

**PEER INTERACTION AND LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES
IN COHESIVE AND LESS COHESIVE L2 CLASSROOMS**

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my family, to the memory of my parents and especially my husband Joaquim, who has always given me so much support and without whom I might never have started on this venture.

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ABSTRACT

KEYWORDS: task based language learning, peer oral interaction, cohesive groups, affect, learning opportunities, sociocognition, quality and quantity of language, situated nature of language learning.

The present study investigates peer to peer oral interaction in two task based language teaching classrooms, one of which was a self-declared cohesive group, and the other a self-declared less cohesive group, both at B1 level. It studies how learners talk cohesion into being and considers how this talk leads to learning opportunities in these groups.

The study was classroom-based and was carried out over the period of an academic year. Research was conducted in the classrooms and the tasks were part of regular class work. The research was framed within a sociocognitive perspective of second language learning and data came from a number of sources, namely questionnaires, interviews and audio recorded talk of dyads, triads and groups of four students completing a total of eight oral tasks. These audio recordings were transcribed and analysed qualitatively for interactions which encouraged a positive social dimension and behaviours which led to learning opportunities, using conversation analysis. In addition, recordings were analysed quantitatively for learning opportunities and quantity and quality of language produced.

Results show that learners in both classes exhibited multiple behaviours in interaction which could promote a positive social dimension, although behaviours which could discourage positive affect amongst group members were also found. Analysis of interactions also revealed the many ways in which learners in both the cohesive and less cohesive class created learning opportunities. Further qualitative analysis of these interactions showed that a number of factors including how learners approach a task, the decisions they make at zones of interactional transition and the affective relationship between participants influence the amount of learning opportunities created, as well as the quality and quantity of language produced. The main conclusion of the study is that it is not the cohesive nature of the group as a whole but the nature of the relationship between the individual members of the small group completing the task which influences the effectiveness of oral interaction for learning.

This study contributes to our understanding of the way in which learners individualise the learning space and highlights the situated nature of language learning. It shows how individuals interact with each other and the task, and how talk in interaction changes moment-by-moment as learners react to the ‘here and now’ of the classroom environment.

INTERACÇÃO E OPORTUNIDADES DE APRENDIZAGEM EM TURMAS L2 COM DIFERENTES GRAUS DE COESÃO

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RESUMO

PALAVRAS-CHAVE: aprendizagem da língua com base em tarefas, interacção oral em pares, grupos coesos, domínio afectivo, oportunidades de aprendizagem, socio-cognição, qualidade e quantidade de linguagem, condição e situação de aprendizagem da língua.

O presente estudo é uma investigação no âmbito da interacção oral em pares em duas salas de aula: um grupo auto declarado coeso, outro declarado menos coeso, ambos de nível B1. O estudo revela a forma como os alunos criam coesão e oportunidades de aprendizagem através do discurso.

O estudo foi baseado em exercícios práticos desempenhados em sala de aula, tendo sido desenvolvido ao longo de um ano lectivo académico. Isto é, a investigação é o resultado da observação e análise do trabalho prático regular realizado em aula pelos discentes. A pesquisa foi enquadrada numa perspectiva sociocognitiva de aprendizagem da segunda língua, e a informação provém de um conjunto de fontes metodologicamente utilizadas, nomeadamente questionários, entrevistas e registos áudio das conversas das díades, tríades e grupos de quatro alunos, num total de oito tarefas de oralidade. Os registos áudio foram transcritos e qualitativamente analisados para interacções que estimulavam uma dimensão social positiva, e comportamentos que conduziam a oportunidades de aprendizagem usando *Conversation Analysis*. Além disso, os registos foram também analisados quantitativamente relativamente às oportunidades de aprendizagem e à qualidade e quantidade de linguagem produzida.

Em ambas as turmas, os resultados indicam múltiplos comportamentos interactivos por parte dos estudantes, comportamentos esses que promovem uma dimensão social positiva, embora tenham sido detectados também, comportamentos que podem desencorajar a afectividade entre os elementos do grupo. A análise do processo de interacção revelou também as diversas formas através das quais os estudantes criaram oportunidades de aprendizagem em ambos os grupos; o coeso e o menos coeso. A outro nível, uma análise qualitativa complementar destas interacções mostrou que, tanto o número de oportunidades de aprendizagem criadas, como a qualidade e quantidade de linguagem produzida são influenciadas por vários factores, nomeadamente o modo como os estudantes desempenham a tarefa, as decisões que tomam em zonas de transição interactiva e as relações afectivas entre os participantes. A principal conclusão do estudo é que não é a condição coesa do grupo como um todo, mas a natureza da relação entre os seus membros que completam a tarefa, que influencia a eficácia da interacção oral na aprendizagem.

Este estudo contribui para a nossa compreensão do modo como os alunos singularizam o espaço de aprendizagem, ao mesmo tempo que destaca a natureza contextual do ensino da língua. Mostra ainda como interagem os indivíduos uns com os outros e com a tarefa, e como, no processo de interacção, o discurso muda a cada momento, devido à reacção dos alunos ao “aqui e agora” do ambiente da aula.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dedication.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
List of Abbreviations.....	xvi
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	7
2.1 Interaction and Task Based Language Learning.....	7
2.1.1 A Brief Historical Overview of Pedagogy and Classroom Interaction	8
2.1.2 Task Based Learning.....	9
2.1.3 The Task Based Learning Framework.....	12
2.1.4 Some Criticisms of Task Based Learning.....	15
2.2 Interaction Patterns in the L2 Classroom.....	16
2.2.1 Interaction Patterns in the TBL classroom: Task Types.....	18
2.2.2 Factors Influencing Task Outcomes.....	23
2.2.3 Criticisms of Task Based Learning Interactions.....	23
2.3 Theoretical Insights Concerning Second Language Learning.....	25
2.3.1 Interaction and Cognitive Theories of Language Learning.....	25
2.3.1.1 Interaction, Cognitive Theories and Task Based Learning.....	29
2.3.2 Cognitive versus Sociocultural Approaches.....	31
2.3.3 Socially Orientated Theories of Language Learning.....	32
2.3.3.1 Sociocultural Theory.....	32
2.3.3.2 A Socio-Interactionist Perspective.....	35
2.3.3.3 Language Ecology and Complexity Theory.....	36
2.3.3.4 Sociocognition and Variationism.....	37
2.3.3.5 Interaction, Socially Orientated Theories and Task Based Learning.....	39
2.4 Affect and Language Learning.....	42
2.4.1 Cohesive versus Non-cohesive Groups.....	43
2.4.2 The Social Dimension of Tasks.....	47
2.5 Summary.....	49
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY.....	50
3.1 Research Questions.....	51
3.2 Classroom Context and Learners.....	54
3.3 Tasks.....	56
3.4 The Questionnaire.....	60
3.4.1 Questionnaire Structure and Procedure.....	60
3.4.2 Reliability, Validity and Limitations.....	62
3.5 The Interviews.....	63

3.6 Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis of Recordings.....	64
3.6.1 Qualitative Analysis of Recordings.....	65
3.6.2 Quantitative Analysis of Recordings.....	69
3.6.2.1 Quantitative Analysis: Behaviours which Lead to Learning Opportunities.....	69
3.6.2.2 Quantitative Analysis: Quantity of Language.....	70
3.6.2.3 Quantitative Analysis: Quality of Language.....	72
3.6.3 Reliability, Validity and Limitations.....	75
3.7 Summary.....	77
CHAPTER 4 THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEWS.....	78
4.1 The Questionnaire.....	78
4.1.1. The Questionnaire: Part 1.....	78
4.1.1.1 Student Questionnaire, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3.....	80
4.1.1.2 Teacher Questionnaire, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3.....	83
4.1.1.3 Student Questionnaire, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3.....	84
4.1.1.4 Teacher Questionnaire, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3.....	86
4.1.1.5 Student Questionnaire, Classes 1 &2, Terms 1 & 3.....	88
4.1.1.6 Teacher Questionnaire, Classes 1 & 2, Terms 1 & 3	90
4.1.1.7 Summary.....	91
4.1.2 The Questionnaire: Part 2.....	93
4.1.2.1 Student Questionnaire, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3.....	95
4.1.2.2 Teacher Questionnaire, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3.....	99
4.1.2.3 Student Questionnaire, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3.....	99
4.1.2.4 Teacher Questionnaire, Class 2, Term 1 and 3.....	102
4.1.2.5 Student Questionnaire, Classes 1 &2, Terms 1 & 3: The Individual.....	103
4.1.2.6 Student Questionnaire, Classes 1 & 2, Terms 1 & 3: The Group.....	104
4.1.2.7 Summary.....	106
4.2 The Interview	108
4.2.1 Class 1.....	108
4.2.1.1 Positive and Negative Affective Behaviours.....	109
4.2.1.2 Positive and Negative Sociocognitive Behaviours.....	113
4.2.1.3 Positive Emotions, Beliefs and Attitudes.....	114
4.2.2 Class 2.....	116
4.2.2.1 Positive and Negative Affective Behaviours.....	119
4.2.2.2 Positive and Negative Sociocognitive Behaviours	122
4.2.2.3 Positive Emotions, Beliefs and Attitudes	123
4.2.3 Summary.....	125

