the clock (.) . you know
1289			when you Present (in front of clock) (.) ok (.)
1290			Aha (.) stop watch (.) aha five minutes and xxx
1291			To finish my presentation in five minutes (.)
1292	62:18	sx:	Yes(.)
1293	62:19	T:	Why? (.) <u>to</u> (.) manage (1)
1294	62:22	ss:	Xxx time=
1295	62:21	T:	=your time (.) ok? (.) the first presentation I
1296			Have done it I think my presentation within (.)oh
1297			ten ten minutes (.) oh::: (.)
1298	62:31	ss:	(too much)=
1299	62:32	T:	=too much (.) ok xxx=
1300	62:34	Mona :	=aaa=
1301	62:35	T:	Cut out from the slides (.) rehears again (.) oh
1302			Seven minutes (.)
1303	62:40	Seha m	(do something)

1304	62:42	T:	Ok do some- yea edit something (.) ok (.) find a
1305			Way <u>to use the information</u> (.) ok (.) that's why
1306			I'm not giving you limitednumber of the slides (.)
1307			ok. (.) <u>but it shouldn't be very limited yea</u> (.)
1308	62:58	ss:	{laughter}
1309	62:59	T:	Don't copy (the slides xxx to take xxx ok this is
1310			my part) <u>zero</u> [{laughter}]
1311	63:02	ss:	[{laughter}]
1312	63:04	T:	Ok (.) clear
1313	63:05	ss:	Yes
1314	63:08	T:	Clear (.) as? simple as this (2) ok (.) what about
1315			If you (.) aaa (.) I cannot I cannot cut more now
1316			(.) ok try to speak little bet (2)
1317	63:21	ss:	Xxx faster faster xxx (.)
1318	63:23	T:	Ok (.) fast your xxx (.) aha so you can speak
1319			Faster xxx so (.) aaa now good . you know
1320			I spoke faster inefficient for the time=
1321	63:34	ss:	=Oh no no
1322	63:39	T:	Ha (.) do again (.) try again till you eventually
1323			Don't (find) a- (.) xxx xxx xxx your friend
1324			During the (.) the last few semesters (.) they
1325			Have done very well (.) they have their job done
1326			perfectly (.) ok and I xxx a lot of students who
1327			were able to (.) finish (.) <u>on time</u> (.) ok (2)

1328			Some? of the students will be (.) aaa will be
1329			Blame of xxx xxx xxx xxx requirements (.) so I
1330			<u>Advise</u> to use your mobile phone (.) ok use your
1331			Alarm ok (.) or ask a friend ok (.) to tell you
1332			That you still have 30 seconds (.) 30 seconds
1333			Before the end xxx xxx of the fifth minutes you
1334			Need to xxx give summary [and conclusion xxx
1335	64:29	sx:	[Yea xxx conclusion
1336	64:30	T:	So you can set your (.) alarm your phone (.) ok
1337			Just [five minutes aaa not not five minutes yea
1338	64:30	sx:	[xxx xxx
1339	64:30	T:	If I'm giving you just five minutes presentation
1340			(.) means set the alarm ha 4 minutes and 30 second
1341			(.) so once once you hear the? Alarm (.) it means
1342			Aah (.) I just I I have just thirty minutes to
1343			Finish my presentation otherwise (.) <u>I will lose</u> ::
1344	64:55	ss:	Marks::=
1345	64:56	T:	<u>Marks</u> (.) ok (.) everything with marks
1346	65:00	ss:	{laughter}
1347	65:02	T:	I'll show you the form (.) aaa if you finish on
1348			Time you will have full marks on time if you
1349			didn't finish on time I will <u>cut</u> ? 2 marks (.) xxx
1350			(.) ok don't worry about xxx xxx once you see the

1351			Form you will learn xxx xxx (.) ok (.) clear (.)
1352	65:18	ss:	Yes
1353	65:19	T:	Ok (.) so {another explosion}(4) is it difficult
1354			Present or to give a presentation in five minutes
1355			to (.) no=
1356	65:28	ss:	=no
1357	65:29	T:	=absolutely (4) advertisers? can get a complete
1358			Story across:: in less than <u>30 seconds</u> (3) so five
1359			Minutes should be (.)
1360	65:44	T:	Fine=
1361	65:45	T:	Fine (3) it? Takes five hours to prepare . a five
1362			(.) Minutes (.) presentation (5) please don't
1363			Don't come a night before and say we have xxx to
1364			Practice (.) xxx remember in order to do a
1365			Your presentation <u>perfectly</u> (.) there is no med
1366			Term exam there is no final exam (.) so:: (get
1367			Your job) (.) you should your? Best in order to
1368			(.) get (1)
1369	66:18	Mona	best mark=
		:	
1370	66:19	T:	=higher mark (.) right (.)
1371	66:22	ss:	yes
1372	66:23	T:	So you need to do a lot of practice xxx and
1373			Remember (.) advertisers they come to xxx and xxx