CHAPTER 5 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF PEER INTERACTION FOR SCAFFOLDING WHICH ATTENDS TO AFFECTIVE STATES.....	128
5.1 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Encourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 1.....	129
5.2 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Discourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 1.....	143
5.3 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Encourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 2.....	160
5.4 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Discourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 2.....	167
5.5 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Encourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 3.....	168
5.6 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Discourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 3.....	173
5.7 Summary.....	179
 CHAPTER 6 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF PEER INTERACTION FOR BEHAVIOURS WHICH LEAD TO LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES.....	181
6.1 Language and Private speech.....	181
6.2 Repair Practices.....	183
6.2.1 Other Repair.....	184
6.2.2 Self Repair.....	189
6.3 Collective Scaffolding.....	190
6.4 Classroom Affordances.....	196
6.5 How Learners Individually Struggle with Language.....	202
6.6 Summary.....	203
 CHAPTER 7 ANALYSIS OF PEER INTERACTION FOR LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES AND QUALITY AND QUANTITY OF LANGUAGE PRODUCED.....	205
7.1 Error Correction.....	205
7.2 Other Learning Behaviours.....	212
7.3 Quantitative Analysis of Interaction for Quality and Quantity of Language.....	216
7.4 Qualitative Analysis of Peer Interactions for Learning Behaviours, Quality and Quantity of Language	218
7.5 The Case of Rute.....	236
7.6 Summary.....	241

CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS	242
8.1 Review of the Study.....	242
8.2 Group Cohesion and Classroom Behaviour.....	244
8.3 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions for Scaffolding which Attends to Affective States.....	248
8.4 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions Leading to Learning Opportunities.....	254
8.5 Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis : Learning Opportunities, Quality and Quantity of Language.....	260
8.5.1 Quantitative analysis.....	261
8.5.2 Qualitative analysis.....	262
8.5.3 Discussion and Conclusions.....	262
8.6 Final Conclusion.....	268
8.7 Pedagogical Implications.....	270
 BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	 274

FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Components of the TBL Framework.....	13
Figure 3.1	Transcription Conventions.....	67
Figure 4.1	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 1, Term 1.....	81
Figure 4.2	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 1, Term 3.....	81
Figure 4.3	Scores by Item, Teacher Questionnaire Part 1, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3.....	84
Figure 4.4	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 2, Term 1.....	84
Figure 4.5	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 2, Term 3.....	85
Figure 4.6	Scores by Item, Teacher Questionnaire Part 1, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3.....	87
Figure 4.7	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 and 2, Term 1.....	88
Figure 4.8	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 and 2, Term 3.....	89
Figure 4.9	Scores by Item, Teacher Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 and 2, Term 1....	90
Figure 4.10	Scores by Item, Teacher Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 and 2, Term 3....	91
Figure 4.11	Attitudes towards Group Cohesiveness, Classes 1 and 2.....	92
Figure 4.12	Comparison of Class 1 and Class 2, Group Cohesiveness, Terms 1 and 2.....	93
Figure 4.13	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 1, Term 1.....	95
Figure 4.14	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 1, Term 3.....	98
Figure 4.15	Scores for Teacher Questionnaire Part 2, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3.....	99
Figure 4.16	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 2, Term 1.....	100
Figure 4.17	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 2, Term 3.....	101
Figure 4.18	Scores for Teacher Questionnaire Part 2, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3.....	102
Figure 4.19	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 1: The Individual.....	103
Figure 4.20	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 3: The Individual.....	104
Figure 4.21	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 1: The Group.....	105
Figure 4.22	Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 3: The Group.....	105
Figure 4.23	Attitudes towards Classroom Behaviours, Classes 1 and 2.....	107
Figure 4.24	Comparison of Class 1 and Class 2, Classroom Behaviours, Terms 1 and 3	108
Figure 4.25	Principal Differences between Results for Class 1 and Class 1 Interviews.	125
Figure 4.26	Possible Group Processes in Class 1.....	127
Figure 4.27	Possible Group Processes in Class 2.....	127

TABLES

Table 2.1	A General Task Framework.....	22
Table 3.1	Learners and Classroom Context.....	55
Table 3.2	Task Features.....	58
Table 3.3	Intended Pedagogical focus of Tasks.....	59
Table 3.4	Utterances Excluded from AS-unit Count Data.....	71
Table 3.5	Exceptions to Utterances Excluded from AS-unit Count Data.....	71
Table 3.6	Definitions and Examples of False Starts, Repetition and Self -Correction	73
Table 4.1	Summated Likert Analysis of Student and Teacher Questionnaires, Part 1, Term 1 and Term 3.....	79
Table 4.2	Summated Likert Analysis of Student and Teacher Questionnaires, Part 2, Terms 1 and 3.....	94
Table 4.3	Class 1. Learner interviews. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories.....	111
Table 4.4	Class 1. Teacher interview. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories.....	112
Table 4.5	Class 2. Learner interviews. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories.....	117
Table 4.6	Class 2. Teacher interview. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories.....	118
Table 5.1	Features of the Interaction which could Discourage a Positive Social Dimension.....	179
Table 5.2	Features of the Interaction which could Encourage a Positive Social Dimension.....	180
Table 6.1	Examples of Learning Behaviours in the Interaction.....	204
Table 7.1	Episodes of Peer and Self-repair (target like and non -target like) expressed as a Total and Percentage of the total for Classes 1 and 2.....	208
Table 7.2	Quantitative Analysis of Error Correction by Recording and Task.....	211
Table 7.3	Quantitative Analysis of Learning Behaviours by Recording and Task.....	214
Table 7.4	Quantitative Analysis of Peer Interaction for Quality and Quantity of Language Produced.....	217

APPENDICES

Appendix 1.1	Term 1, Task 1, Error Correction.....	294
Appendix 1.2	Term 1, Task 2, Dictogloss 1.....	295
Appendix 1.3	Term 2, Task 1, Bill’s Timeline.....	296
Appendix 1.4	Term 2, Task 2, Socialising Discussion Task.....	297
Appendix 1.5	Term 2, Task 3, National Stereotypes Discussion Task.....	298
Appendix 1.6	Term 3, Task 1, ‘What if?’ Discussion Correction Task.....	299
Appendix 1.7	Term 3, Task 2, Tricky Situations Discussion Task.....	300
Appendix 1.8	Term 3, Task 3, Dictogloss 2.....	301
Appendix 2.1	Pilot Questionnaire.....	302
Appendix 2.2	Introductory Letter.....	304
Appendix 2.3	Pilot Questionnaire Feedback Form with Responses.....	305
Appendix 2.4	Student Questionnaire.....	306
Appendix 2.5	Teacher Questionnaire.....	308
Appendix 2.6	Scoring for Student Questionnaire.....	310
Appendix 2.7	Scoring for Teacher Questionnaire.....	311
Appendix 2.8	Student Semi-structured Interview Questions.....	312
Appendix 2.9	Teacher Semi-structured Interview Questions.....	313
Appendix 2.10	Guide to Recordings.....	314
Appendix 3.1	Attitudes Towards Group Cohesiveness by Group with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation(s.d) and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N), Term 1.....	315
Appendix 3.2	Attitudes Towards Group Cohesiveness by Group with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation(s.d) and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N), Term 3.....	316
Appendix 3.3	Attitudes Towards Group Cohesiveness for Teachers, Terms 1 and 3	317
Appendix 3.4	Classroom Behaviours by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation(s.d) and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N), Term 1.....	318
Appendix 3.5	Classroom Behaviours by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation(s.d) and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N), Term 3.....	320
Appendix 3.6	Classroom Behaviours by Group and Teacher. Scores for Terms 1 and 3	322
Appendix 4.1	Transcription of Final Dictogloss reconstruction task of learners in Class 1 (Recording 29) and Class 2 (Recording 31).....	324

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AS-unit	Analysis of Speech unit
CA	Conversation Analysis
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
C-R	Consciousness-Raising
C-unit	Communication Unit
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
IRE	Initiation, Response, Evaluation
IRF	Initiation, Response, Follow-up
LRE	Language Related Episodes
L1	First language
L2	Second or foreign language
NfM	Negotiation for Meaning
NNS	Non -Native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
PPP	Present, Practice, Produce
SLA	Second Language Acquisition/Learning
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TBL	Task Based Learning
T-unit	Minimal terminal unit
WTC	Willingness to Communicate
ZIT	Zone of Interactional Transition
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

I am first and foremost a teacher. I teach English as a foreign language in a public university and a private language school in Portugal and have long been interested in helping my students learn more effectively. For this reason I decided to further my knowledge of teaching and learning and embarked on a programme of study which culminated in a Master's Degree in Applied Linguistics and TESOL in 2010. I found it fascinating to read papers and books on research involving L2 language learning and teaching, but was always struck by how far removed the classrooms and learners in many of these studies seemed from the classrooms I had taught in for more than twenty years. Much of the research took place under experimental conditions, which bore little resemblance to the 'messy' reality of the language learning classrooms I was familiar with where learners could struggle to engage with materials or sustain the use of the target language throughout the course of an oral activity. It also struck me that this approach seemed to ignore the fact that language learners are different to mice in the laboratory. They have feelings, and these feelings influence the social environment which develops in the classroom over a period of study, which I believed could influence how effectively students learned. My experiences of teaching led me to agree fully with Stevick (1980:4) when he said that success in second language learning depended 'less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom'.

This aspect of the social environment in the classroom and how it helped or hindered language learning was of particular interest to me as over the years I had found that the same lesson delivered to two different classes at the same level, in the same week, could have very different results depending on the composition of the class itself. Some classes seemed to be composed of individuals who were always willing to take an active part in class, who interacted readily with their peers and who engaged fully in tasks. In contrast others remained a collection of individuals who never 'gelled', and who seemed to interact less and engage less in

activities. And I was not alone in these observations. My colleagues also had experience of similar groups although reports in the literature were few and far between (Hadfield 1992, Senior 1997).

My interest in these groups, and in particular my intuition that learners in classes which gelled better were engaging more in the type of behaviours which would lead to language learning, led me to the literature on theories of language learning. I read of early theories of L2 learning (Corder 1967, cited by Larsen-Freeman 2007: 774) which emphasised that learner language was a linguistic system in its own right, containing forms which showed that learners were applying cognitive strategies in an attempt to construct the rules of the target language. Further research into the role of cognition in language learning led to the hypothesis that modifications between native and non-native speakers, termed negotiation for meaning (Long 1996), provided opportunities for language learning during oral interaction, and thereby formed the basis for the development of language. Mackey (2012: 4) conceded that interactional research couldn't be seen as a complete causal theory of L2 acquisition, but did argue that it provided second language learners 'with learning opportunities during exchanges of communicative importance that contain critical linguistic information'. On the other hand, some took a more entrenched view. In 2003, Doughty and Long (2003: 4) stated that:

Researchers recognize that SLA takes place in a social context, of course, and accept that it can be influenced by that context, both micro and macro. However, they also recognize that language learning, like any other learning, is ultimately a matter of change in an individual's internal mental state. As such, research on SLA is increasingly viewed as a branch of cognitive science.

Further reading however proved that this strictly cognitive view had its opponents. Crookes (1997: 100-101) warned that much SLA research was conducted outside the social setting in which learning occurred and that the relationship between SLA and pedagogy could be improved if 'SLA focused more on learning as social rather than psychological'. In this same year Firth and Wagner, in an article which caused much controversy, called for a greater degree of social and contextual orientation to language. Whereas cognitivist SLA research focused on language acquisition, that is how people learn a language, not how they use it,

social SLA research focused on language use and the effect of social and interactional factors on the language produced (Larsen-Freeman 2007: 780). Sociocultural theories of language learning, based mainly on the learning theories of the Soviet developmental psychologist Lev Vygotsky, suggested that language was a tool for thought in mental activity and that learning was dependent on social interaction. The learner understands how to do things through collaborative talk until this understanding becomes part of their own individual consciousness (Vygotsky 1987, cited by Mitchell & Myles 2004:194-195). From this perspective, learning opportunities¹ resulted from opportunities for participation. From my own personal experience, my perception was that language learning² in the classroom was something that happened through interaction in a social environment, and I knew how much better learners could perform in class when aided by myself or a more able peer. But from my own experiences as a learner of Portuguese, I felt that neither cognitive nor sociocultural theories taken individually was sufficient to explain how I had learned the language, which I learned both in the classroom and in an immersion situation. I then read about sociocognitive perspectives on language learning which I felt, from my personal experience as a learner and teacher, better explained L2 language learning. Sociocognition proposes that:

Neither language use nor language learning can be adequately defined or understood without recognizing that they have both a social and a cognitive dimension. (Batstone 2010:4)

As I read further I realised that a greater interest in social factors such as the role of identity in language learning had led to greater interest in the language learners as individuals, their emotions and feelings. However, although affect, a term used to describe a 'range of phenomena that have anything to do with emotions, moods, dispositions, and preferences', (Oatley & Jenkins 1996, cited by Arnold 1999) is central in human mental and social life, it remains a relatively unknown quantity in language learning except for the area of anxiety in language learning. Here many studies exist which reveal that some learners experience a

¹ Here Crabbe's definition (2003: 18) of learning opportunities, as access to any activity that is likely to lead to an increase in language knowledge or skill, will be used.

² I should make it clear that I make no distinction here between language learning and language acquisition and use both terms interchangeably to refer to both subconscious and conscious learning.

particular form of anxiety, similar to stage fright, in response to learning or using a second or foreign language, entitled language anxiety or foreign language anxiety (Horwitz 2010). Nevertheless, to me it was obvious that in the language learning classroom we needed to consider not only intrapersonal aspects of affect but also interpersonal aspects as learner interaction, so important for language learning, is intimately connected with learners' affective state, especially in communicative classrooms where learners may be asked to express some personal aspects of themselves in a language they may feel uncomfortable using. Consideration of these affective factors in interactions in the L2 classroom led Ehrman and Dornyei (1998:136) to suggest that effective classes, where learners feel safe to take the risks necessary for language learning exhibit 'group cohesiveness' and describe this cohesion as the "'glue' that holds the group together and maintains the group as a system,' with group here referring to the group-as-a whole, that is, the group as a single entity (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 20).

To me it seemed that this 'glue' was what was missing in some of my classes –this 'glue' was what I wanted to investigate. These classes with a positive whole group atmosphere had been described as bonded (Senior 1997), or cohesive (Dornyei & Murphey 2003) groups. Although there seemed to be no empirical evidence to corroborate it, my perception was that, as learners in these less cohesive groups were generally quieter, seemed less comfortable with each other and therefore interacted less with one another, they were limiting their language learning opportunities, which are believed to arise through learner agency, that is, the idea that learning depends on the activity and the initiative of the learner (van Lier, 2008 cited by Waring 2011: 201). I therefore decided to make these cohesive and less cohesive class groups the focus of the present study.

My aim was to examine interactions, considered by many researchers and teachers as lying at the heart of learning, and also the means through which cohesion in the classroom comes about, in self-declared cohesive and less cohesive class groups, and attempt to determine whether learners in such groups were more or less likely to engage in behaviours which could promote both the learning opportunities mentioned above, and positive affect. Much interactional research to now has

focused on interactions between native and non-native speakers or between teachers and students (Mackey 2012). My interest was in peer-to-peer interaction, which I will define as any communicative activity carried out between learners in the same class group in pairs or small groups with minimal or no participation from the teacher. My particular interest in peer interaction stemmed from the fact that in the task based learning classrooms I taught in, learners spent significant amounts of time interacting orally with other students in the class, rather than with the teacher. However, the nature of these interactions, that is, what students actually say to each other and how this influences their learning and their affective relationships with each other was, in great part, an unknown quantity to me, given that in most classes I had four groups of 4 students interacting simultaneously. The questions I was interested in answering were: How learners in cohesive and less cohesive classes talked cohesion into being. How interactions served to provide learning opportunities from a sociocognitive perspective in both class groups. And lastly, how the quality and quantity of interaction in such groups varied. The following chapters address these points.

Chapter 2 of this thesis explores in greater depth the reading referred to in this introduction and provides a background on the topic of interaction and its importance in the learning process. It also addresses Task Based Learning, (the pedagogical approach taken in the classrooms where this research was carried out), cognitive and socially oriented theories of language learning, and the role of affect in language learning.

The remainder of the thesis is organised as follows: Chapter 3 provides information on the methodology employed in this research. It lists the research questions, describes the classroom context and learners, and details the tasks used. It then details the methodology used to investigate the research questions and considers reliability, validity and limitations. Chapter 4 presents and discusses the results of questionnaires and interviews and Chapter 5 presents and discusses results of the qualitative analysis of interactions which encourage or discourage a positive social dimension amongst class members over the academic year in self-declared cohesive and less cohesive classes. Chapter 6 then describes and discusses results

of the qualitative analysis of interactions for learning opportunities in both groups over the academic year. Chapter 7 describes and discusses quantitative analysis of peer interactions for learning opportunities and quality and quantity of language produced. It also presents further qualitative analysis of interactions in an attempt to clarify the quantitative data. Lastly, chapter 8 discusses and draws conclusions from the work undertaken, suggests possible areas for further research and addresses the pedagogical implications. This thesis is therefore an empirical study on peer interaction carried out in the classroom as real learners in real classrooms engage in peer to peer oral interaction.

CHAPTER 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter reviews the theoretical background to the research presented in this thesis. It is divided into four main sections: (2.1) Interaction and Task Based Language Learning, (2.2) Interaction patterns in L2 classrooms, (2.3) Theoretical Insights concerning Second Language Learning and (2.4) Affect and Language Learning. The first section briefly examines the role of interaction in language learning classrooms from a historical perspective before going on to consider Task Based Learning (TBL), the pedagogical approach in use in classrooms at the British Council, Lisbon, Portugal, where this research was carried out. Section 1 also discusses the key ideas of TBL and the classroom approach adopted in this study. Section 2 starts with a short description of how interaction patterns in L2 classrooms have been characterised in the past and then moves on to consider interaction in the TBL classroom, highlighting the different task types that have been described in the literature. Section 3 starts by describing cognitive theories of language learning and how these relate to TBL. It then continues by considering sociocultural theories and TBL, finishing with a discussion of sociocognitive theory and SLA. In section 4, affect and language learning are explored in more depth and the idea of cohesive and non-cohesive groups is introduced, as is the social dimension of tasks. A short final section (2.5) concludes this chapter.

2.1 Interaction and Task Based Language Learning

Since the advent of the communicative approach to language learning, oral interaction between teacher and learners or amongst learners is a common occurrence. However this was not always the case and in this section I would like to start with a brief historical overview of the role of interaction in the L2 classroom. I then move on to consider interaction and task based learning.