1374			That (.) ok (.) yea can talk about xxx in 30
1375			Seconds right (.) blab bla bla (.) 30 seconds this
1376			Is xxx it (.) ok im giving you five:: (.) I think
1377			I'm jealous (.) am I (be) jealous=
1378	66:42	Mona :	Yea=
1379	66:43	T:	=(I thing=k you can do it in three minutes)
1380	66:45	sx:	yeaaa
1381			Can you do it in three minutes? (.) aaa three
1382			Minutes is good yea
1383	66:52	ss:	No no=
1384	66:53	T:	They? Can xxx xxx presentation within thirty
1385			Seconds you know what does it mean thirty seconds
1386			(.) even? three minutes yes you can do (.) if (3)
1387			. You do (2)
1388	67:04	sx:	Practise (2)
1389	67:06	T:	. yes (that's it) (.) xxx of it ok (.) if you
1390			practise a lot if you will do a lot of rehearsal
1391			Yes you . can manage it (.) ok yes but it's ok
1392			I will give you (.) خمسة دقائق ok clear clear so (.)
1393			Rehearsal (.) make sure that one of your rehearsal
1394			Is in front of a really scary audience (.) ok a really scary audience why (.) why scary why scary
1395	67:43	sx:	To do xxx xxx
1396	67:44	T:	To avoid:: being afraid when you come to stand in

1397			the front the real ones here and to criticise you
1398			Ok (.) to criticize you and what else why should i
1399			Present in front of family in front of friends
1400			partners colleagues=
1401	68:03	safa	To tell you [s- :
1402	68:04	T:	[why
1403	68:05	Safa	To tell you=
1404	68:06	hana n:	=the mistakes that you have=
1405	68:07	T:	=Aha that you've done (.)
1406	68:09	hana n:	Criticize to be better (.)
1407	68:10	T:	Aha what else (.) amm what about the rest
1408	68:14	Seha m:	To xxx some mistakes (.)
1409	68:16	T:	Aha yes what else (1)
1410	68:18	Safa	Xxx five mintues to talk=
1411	68:19	T:	=You what about the rest (.) yea (.) good morning
1412			Good morning (.) hello (.) yes (.) yes to what?
1413			As you mention (.) as you mention? (.) to tell (.)
1414			Where ar- (.) where you are going wrong as well as
1415			To provide you with positive and negative feedback
1416			And give the support that you need (.) of course

1417			it will give the support (.) ok (.) now (.) ah let
1418			Me come to <u>the rules of three</u> (.) let me come to
1419			نبیکم انتم تجاویب <u>xxx xxx xxx</u>
1420			((I want you to answer)) (.) what the role of
1421			Three (.) the audience are likely to remember only
1422			Three things from your presentation (.) so plan
1423			Them in advance (.) ok (1) what are the three mean
1424			Main keys (.) massages (.) you want to send (.) ok
1425			So (.) There are three parts to your presentation
1426			The beginning the middle and the end (.) three yea
1427			(.)Use lists of three wherever whatever you can in
1428			your presentation as I told you (.) ok three words
1429			Per line (.) three bullet points per slide (.) ok
1430			(3) Clear (.)
1431	69:43	Ss:	Yes (3)
1432	69:44	T:	In Presentations (1)
1433	69:44	sx:	Less is more=
1434	69:44	T:	=Less is More (.) to say l- to say less (.) (am I
1435			Say it wrong) (4) ok (.)If? you have four points
1436			to get across (.) cut one out . (.) if it's not a

1437			Problem (.) or? As I told you if you have 6 devide
1438			Them into 2 (1)
1439	70:04	Ss:	[[slides=
1440	70:06	T:	=slides (.) and remember the speaker's impact (.)
1441			Remember the speaker's impact xxx xxx (.) the text
1442			Presents only (2) the text presents presents only
1443			(2)
1444	70:20	sx:	7% xxx (11) {the teacher is doing sth}
1445	70:31	T:	Ok (7) the text represents only 7% and visual
1446			Represents 55% (.) remember (.) remember . ok and
1447			This is the last time ok (.) let me move to a very
1448			Important (.) I'm about to finish yea (.) ahhhh
1449			(13) don't do that again {something happens}(14)
1450			clear?
1451	71:30	Ss:	[[yes
1452	71:31	T:	Your voice? Should that big
1453	71:34	ss:	{laughter} xxx not that much xxx {laughter}
1454	71:38	T:	Ok (.) . xxx it should be (.) aha=
1455	71:43	xs:	=clear (.)
1456	71:44	T:	Clear (.) ok what else (.) yes it should be
1457			louder? And clear than your norma? (.) pitch
1458			<u>Don't say this is my voice (.) no (.) this is your</u>
1459			Voice this is my mark (.) zero
1460	71:54	ss:	{laughter}
1461	71:56	T:	<u>Clear?</u>