2.1.1 A Brief Historical Overview of Pedagogy and Classroom Interaction

Second and foreign language teaching in the past one hundred years has been characterized by a quest to find more effective ways of teaching, resulting in the proliferation of many different approaches and methods, some of which have come about due to a change in learners' needs, for example the need for greater oral proficiency, others due to changes in theories of language learning and theories of the nature of language itself (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 3). Some of the major approaches and methods which have flourished during this period are the Grammar-Translation method, Audiolingualism and Communicative Language Teaching.

The Grammar-Translation method dominated foreign language teaching until the 1940s. Some of its principal characteristics were that the target language was studied with a view to understanding its literature, accuracy was emphasised, grammar rules were analysed, and this knowledge used to translate sentences and texts. Little or no attention was paid to speaking or listening and the students' native language was used as the language of instruction and as a reference system to aid learning of the second language. (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 5-6). However, this method, which was devoid of a psychological, linguistic or educational theoretical basis, gradually lost popularity, in part due to the fact that greater opportunities for travel resulted in a greater demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages, and in the post Second World War period it was replaced by Audiolingualism.

Audiolingualism emphasised the skill of speaking and consisted of individual and choral drilling. No free use of language was permitted as this was thought to cause learners to make errors. Here behaviourism was the learning theory proposed to explain language learning (de Bot, Lowie & Verspoor 2005: 78). Proponents suggested that foreign language learning was a process of mechanical habit formation with a stimulus, (the language being presented), a response (the learner's reaction to the stimulus) and reinforcement, (the teacher's reaction, positive or negative, to the learner's response) (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 56). However, in the 1960s, behavioural theory was challenged by Noam Chomsky who argued that people do not limit themselves to using language they have already

heard, but are capable of generating new sentences and patterns. This, combined with a shift in focus from language to learner, and a growing belief in the importance of sociolinguistic aspects of language, led to the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the 1970s.

CLT, the objective of which is to develop ‘communicative competence’ (Hymes 1972), has been embraced by practitioners on both sides of the Atlantic as ‘the most plausible basis for language teaching today’ (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 244). It is believed that activities that involve using language that is meaningful to the learner to participate in real communication and meaningful tasks support the learning process. Teaching activities involve learners interacting in the target language to share information (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 161-165), and it is this interaction which Allwright (1984: 156) considers to be ‘*the* fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy’. So, as can be seen, classroom practices have progressed from Grammar-Translation, where oral interaction was reduced to an absolute minimum, moving on to highly controlled oral practice with Audiolingualism, to real communication between teacher and learners and amongst learners, which many teachers strive for in the language classroom today. Such interactions amongst learners in the classroom have become of key importance to teachers and researchers alike. The research described in this thesis has been carried out in classes where a task based approach has been adopted, and it is to this approach which I now turn my attention.

2.1.2 Task Based Learning

As described above, Communicative Language Teaching aims to develop the ability of learners to use language meaningfully and appropriately in the construction of discourse. Contrary to earlier methods, which were based on a view of language as a set of phonological, lexical and grammatical systems, CLT drew on Halliday’s functional model of language and Hymes’ theory of communicative competence (Ellis 2003: 27) and proposed that real communication through activities where language was used to carry out meaningful tasks promoted learning, and that language that was meaningful to the learner supported the learning process.

However, a quick glance through any ELT publisher's catalogue is proof of the fact that most coursebooks today, although claiming to be communicative in nature, are based on firstly acquiring the structural system of the language, then learning how to use this system to communicate, described as a 'weak' version of CLT (Ellis 2003: 28). Teaching this version of CLT has traditionally used the present-practice-produce (PPP) methodological approach in which the language to be studied is presented by the teacher, students then practice this language in a controlled manner, for example, through gapfills or repetition, followed by the production stage where learners are expected to produce the language studied in a freer practice activity. Implicit in this methodology is the idea that it is possible to lead learners from controlled to automatic use of one or two specific forms, either grammatical structures or functional realizations, by the use of carefully controlled exercises (Willis & Willis 2007: 4). However this view of language learning is not supported by Second Language Acquisition research, which suggests that learners do not accumulate structures sequentially. Rather second languages are acquired when the language learner processes language input in interactional situations. Through interaction, the learner's interlanguage system³ gradually develops, with grammatical features such as negatives taking months or even years before they are successfully automatized (Saville-Troike 2006: 176). As Skehan (1996:18) comments:

The underlying theory for a PPP approach has now been discredited. The belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization (that learners will learn what is taught in the order in which it is taught) no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology.

In contrast, Task Based Learning (TBL) can be thought of as a recent version of a communicative methodology based on current theories of second language acquisition which has drawn extensively on the work of SLA researchers such as Crookes and Gass (1993), Ellis (2003), Garcia Mayo (2007) and Samuda and Bygate (2008). The primary unit for designing a language course and planning

³ The term interlanguage was introduced by Selinker to refer to learner language and involved two fundamental notions. These were that learner language is a system, obeying its own rules and that this system is dynamic and changes over time (Selinker 1972, cited by Mitchell and Myles 2004: 39).

an individual TBL lesson is the task. However, there is no agreement amongst researchers as to how a task can be defined. Ellis (2003: 3) suggests that tasks differ from exercises in that, whereas exercises are primarily form focused language use, tasks are aimed at eliciting meaning-focused language use. He further suggests that to be a task, an activity must satisfy the following criteria:

- a) The primary focus is on meaning.
- b) There should be some type of gap between learners which creates a need to exchange information, which could be factual information or an exchange of opinions.
- c) Learners use the language they have at their disposal to complete the activity
- d) The task should have a sense of completeness and be able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right. In other words, the outcome of the task is not expressed in terms of language, but of task completion.

Ellis (2003: 4-5) presents nine definitions of tasks used by practitioners since 1985 to the present. In this work I will use the definition of Nunan (2004:4) who describes a task as:

A piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.

Some key ideas of TBL, as summarized by Feez (1998: 17) are that tasks give emphasis to meaning and communication, that learners learn through interaction, that tasks may be those needed in real life (for example using the telephone) or may be pedagogical in nature (for example an information gap activity), and that task based syllabuses are ordered according to the degree of difficulty of the task. It is also assumed that tasks provide both the input and output processing necessary for language acquisition and that lexical units, for example lexical phrases, sentence stems, collocations and prefabricated routines, are central in language use and language learning (Richards & Rogers 2001: 227).

Just as there are a number of definitions of tasks, so there is no single way of doing TBL. In this study, I will be referring to the approach set out by Jane Willis (1996) and Dave and Jane Willis (2007), which is the approach adopted in the classrooms where the research was undertaken. Here, in direct contrast to the PPP approach, the teacher provides the opportunity for learners to use the language as much as possible in class for genuine communication (Willis & Willis 2007:4). In the opinion of Willis and Willis, learners focus on language when they consider what forms they should use during meaning-focused activities. They may clarify these doubts with a teacher, or the teacher could recast an erroneous utterance, supply words or help learners shape their message. This, they name ‘Focus on Language’. ‘Focus on form’ they define as the exemplification, explanation and practice of specific forms which occur in the course of a task. This could occur when the teacher corrects a learner, or could happen during a stage of the lesson when the teacher engages the learners in the study of specific lexical or grammatical forms, probably after the task has been completed, termed the Language Focus stage (Willis & Willis 2007: 25). In this way a focus on meaning, language and form are of importance in the TBL classroom and trying to communicate through the spoken language is considered the basis for second language acquisition. I will now turn my attention to procedure in the TBL classroom.

2.1.3 The Task Based Learning Framework

In her book on TBL Jane Willis (1996: 155) suggests a framework of activities for the TBL classroom which comprises of a pre-task, a task cycle, which is itself further broken down into the task, planning and report stages, and a final language focus stage. Figure 2.1 summarises the principal components of this framework.

In the pre-task stage, the teacher introduces the topic, helps learners recall topic related words and phrases, preteaches any unknown vocabulary which may appear in a text and uses activities which help rehearse this language in a stimulating way. This could be through memory challenge, odd one out or mind-map activities. The objective of this is to boost students’ confidence in completing the task. The teacher then gives the task instructions, and could demonstrate the task with a good student or play an audio or video recording of fluent speakers doing the same type

of task (Willis 1996: 42-45), although depending on the nature of the task, this could occur at the end of the task cycle. This exposes learners to real-life interaction, rich in the words and phrases that sustain speech and link ideas together, the type of interaction that Willis claims is absent from controlled, scripted tapescripts in most coursebooks.

Pre –task		
Introduction to topic and task.		
Task Cycle		
Task	Planning	Report
Learners do the task.	Learners prepare to report on the outcome of their task to the class.	Groups present their report to the class.
Language Focus		
Analysis		Practice
Learners analyse specific features of the text or recording transcript.		Learners engage in practice of new words, phrases or patterns resulting from analysis stage.

Figure 2.1 Components of the TBL Framework (adapted from Willis 1996:38)

The first stage of the task cycle is the task itself, where learners work in pairs or small groups to achieve the goals of the task. Some examples of tasks are information exchange activities, problem solving or opinion exchanging discussions, fact-finding activities to research and collect information to present, or exchanging personal stories. The teacher’s role here is to observe, encourage, control time, but help only if there is a major breakdown in communication (Willis 1996: 54). During the task phase, learners have the opportunity to develop their fluency but there is a need to stretch learners’ language development and internalize grammar. This is achieved during the planning stage, where learners prepare to report to the class how they did the task and rehearse what they will say, and the

report stage itself, where they present their spoken reports to the class, for example giving an oral presentation of a personal experience or reporting on their opinions on a topic. During the planning stage, the teacher's main role is as language adviser, encouraging learners to correct themselves, responding to learners' queries, and selectively correcting errors. In this way, the teacher reacts to whatever language emerges as important and then helps learners address the gap. This ensures that during the report stage, the language used by learners should be significantly better than the original task as they have now had the opportunity to notice the gaps and focus on accuracy and appropriacy.

Only after this report stage does the focus of the lesson move from meaning to explicit language instruction. In the language focus stage, the teacher leads learners in consciousness-raising activities which focus on the language forms used or needed during the cycle, the meanings of which are now familiar. During this stage learners have the opportunity to systematize the grammar they already know, make and test hypotheses, and expand their lexical repertoire. Reading texts and tapescripts are often used for language analysis activities and tapescripts can also be used to focus on phonological features such as intonation, stress and individual sounds. A variety of analysis activities can be used before turning learners' attention to practice activities. Analysis activities could focus on semantic concepts and could involve learners finding phrases which refer to time or people, or could focus on words or parts of words, for example phrasal verbs, or could ask learners to identify categories of meaning and use (Willis 1996:107). Practice activities include gapped texts for learners to complete or reformulation and reconstruction tasks such as dictogloss which induce learners to notice the gap between their linguistic system and the target language system and restructure their underlying interlanguage (Thornbury 1997). In this way the Willis approach pushes learners to attend to specific structures which result in more accurate performance, what Loschky and Bley-Vroman's term the 'efficiency' condition (1993: 132). Teachers further help learners address the gap which has been noted between the meanings they wish to express and the language they have at their disposal, thus allowing language analysis, systematization and consolidation to take place after their interlanguage has been restructured.

In TBL, the active involvement of the learner is central to the approach. As Hatch (1978: 404) states:

One learns how to do conversations, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction, syntactic structures are developed.

Learners learn by using the language, so they learn speaking skills by speaking, and the transmission approach to education, in which the learner acquires knowledge passively from the teacher, is rejected.

2.1.4 Some Criticisms of Task Based Learning

As task based learning challenges mainstream views about language teaching, it is not surprising that it has been subjected to criticism from teachers and educators who favour a more traditional approach. Some argue that communication tasks are not a valid basis for a syllabus (Bruton 2002, Swan 2005). This criticism has been addressed by Ellis (2009) who suggests that the claim that TBL ‘outlaws’ the grammar syllabus is unjust, as the implementation of the syllabus in the classroom inevitably leads to attention to form which, in practice, may occur at any stage of the task cycle using a variety of techniques such as recasts or short grammar explanations, what Willis and Willis (2007) term ‘focus on language’.

Other researchers have criticised TBL, suggesting that practical difficulties exist. Carless (2004, 2007), reporting results of a study of TBL in elementary classrooms in Hong Kong claimed that this approach led to the widespread use of L1, little L2 production and discipline challenges for teachers, suggesting this could have arisen due to the cultural context in which it was implemented. However, McDonough and Chaikitmongkol (2007), reporting results from a study of TBL in a university in Thailand found that this pedagogical approach increased learner independence and led students to recognize that their course was relevant to their academic needs, suggesting that the failure of this methodology in Hong Kong could have been due to factors such as the proficiency level of students or preparation of teachers. I personally have more than ten years’ experience using this approach in classrooms in Portugal, and agree with Ellis that focus on form is possible at any stage of the TBL lesson. What’s more, because the forms focused

on are generally of immediate relevance to the learners they are more meaningful and memorable. In 2012 citizens in the twenty seven member states of the European Union were surveyed on the topic of multilingualism (European Commission 2012:3). Results showed that Portugal (27%) was below the European average (38%) of those claiming to have sufficient proficiency to have a conversation in English, and was one of only six countries⁴ where percentages were lower than 30%. Speaking skills are therefore of prime importance to adult students. In house research carried out in 2012 at the British Council, Lisbon, Portugal, revealed that of the levels questioned (A1 to C2) one issue highlighted by students at all levels was that what they appreciated most about lessons were the realistic, relevant tasks used and the plentiful opportunities for speaking practice afforded by the pedagogy. Although it may be true that the claim that TBL is a more effective basis for teaching than other approaches remains to be proven, this is an accusation which could be made of any other approach or method used currently. However, I do agree with the criticism that TBL can lead to widespread use of L1 and cause discipline challenges, although I have not found this a problem with adult learners. In my experience these problems have arisen in classes of teenage learners, but having taught teenagers for many years I would suggest that these are perennial problems with this age group regardless of the pedagogical approach adopted.

Having considered the pedagogical approach in the classrooms under consideration in this study I would now like to turn my attention to interaction patterns in L2 classrooms in general and in the TBL classroom in particular.

2.2 Interaction Patterns in the L2 Classroom

Oral interactions in language classrooms are both the object of pedagogical attention and the means through which learning takes place. Interactions between students and teacher model their roles and relationships, that is, how they are expected to act as members of the classroom, and early experiences of student-

⁴ The other five countries were Bulgaria (25%), The Czech Republic (27%), Spain (22%), Hungary (20%) and Slovakia (26%).

teacher interaction influences students' perceived roles in future learning situations. Early research on classroom interaction showed that in Western classrooms, typical discourse involved teachers asking students a question, with this being followed by a brief reply by the student and the teacher's evaluation, commonly known as the Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) pattern (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975, cited by Hall & Walsh 2002:188-189). Here the teacher is the expert who decides who will talk, when they talk, how much they contribute and whether these contributions are acceptable or otherwise. In this interaction pattern, the teacher is in control and student interactions can often be limited to brief answers. In 1993 Wells suggested a reconceptualisation of the IRE pattern after observing teacher pupil interactions in science classrooms. He suggested that teachers, instead of using the third part to evaluate students, could use this turn to allow students to expand on, justify or clarify their opinions and called this the Initiate-Response-Follow-Up (IRF) format. This, Wells concluded, enhanced opportunities for learning. Consolo (2000) and Duff (2000), in studies on foreign language classrooms corroborated Well's research and found that, in the IRF interaction pattern, learner contributions were more likely to be validated by teachers, and such follow-ups encouraged learners to express their own thoughts and opinions, thereby drawing attention to key concepts or linguistic forms. Seedhouse (2006: 113-115) suggests that as the pedagogical focus of the lesson changes, so does the interaction pattern. He used conversation analysis (CA) to examine student teacher interactions in the second language classroom and showed that although the extract under examination 'could at first sight be mistaken for a rigid, plodding lockstep IRE [...] cycle sequence [...] the interaction is in fact dynamic, fluid and locally managed on a turn-by-turn basis to a considerable extent.' Jacknick (2011) showed how this interaction pattern can be reversed by students initiating the interaction, teachers responding and students following up on the teacher's response.

However, the central focus of this study is peer interaction, with peers being defined as L2 learners, and although the role of the teacher is significant in managing peer interactions, it is beyond the scope of this study to discuss this in any detail. Peer interaction has been described as having a 'collaborative, multiparty, symmetrical participation structure' (Blum-Kulka & Snow 2009),

collaborative, as participants work together towards a common goal, multiparty, as two or more participants are involved, and symmetrical in contrast to the hierarchical relationship between learners and teachers. Traditionally peer interaction was not considered a context for learning but a belief that learner talking time could be greatly increased if learners talked to each other, and the notion that this interaction would allow peers to adopt new conversational roles led to a greater reliance on peer interaction as a context for language practice and use (Philp, Adams & Iwashita 2014:2).

Having presented some classroom interaction patterns I will now attempt to describe interactions in the TBL classroom and present classifications of task types.

2.2.1 Interaction Patterns in the TBL Classroom: Task Types

The research described here takes place in classrooms where a task based approach has been adopted and interaction is of special importance. Although tasks can involve any of the four language skills, attempting to communicate orally through the target language is considered the core of second language acquisition and so most tasks involve oral interaction. Such tasks may be real world tasks such as planning a holiday, or may be pedagogical tasks such as performing an information gap activity, but what both have in common is that the tasks are meaningful to the learner and involve real communication (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 223-228). For example, the information gap activity could involve asking for information about train or flight times and so could form part of the holiday planning task. Ellis (2003: 27) describes two types of language teaching involving tasks. In what he terms task-based language teaching, the task is considered a unit of teaching and complete language courses are designed around tasks. In task-supported language teaching, tasks are incorporated into traditional language based courses. In the particular situation under consideration here, tasks form the basis of the syllabus, but the syllabus is based on a textbook, which is organised around themes and grammatical structures. Although these text books have been written with a traditional presentation, practice, production approach to the lesson, the materials are adapted and supplemented with authentic reading texts and listening materials in the manner described by Jane Willis (1996: 144-146), with a focus on form at the end of the

task cycle, after learners' attention has been focused on understanding and expressing meanings to achieve task outcomes. As this approach is neither task-based language teaching nor task-supported language teaching I will refer to the pedagogical approach adopted as 'textbook-supported task based learning'. In the classroom, the teacher introduces the task, and then largely withdraws from the interaction allowing learners to rely on their own linguistic resources to complete the activity. As tasks aim to involve real-world processes of language use, interaction patterns should reflect those that occur in real world communication, for example asking and answering questions, giving opinions, agreeing and disagreeing or dealing with misunderstandings. Markee & Kasper (2004: 492) describe classroom talk that results from small group interaction during task-based learning as an interrelated speech exchange system rather than a linear question-answer-comment system. Dave Willis (1990: 130) suggests that 'The most dynamic element in the process is the learner's creativity. By exploiting, rather than stifling that creativity, we make learning vastly more efficient'.