1462	71:58	ss:	[[yes=
1463	71:59	T:	=aha from the beginning yea (2) vary pitch and
1464			Volume yea don't don't use the same intonation
1465			In you- your presentation yea (.) it will be very
1466			Boring yea=
1467	72:05	ss:	Yea [xxx xxx
1468	72:07	T:	[yea imag- imagine you will start with that
1469			Volume I would like to give my presentation
1470			and juat speak like this as I'm talking yea (.)
1471			the Same tone yea (.) the same tone (.) ok there
1472			Is no xxx there is no [variation (.) ok xxx xxx
1473	72:22	ss:	[xxx
1474			Ok (.) hello everybody xxx=
1475	72:27	Seha m:	It will be boring [it needs t-
1476	72:29	T:	[So;;;;? You need to what (.)
1477	72:30	Seha m:	Xxx=
1478	72:31	T:	=to? vary:: your (.) pitch or (.) to vary your
1479			Valume or to vary your intonation (.) like this
1480			(.) no it depends on the things that you are
1481			Saying (.) if? You have something [you need to
1482	72:47	ss:	[xxx
1483	72:48	T:	Emphasis aha [you (.) should (.) say it (.) <u>loudly</u>
1484	72:48	ss:	[xxx xxx xxx xxx xxx
1485	72:53	T:	Emphasis it (.) ok (.) yes use use xxx please

1486			. use that xxx of xxx to the xxx (.) what about
1487			Stance and gesture
1488	73:06	ss:	What xxx [xxx
1489	72:37	T:	[which is the body language ok (.) yea
1490			Minimum (.) minimise minimise minimise (.) fiddling
1491			Ok (2) give yourself nothing to fiddle with (2) ok
1492			Ok aaa we are going to aaa {moving things} to talk
1493			About aaa moving like in [away? (.) you are moving
1494	73:35	ss:	[{laughter}]
1495	73:36	T:	In (3) you are bothering your audience actually
1496			(.) you are bothering your (.) your audience (.)
1497			Even while you are moving yea (.) don't move a lot
1498			Like this yea (.) so here (.) ha (.) allow
1499			yourself to move a bit (.) but how can you move
1500			(.) with confidence (3)
1501	73:58	Sx:	Yea (2)
1502	74:00	T:	Ok (.) but xxx xxx xxx xxx (.) aha don't (.) I
1503			mean (.) give? Yourself self-confidence yea
1504			I know everything about my topic (.) ok I'm
1505			Expert . [in my topic=
1506	74:14	sx:	=yea
1507	74:15	T:	Ok
1508	74:16	ss:	Yea
1509	74:07	T:	My audience they know nothing about my topic

1510			I know everything about [this (.) and you know
1511	74:18	ss:	[{laughter}]
1512	74:20	T:	Nothing (.) yea? And this is the fact actually
1513			You have searched the topic that (5)
1514	74:27	ss:	{laughter}
1515	74:28	T:	We don't know (.) what you are talking about (.)
1516			Or maybe you are talking about something new that
1517			(.) so (.) be sure that you are the expert here
1518			(.) the person that will give the presentation
1519			(.) you are the expert here (.) In that area
1520			Because you have searched xxx xxx xxx that we are
1521			Just listening (.) ok (.) clear (.) so we should
1522			Have sloo slow sorry slow movement and look (.)
1523	75:01	ss:	[Confident {reading from the baord}]
1524	75:02	T:	[confident (7) and xxx (8)]
1525	75:18	ss:	So: aaa eye contact {reading from the board} (4)
1526	75:22	T:	<u>Don't? (.) stare</u>
1527	75:24	Mona :	xxx
1528	75:25	T:	One . [xxx xxx is ok:
1529	75:30	ss:	[{laughter}] yea
1530	75:42	T:	The? Eye contact is very important here (.) ok
1531			Look at ha foreheads of your (2) of your (3)
1532	75:42	ss:	Xxx audio- [listeners
1533	75:43	T:	[audience (.) yea amm (4) another topic
1534			Yea=
1535	75:49	ss:	Yes sir {laughter}=