Tasks themselves vary in type. Mackey (2012: 60-64) draws attention to the fact that most tasks are situated on a continuum and distinctions should not be viewed as dichotomous. It is also true that one task may involve several stages, each of a different task type. However, Mackey classifies four major task types - one-way versus two-way tasks, closed versus open tasks, convergent versus divergent tasks and focused versus unfocused tasks.

One-way tasks, involve transmission of information from one person to another, for example, one learner gives instructions on how to find hidden treasure on a map while the other follows instructions and marks the location on their map. Two-way tasks involve two way exchange of information, for example, spot-the-difference tasks or jigsaw-tasks, where learners have different but related information which they need to exchange in order to achieve an outcome. Closed tasks are characterised by the fact that they have only one correct, predetermined answer, for example, a two way task in which both participants have similar but different information about a celebrity and must ask each other questions to complete the missing information in their texts. Open tasks on the other hand have

no predetermined answer and involve tasks such as discussion tasks, where learners exchange ideas and opinions on a certain topic. In convergent tasks, learners need to reach a consensus of opinion on a topic, for example, a pyramid debate, whereas in divergent tasks, learners do not have to find a solution which is acceptable to all, for example, a formal debate. Lastly, in the unfocused task, the emphasis is on having learners practice communication in general (Mackey 2012:63), whereas in the focused task, there is 'a predetermined linguistic focus embedded in meaning-focused interaction'. For example, Mackey (1999:568) studied tasks which were designed to elicit question forms. Ellis (2003: 162) describes 'consciousness-raising' (C-R) tasks as a further example of focused tasks. He describes these as being tasks that cater 'primarily to explicit learning' as the content of these tasks is the language itself and learners focus on a particular linguistic feature. Kowal and Swain (1994) use the term 'Language-Related-Episode' (LRE) to describe such an occasion during interaction where learners monitor or explicitly talk about their use of L2. LREs are defined by Swain and Lapkin (1998: 326) as 'any part of a dialogue where language learners talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others'. This could for example include error correction exercises or inferring rules from examples. This would seem to contradict the definition used in this study that a task should focus learners' attention on meaning rather than form (Nunan 2004). However, Ellis (2003: 163) argues that C-R activities are indeed tasks, as here learners need to talk meaningfully about the linguistic focus of the task, and that as such they are examples of problem solving tasks which can aid learning by involving a greater depth of processing (Craik & Lockhart 1972). From the examples given above, it is obvious that this system of classification allows for overlap. For example, the information gap exercise, where pairs of students have incomplete information about a celebrity and need to ask and answer questions to complete their texts is simultaneously a two-way, closed task, which may have a particular language focus, for example, past tense question forms.

Ellis (2003: 201-217) goes into much greater detail in classifying task types and admits that a 'bewildering array' of tasks have been reported in the literature, which he attempts to classify as pedagogic, rhetorical, cognitive and

psycholinguistic tasks. He refers to Willis's classification of tasks as an example of pedagogic classification, which includes task types such as listing, ordering and sorting (for example sequencing or ranking), comparing (for example finding similarities or differences), problem solving, sharing personal information (for example presenting a personal anecdote) and creative tasks.

He categorises tasks such as narratives, instructions, descriptions and reports as rhetorical tasks, which alternatively, he suggests, could include the concept of genre, examples of which would be radio programmes, job interviews or political speeches. A cognitive classification based on the cognitive processes involved features Prabhu's (1987) classification of tasks, these being three types of 'gap' activities – information-gap, reasoning-gap and opinion-gap.

His psycholinguistic classification of tasks is similar to the four task types described by Mackey (2012) and mentioned above.

1. Interactant relationship: this concerns the distinction between one-way and two-way tasks.
2. Interaction requirement: if interactants need to ask for and give information or whether this is optional.
3. Goal orientation: the distinction between convergent and divergent tasks.
4. Outcome options: this refers to whether the task has a single outcome, that is, a closed task, or whether there are several possible outcomes, that is, an open task, with outcome meaning 'what the learners arrive at when they have completed the task for example, a story, a list of differences etc'. (Ellis 2003: 8).

He draws on these task types to create the general task framework which can be seen in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 A General Task Framework (taken from Ellis 2003:217)

Design feature	Key dimensions
Input, i.e. the nature of the input provided in the task	1 Medium a pictorial b oral c written
	2 Organization a tight structure b loose structure
Conditions, i.e. way in which the information is presented to the learners and the way in which it is to be used	1 Information configuration a split b shared
	2 Interactant relationship a one- way b two-way
	3 Interaction requirement a required b optional
	4 Orientation a convergent b divergent
Processes, i.e. the nature of the cognitive operations and the discourse the task requires	1 Cognitive a exchanging information b exchanging opinions c explaining/reasoning
	2 Discourse mode a monologic b dialogic
Outcomes, i.e. the nature of the product that results from performing the task	1 Medium a pictorial b oral c written
	2 Discourse domain/genre, e.g. description, argument, recipes, political speeches
	3 Scope a closed b open

I have now presented the main features of task types and interaction patterns in the TBL classroom. However, various factors influence task outcomes and these will now be described in section 2.2.2.

2.2.2 Factors Influencing Task Outcomes

There are a vast number of variables to take into account when examining interactions in the TBL classroom one of which is the different task types mentioned above. Skehan (1998) considered task type as one of a number of ‘task features,’ which are variables related to goal, type of input or conditions of a task (see Table 2.1). Other ‘task features’ include topic importance, discourse mode, for example story telling versus information exchange and cognitive complexity, for example, do learners need to communicate large amounts of detailed information or not (Ellis 2003: 91-95). Task familiarity could also be added to this category (Mackey 2012: 71).

‘Task implementation’ variables (Skehan 1998) consist of variables relating to task procedure. These could be the participant role (one-way or two-way tasks), if learners are performing the task for the first time or if they are repeating a task already undertaken, the amount of planning time allowed to learners, (Ellis 2003: 96-98) and a number of social or individual variables such as familiarity with their interlocutor, (Mackie 2012: 71), pair dynamics (collaborative, expert/novice, dominant/passive or dominant/dominant, Storch 2002b) and whether the social environment is conducive to learning.

2.2.3 Criticism of Interactions in the TBL Classroom

Task based interaction has been criticised as being ‘impoverished’ and ‘a particularly narrow and restricted variety of communication, in which the whole organization of the interaction is geared to establishing a tight and exclusive focus on the accomplishment of the task’ by Seedhouse (1999: 155), who uses the following example from Lynch (1989) to illustrate his point.

L1: What?

L2: Stop.

L3: Dot?

L4: Dot?

L5: Point?

L6: Dot?

LL: Point, point, yeh.

L1: Point?

L5: Small point.

L3: Dot

Although it could be argued that this interaction is indeed impoverished, Ellis (2009: 229) draws our attention to the fact that the nature of interaction in the TBL classroom depends on the design and implementation of the task and the proficiency level of the students themselves. Counter arguments claim that highly complex language can result when more advanced learners engage in more complex tasks and that even limited interactions from lower level learners can encourage them to ‘develop their capacity to make use of their limited resources [...] helping them to develop their strategic competence’ (Ellis 2009: 229). Having taught in textbook-supported task based learning classrooms for ten years, I would suggest that the language produced in the TBL classroom is dependent on the nature of the task and the level of the learners. When lower level students perform an information gap activity, it could well be that their language is limited to a question-answer system of interaction, but when a higher level class group is performing a task in which the whole group has to work together to prepare a class radio programme, for example, the language employed is unpredictable and learners use whatever linguistic resources they have at their disposal to accomplish the task successfully. Having established the types of interactions that occur in the classroom I would now like to relate interaction to theories of how languages are learnt.

2.3 Theoretical insights concerning Second Language Learning

Research into the role of interaction in language learning has progressed considerably in the past 20 years and there is now a body of work which supports claims that oral interaction benefits L2 learning (Mackey 2012:3). In this section I will consider the role of interaction in cognitive and socially oriented learning theories and relate these to task based learning.

2.3.1 Interaction and Cognitive Theories of Language Learning

The role of input and interaction in L2 language learning springs from current understanding of their role in first language learning (L1). Adults and other caretakers when addressing young children use ‘child directed speech’ or baby-talk which could facilitate language acquisition in a number of ways, including promoting positive affect, improving intelligibility, providing feedback and correct models and encouraging conversational participation (Mitchell & Myles 2004: 161). Although cultures exist where this type of child directed input is absent, for example, the poor rural community in the South-East of the USA studied by Heath (1983, cited in Mitchell & Miles 2004: 163), where children are generally not engaged in conversation by adults until the children can themselves produce multi-word utterances, it is true to say that even in such settings, where children learn to speak perfectly well, they live in group settings and are constantly immersed in situations where group members engage in contextualised interaction. Although it is still unclear exactly how input and interaction facilitates first language learning, it is obvious that contextualised input is a prerequisite, as children who are exposed to language in a decontextualized setting, for example on television, will not learn (Snow *et al.*, cited in Mitchell & Miles 2004: 163).

Stephen Krashen was the first to suggest the contribution of input in second language learning in his Input Hypothesis, which stated that language acquisition resulted from understanding comprehensible input, which was necessary for learners to move from i , the current level, to $i+1$, the next level (1982, cited by Mitchell & Myles 2004: 165). Krashen posited that language learning and language

acquisition were separate processes, with acquisition being a subconscious process similar to that children experience when learning their first language and learning being a conscious process that happens when learners focus on the linguistic rules of the target language. He furthermore claimed that learning could not become acquisition, (cited by Mitchell and Myles 2004: 45), and although Krashen's work has been criticised as being difficult to test and lacking in empirical support, these ideas have led to a number of other learning theories based on input and interaction.

One such theory is Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1981, 1996) which places a similar emphasis on input as Krashen's Input Hypothesis, but claims that optimum input for language learning is that which occurs when learners have the opportunity to 'negotiate meaning' when communication problems occur, thus allowing learners to obtain comprehensible input. This he believed formed the basis for language learning, rather than only being a forum for practice of language features, and the idea is expressed in the Interaction Hypothesis:

Negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the [...] more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways. (Long 1996:451)

He observed that during native-speaker/ non-native-speaker interaction, the use of repetition, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests⁵ and recasts⁶ were common. He hypothesised that in this way, learners, through checking and clarifying problem utterances, came to attend to a discrepancy between their (imperfect) knowledge of the second language and correct forms which gave the learners the opportunity to incorporate new language into their discourse and receive comprehensible input. Accordingly, the more

⁵ Confirmation checks refer to situations where one speaker seeks confirmation through the use of repetition of preceding utterances with rising intonation. Comprehension checks refer to situations where one speaker attempts to determine if the other speaker has understood a previous message and clarification requests refer to situations where one speaker attempts to understand a previous utterance through the use of questions, statements such as 'I don't understand' or requests for repetition by the other speaker. (Pica *et al*, cited by Mitchell & Myles 2004: 168).

⁶ Long (1996: 436) defined recasts as an utterance that rephrases an utterance 'by changing one or more of its sentence components [...] while still referring to its central meanings'. For example,
A Yesterday I go to the supermarket
B Yesterday you *went* to the supermarket

learners negotiate for meaning, the more opportunities they have to learn. Research by Pica (1994) has been important in extending this hypothesis. She also claims, like Long, that negotiating for meaning helps learners obtain comprehensible input, but further suggests that learners are provided with feedback on their use of L2 and are pushed into producing output that is more comprehensible and therefore more target-like. This can be illustrated in the following example taken from Pica (1994):

NNS	The windows are crozed
NS	The windows have what?
NNS	Closed
NS	Crossed? I'm not sure what you're saying there.
NNS	Windows are closed

However, as Foster (1998) pointed out, most research on the importance of negotiation for meaning has been carried out in research conditions, and when she investigated interactions in the classroom, she found that many students were disinclined to initiate or pursue negotiation for meaning during small group work, and those who did often engaged in short interactions, with requests for clarification being answered briefly, if at all (1998:18).

The importance of not only input but also output in L2 learning was described by Swain (1995) in her Output hypothesis, on the basis of results of research carried out on students in French-medium instruction. These students achieved comprehension abilities in French as a second language that were close to native speakers, but their productive skills were far weaker. Most researchers would agree that output is necessary for learners to increase fluency, and to learn to use their interlanguage confidently and routinely. Swain's Output Hypothesis however goes beyond this and states that:

Output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended nondeterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Output, thus, would seem to have a potentially significant role in the development of syntax and morphology. (1995: 128)

So output is important because it requires learners to impose syntactic structure on utterances, but Swain suggests that it may also be significant in

hypothesis testing and automaticity. Interacting in the target language gives learners the opportunity to experiment with new language and receive either positive or negative feedback from their interlocutor. It also gives learners the practice they need to turn the relatively laboured output of the elementary learner into the more fluent production of more advanced learners, that is, for language to become routinized. Studies carried out on the role of output and vocabulary acquisition (Ellis & He 1999, de la Fuente 2002) seem to show clear benefits when students were pushed to produce target language utterances. However the benefits of output on second language grammar development remain unclear (Shehadeh 2002: 597) and more research is needed in this area.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) studied the role of error correction on language learning in the Canadian immersion context. They found that although recasts, which they defined as ‘the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error’ (1997: 46), were much more common types of negative feedback than negotiation of form or explicit meta-linguistic corrections, they were apparently relatively ineffective in repairing grammar mistakes as only 22% were corrected. Further studies in the area of error correction and language learning (Mackey & Philip 1998, Long, Inagaki & Ortega 1998, Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada 2001) have had mixed results and the contribution of negative feedback to language learning is still unclear. More recently Leeman (2003) has proposed that the most important feature of recasts may be the increased saliency of the new form rather than the negative evidence they contain.

The idea that the learner’s attention to specific parts of the language may lead to new language being incorporated into the learner’s developing language system or that attention promotes the restructuring and modification of existing knowledge has been investigated in second language acquisition research. The theory that input and interaction lead to intake has been put forward by Schmidt (1994) as a result of his own experience of learning Portuguese. He suggests that noticing, or the voluntary or involuntary registering of some stimulus, ‘for example when one notices the odd spelling of a new vocabulary word’, (Schmidt 1994: 17) leads to learning and using the feature. Doughty (2001) suggests that cognitive

comparison may work when the learner's attention is focused on the mismatches between input target language forms and their output interlanguage forms. Representations of both these forms could be held in the learners short term memory where they are compared, the target language utterance could be held in long term memory leaving traces in the short term memory which could be used for comparison, or the target language utterance could pass to long term memory but be readily available for access when a mismatch is detected. Anecdotal and empirical evidence suggests that learners are indeed capable of noticing mismatches (Schmidt 1994). I now turn my attention to cognitive theories and the use of tasks in the classroom.

2.3.1.1 Interaction, Cognitive Theories and Task Based Learning

I will now consider the task types mentioned in 2.2.1 and examine the research on how interaction in these tasks facilitates interactional modification and language development.

In relation to one-way/two-way tasks, Pica (1987) found that two-way tasks (where both learners exchange information) involve more negotiation of meaning and interactional modifications than one-way tasks (where only one learner is involved in transmitting information). However these findings were challenged by work carried out by Gass and Varonis (1985) whose research revealed that learners engaged in a one way picture drawing task produced more modifications than in a two-way information exchange task. This led the authors to speculate that shared background knowledge in the two-way task resulted in less negotiation for meaning.

Researchers on interactions in open/closed tasks, where an open task has no predetermined answer and a closed task does, have speculated that more negotiation of meaning will occur with closed tasks, as learners are required to come to a solution (Mackey 2012: 62), and this has been backed up in research . Berwick (1990, cited by Ellis 2003: 90) in a study on Japanese college students found that closed tasks in general, led to more comprehension and confirmation checks, more clarification requests and more self-expansions than open tasks, so it would appear

that from the perspective of the Interaction Hypothesis, closed tasks are more likely to promote language learning. However, Leaver and Willis (2004: 24) suggest that an argument in favour of using open tasks could be that they provide learners with more opportunities to produce longer turns and manage their discourse more effectively.

Similarly, in comparing a problem solving and a debate task (respectively convergent and divergent tasks), Duff (1986, cited by Mackey 2012: 63) reported that the convergent task resulted in more turns and more interactional modifications but that the debate resulted in more syntactic complexity. In the last group described by Mackey, focused/unfocused tasks, those focused tasks described by Ellis (2003: 166) as consciousness-raising tasks are more likely to develop explicit knowledge and promote noticing.

However, it is important to remember that in the language learning classroom the learners play a major role in shaping the goal and ultimate outcomes of tasks set for them by their teachers. Seedhouse (2004: 93) argues that the ‘Pedagogical Landing-Ground Perspective’, that is, the belief that intended pedagogical aims of a task, the ‘task-as-workplan’ translate directly into classroom practice, or ‘task-in-process’ is accepted as the unstated, default perspective of all textbooks and teaching manuals. However, as any teacher knows, this is not always the case, as the interactional organisation of the classroom moulds and shapes the actual outcome of any piece of work in class, and so it can be very difficult to generalise as to the outcome of tasks in terms of language or interaction, as this is dependent on how individuals interact with the task, each other and the wider social classroom context.

In the above section I outlined cognitive learning theories and related these to L2 learning in the TBL classroom. I now move on to discuss sociocultural theories and similarly relate these to TBL.

2.3.2 Cognitive versus Sociocultural Approaches

In 1997, Firth and Wagner published a paper calling for a reconceptualisation of Second Language Acquisition research, as a more balanced exploration and explanation of both the *social* and *cognitive* dimensions of second and foreign language acquisition and use. It was their contention that until then, research had been heavily biased in favour of the individual's mental and cognitive processes and that the social and contextual dimensions of L2 language learning had been marginalised or disregarded. Cognitive research focused on the internal, mental processes of language acquisition as described in 2.3.1, whereas Firth and Wagner believed that acquisition could not occur without language use in a social context and that these concepts were effectively inseparable. Emphasis on the cognitive nature of L2 learning had, in their opinion, led to research being carried out in experimental rather than naturalistic settings, in the investigation of 'underlying features' of L2 learning rather than more individual or local aspects, and a bias towards analyst relevant concerns over those of the participant (1997: 286-288). This they viewed as erroneous due to their belief that language was not only a cognitive but also 'a social phenomenon, acquired and used interactively, in a variety of contexts for myriad practical purposes' (1997: 296).