1536	75:50	T:	That's why we have 2 steps here (.) so you
1537			shouldn't? be afraid (.) to come here (.) you are
1538			on Stage you xxx xxx you are taking control yea
1539			(.) you are talking the control here (.) so (.)
1540			You should feel be proud of yourself (.) I'm here
1541			And you are there=
1542	76:05	ss:	={laughter}
1543	76:08	T:	Just like this (.) feel it like this? (.) <u>in order</u>
1544			<u>To give</u> (.) <u>presentation?</u> with (.) good self- confi
1545			Dence (.) [ok (.) clear (.)
1546	76:19	ss:	[impossible xxx
1547	76:22	T:	Sorry (.)
1548	76:23	sx:	Impossible ta--=
1549	76:25	T:	=Why::? It's [impossible
1550	76:27	sx:	[xxx xxx
1551	76:28	T:	Why it's impossible for xxx money is impossible(.)
1552			Ok (.)
1553	76:30	sx:	I scared=
1554	76:32	T:	=Aha (.) After after xxx she
1555	76:34	sx:	[xxx xxx
1556	76:36	T:	You need to control your fear (.) you need to
1557			Control your fear (.) if you did what I have
1558			Mentioned (.) you will be able to do everything
1559			(.) وَمَنْ غَيْرُ خَوْفٍ (without fear)) (.) ok
1560	76:47	sx:	(ok)
1561	76:47	T:	Ok (.) so break eye contact to look at the big

1562			Screen (.) ok (.) and they will follow you . for
1563			Example (.) you have something interesting
1564			And you think that you- your audience they will
1565			Look at you (.) yes (.) ok you want to take them
1566			To the big? Screen here (.) once you go and look
1567			They (.)
1568	77:08	Mona :	Follow you (.)
1569	77:10	T:	They will follow you (.) if you will look at you
1570			want to show them something interesting (.) you?
1571			Need to use visual aids and you need to <u>refer</u>
1572			(.) you need to refer (.) to the visuals (.) you
1573			Need to refer to the visuals that you are using
1574			And we will talk about the language next (.) week
1575			ان شاء الله (God willing)) what what kind of language
1576			We use (.) how to xxx everybody (.) how to move
1577			from point to point how to move from slide to
1578			Slide (.) ok ok that's xxx xxx no problem at all
1579			(.) ok if you ask me think to xxx everybody what
1580			are you going to say (4) if I ask you now (.)
1581			To xxx your audience what are you going to say (1)

1582			You welcome (1) ok (I know everybody is welcome)
1583	77:52	ss:	{laughter}
1584	77:54	T:	That's it right (.) no you are going to give
1585			Formal presentation (.) so you've got certain
1586	78:00	T:	=XXX XXX=
1587	78:01	T:	=Language (.) ok aha and we will talk about this
1588			Next lecture ان شاء الله (God willing)) (.) ok (.) so?
1589			Don't overlook there to big screen (.) don't over
1590			Look (.) [at one screen (.) ok don't XXX and
1591	78:13	sx:	[XXX
1592			Remember (.) ther are a lot of mistakes in your
1593			Presentation that you have done (.) these mistakes
1594			Your audience will be like this {showing them
1595			Picture of sleeping audience}
1596	78:26	ss:	{laughter}
1597	78:30	T:	Ok (.)
1598	78:32	sx:	The one in the middle=
1599	78:33	T:	Do? You want your audience will be <u>like this</u> :: (.)
1600	78:35	T:	Xxx [XXX XXX
1601	78:36	T:	[aha so? What are the mistakes that XXX
1602			Minutes? (.) your audience will be like this
1603	78:40	sx:	The one=
1604	78:41	T:	=and you will XXX YEA=
1605	78:43	sx:	The one in the middle will be XXX XXX=
1606	78:46	T:	Ye {laughter}=
1607	78:47	sx:	Xxx be one

1608	78:48	T:	Ok (.) so what are the contd in presentation (.)
1609			Ehat are the mistakes we may do in our
1610			Presentation (.) if:: you have lack of experience
1611			He doesn't have experience right he doesn't have
1612			Experience he doesn't have self-confidence (.) he
1613			Is not sure (.) the teacher can xxx xxx oh he xxx
1614	79:19	ss:	Ye-
1615	79:20	T:	Because? Of what (.)Lack of experience.
1616			Lack of enthusiasm (.) or interest he is not
1617			Interested in so:: (.) he will not be able to give
1618			Presentation (in a good way) we have to xxx xxx
1619			We talk about something? (.) and I'm bringing
1620			Something (.)
1621	79:34	Xs:	else
1622	79:20	T:	Ok (.) what else lack of confidence (.)
1623			Hesitation hesitation (.) there there this is for
1624			You {making sound to the girl that said ill be
1625			scared} if you are going to be hesitated person
1626			(.) you are not going to (.)
1627	79:48	ss:	Pass pass=
1628	79:50	T:	=to pass (.) ah ambiguity in results . (.) ah is
1629			This right is this what I want to to to share with
1630			my aaa
1631	80:00	ss:	=no

1632	80:01	T:	=It's not the xxx Aaa=aha (.) [so you need to be
1633	80:03	ss:	[xxx xxx xxx
1634	80:06	T:	Yea you need to be xxx (.) so I have the factors
1635			that leads to xxx my presentation (.) of course
1636			(.) ok ok so we Have factors that might might lead
1637			to (.) (flows) in our presentation (.) of course
1638			We have factors that may? Lead=
1639	80:20	sx:	=success=
1640	80:21	T:	Aha to (4)succeed in giving our presentation and
1641			Our audience will be very happy and they will
1642			Clap for us like this (5)
1643	80:34	ss:	Xxx xxx
1644	80:35	T:	اَن شاء اللّٰهُ (God willing)=
1645	80:36	ss:	={laughter}=
1646	80:37	T:	اَن شاء اللّٰهُ (God willing)=
1647	80:37	ss:	=I hope so=
1648	80:36	T:	Ok (1) yes the others will be very happy it's very
1649			Good it's great? {clapping} very interesting ok
1650			Good so what is these factors I want xxx xxx xxx
1651			Like this? Not . like th-::: not like this ok so
1652			What should you do aha if you want to succeed? You
1653			What to (.) make xxx start this is the first the

1654			Most important thing here (.) make:: aha grab the
1655			Audience attention get their attention within the
1656			First (.) impression? Is the most important thing
1657			The first impression xxx aha the first engage your
1658			Audience at first the first two or three minutes
1659			The first two or three minutes you ned to engage
1660			Your audience and attract them ok show your xxx
1661			Through your movements and gesture ok (.) xxx xxx
1662			Please (.) make? an eye contact don't forget to
1663			. <u>smile::</u> (4) aha . ok today I'm going to talk
1664			About [aaa
1665	81:43	ss:	[{laughter}]
1666	81:44	T:	Clear (3) clear?
1667	81:47	ss:	Yes=
1668	81:49	T:	=aha unless? the topic is very xxx something which
1669			Is=
1670	81:54	sx:	=bad=
1671	81:55	T:	=Yes like for example ISIS (2)can you smile when
1672			you want to talk about ISIS (6)
1673			داعش و المصايب اللي صايرت توا في
1674			{البلاد ISIS and the current disasters in our
1675	82:03		country} like today I'm going to Talk about the
1676	82:05		bad situation in Libya=

1677		ss:	= {laughter} (1)
1678		T:	Ok do not smile when you are talking about such
1679	82:10		about these topics Clear (2) or today I'm going to
1680	82:11		talk about ISIS=
1681		ss:	= {laughter} =
1682	82:15	T:	=ohh (.) nice? Good and you are smiling (.) or you
1683	82:17		Want them [ahhha
1684			Prepared (.) <u>be over prepared</u> rehearse and
1685			Practise that the same meaning rehearse practise
1686			Practise rehearse rehearse practise practise
1687			Rehearse ha
1688	82:36	ss:	xxx
1689	82:37	T:	Until you fed-up xxx xxx xxx you must be familiar
1690			With your topic ok you must xxx xxx you must be
1691			Xxx <u>avoid? Stress</u> (.) avoid stress always prepare
1692			Ok channelize your fear your [fair] ok channelize
1693			It . xxx xxx xxx xxx no not like this
1694			Channelize yea وزعيه (Channelize) don't don't leave
1695			It yea (please stay) خلية برا شوية يا سيد نعطي بريزنتيشن و بعدين نرجعلك
1696			Outside Mr fear for a while I'll give the
1697			presentation and I'm coming back to you)
1698	83:17	Ss:	= {laughter} =
1699	83:18	T:	=ok::: don't? say I'm afraid and I can't do it ok

1700			Ha interact with your own yea clear
1701	83:30	ss:	yes
1702	83:31	T:	This is everything just to sumup just to sum up
1703			Yes I like to sum up I like to summarise don't (4)
1704	83:36	Ss:	Panic
1705	83:37	T:	don't <u>stuck</u> (.) no xxx can I repeat no

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