Ten years later, in an article assessing the impact of their 1997 publication, Firth and Wagner claimed that even though the cognitive approach to L2 learning was still 'in full flow,' many researchers were taking a socially orientated approach, emphasising the social, contextual, interactional and situational processes involved (2007: 805), with language use in the classroom being one context frequently investigated. One major impact of this has been that L2 learning can now be thought of differently. Whereas the cognitive view envisioned language learning as an activity taking place solely within the learner's head, distinct from other aspects of cognition, other theories of learning have become more relevant such as sociocultural theory (Lantolf 2000a), and a social-interactional approach (Lave & Wenger 1991), all of which view social interaction as a necessary part of learning.

2.3.3 Socially Orientated Theories of Language Learning

In this section I will turn my attention to researchers who see language learning in social terms and who believe that interaction in the target language is more important in language learning than simply being a source of input.

2.3.3.1 Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory, based principally on the work of Vygotsky (1987, cited by Ellis 2003:175), but also on that of Leontiev (1981, cited by Ellis 2003: 175) and Wertsch (1985, cited by Ellis 2003: 175) proposes that new developmental stages are first accomplished with the help of others in a social environment and can then become intrapsychological accomplishments. Some of Vygotsky's key ideas which have been taken up by socio-cultural researchers to explain second language learning, and which are further developed in this section are mediation and mediated learning, regulation, scaffolding and the zone of proximal development, microgenesis, private and inner speech and activity theory (Mitchell & Myles 2004: 193-199). As explained by Lantolf:

The central and distinguishing concept of sociocultural theory is that higher forms of human mental activity are *mediated*. Vygotsky argued that just as humans do not act directly on the physical world but rely, instead, on tools [...], we also use symbolic tools, or signs, to mediate and regulate our relationships with others and with ourselves. [...] Included among symbolic tools are numbers and arithmetic systems, music, art, and above all, language. (2000b: 80)

This shows how socio-cultural theory views language as a means of mediation in mental activity. In Vygotskian theory, language is seen as a way to both manage mental activity and to interact socially. Lantolf (2000b) further suggests that mediation can occur externally, for example when a learner is given help by an expert or physical artefact, such as a computer, or internally through the individual's use of their own resources, to achieve control. Ellis (2003: 176) claims that 'the essence of a sociocultural theory of mind is that external mediation serves as the means by which internal mediation is achieved'. Sociocultural theorists take the view that development is more taking part in a social activity than acquiring knowledge. Here 'the distinction between 'use' of the L2 and 'knowledge' of the

L2 becomes blurred because knowledge is use and use creates knowledge' (Ellis 2003: 176). Sociocultural theory therefore sees language learning as being based in interactions with some researchers believing that learning does not occur through interaction, but that interaction *is* learning (Swain & Lapkin 1998: 321).

In the language classroom this means that learners manifest new language while interacting with others, and this is eventually internalised so learners can use these new forms and functions autonomously, that is, the individual is now capable of self-regulation. Unskilled learners in the classroom require the guidance of teachers or more skilled others through supportive dialogue which helps them through successive steps of a problem that he or she cannot perform alone. This is termed scaffolding and Wood, Bruner & Ross (1976) identify some of the features of scaffolding as being the creation of interest in the task, simplifying the task, highlighting discrepancies between what has been said and the ideal solution, encouraging pursuit of the goal, and controlling learners' frustration. The teacher or more capable peer may therefore attend to both cognitive and affective states through scaffolding. What an individual can already master is the learner's actual level, and the skills mastered when scaffolded by a more knowledgeable other is the learner's potential level. The difference between these two is termed the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), (Vygotsky 1978, cited by Mitchell & Myles 2004: 195). Learners may internalise new structures if they are able to construct the necessary ZPD. The concept of ZPD would appear to be similar to the ideas expressed in Krashen's input hypothesis where he claims that input which is too complex ($i+2/3/4\dots$) will not be useful for acquisition, and that what learners can learn ($i+1$) is governed by what structure comes next in the natural order of development (Krashen 1985, cited by Mitchell & Myles 2004: 47). Dunn and Lantolf (1998), however, dismiss this notion, saying that whereas Krashen's $i+1$ refers to language, the ZPD applies to individuals. Although Vygotsky originally constructed the ZPD around interactions between novice and expert, this has been expanded by sociocultural theorists to include interactions between pairs and groups of learners.

To learn in the ZPD does not require that there be a designated teacher; whenever people collaborate in an activity, each can assist

the others, and each can learn from the contributions of the others.
(Wells, 1999, cited by Mitchell & Myles 2004: 214)

So not only teachers, but peers can also attend to cognitive and affective states through scaffolding. When newly learnt skills become autonomous, a new ZPD can be created to make learning of further skills possible. This learning process is called microgenesis (Mitchell & Myles 2004: 198) and is of prime importance to a socio-cultural account of second language learning.

As mentioned previously, although interpersonal interaction is of particular importance in sociocultural theory, self-mediation through inner or private speech is also important. Children engage in private speech, when for example a child talks to him or herself while solving a puzzle. Sociocultural theory sees this as a way the child has of regulating his or her own behaviour. This private talk eventually becomes inner speech which adults use to regulate internal thoughts without this being articulated externally (Mitchell and Myles 2004: 198). However in situations of cognitive challenge, inner speech can emerge as private speech which Ohta (2001: 16) defines as ‘audible speech not adapted to an addressee’. She further suggests that it can consist of repetition/imitation, mental rehearsal and responding to the teacher’s question when this is directed to another classmate, and sees private talk by adult learners as the way in which new forms are manipulated and practised.

In sociocultural theory therefore mediation, regulation, scaffolding and the ZPD, microgenesis and private speech all combine to explain ways in which the L2 can be learned through interaction in the classroom. Activity theory attempts to describe individual differences in language learning. Leontiev (1978, cited by Ellis 2003: 183) suggested that motives determine how individuals attend to a particular task, that individuals with different motives will perform the same task in different ways and that changing social conditions may result in different motives and perhaps a subsequent change in operations employed to accomplish the task. Similarly, Platt and Brooks (2002) argue that task engagement must take place if learners are to engage with classroom tasks, make maximum use of the target language and create the most favourable conditions for language learning. Ohta (2001: 250) defines engagement as:

A positive orientation toward peer interaction and language learning as indicated by a high level of involvement in L2 use, and evidence of sustained effort during peer learning tasks.

McCafferty, Roebuck and Wayland (2001) applied activity theory to explain why one group of learners who had requested vocabulary items in a task were better at remembering these than another group of learners performing the same task who had been given a list of previously unknown words. In the following sections I focus on neo-Vygotskian socially oriented theories of learning.

2.3.3.2 A Socio-interactionist Perspective

A social-interactional approach to learning proposes that learning is inseparable from other ongoing activities and is situated in social interaction and practice. This approach shifts the focus from individual cognition and grammar in L2 learning, to social practice in concrete settings (Brouwer & Wagner 2004) and has led to the development of concepts such as situated learning (Lave 1991: 67) and communities of practice (Lave & Wenger 1991: 98). Lave (1991) describes situated practice as ‘social practice in the lived-in world’ with knowledge being constructed in joint activity and learning being a process of participation in cultural and social practices. The concept of communities of practice emerges from the construct of situated learning.

A community of practice is a set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice. A community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge, not least because it provides the interpretive support necessary for making sense of its heritage. Thus, participation in the cultural practice in which any knowledge exists is an epistemological principle of learning. (Lave & Wenger 1991: 98)

Through participating in a community of practice ‘learning occurs through centripetal participation in the learning curriculum of the ambient community’ (Lave 1991: 100), the community here being the group of learners in the classroom.

Mondada and Pekarek Doehler suggest the importance of considering the social realm in learning not as the backdrop to activities but as an integral part of learning and urge that research be undertaken on the ‘organizational details of

naturally occurring actions and interactions rather than on investigating data that are elicited by researchers' (2004: 503). They discuss how learners in second language classrooms interpret and make decisions in relation to tasks in a moment-by-moment fashion, adapting to local 'interactional contingencies', transforming them through interaction and thereby shaping and defining them. This is in agreement with Seedhouse's belief mentioned in section 2.3.1.1 of this chapter that the pedagogical aims of a task are not always those accomplished by the learners. Mondada and Pekarek Doehler further propose that:

[...] social interaction provides not just an interactional frame within which developmental processes can take place; as a social practice, it involves the learner as a co-constructor of joint activities where linguistic and other competencies are put to work within a constant process of adjustment vis-à-vis other social agents and in the emerging context. (2004: 502)

The importance of context in language learning is equally important in the ideas which are detailed in the following section on language ecology and complexity theory.

2.3.3.3 Language Ecology and Complexity Theory

The idea that the social context can influence language learning has been further developed in the area of language ecology, which SLA research has recently become interested in. Van Lier (2000) takes an ecological approach to language learning and believes that learning is not a migration of meaning to the learners' brain but rather the relationship among learners and between learners and their environment (van Lier 2000: 246). He suggests that 'the notion of input can be replaced by the ecological notion of affordance, which refers to the relationship between properties of the environment and the active learner' (van Lier 2000: 257). Learner engagement determines what use the learner makes of these affordances for further learning. Leather and van Dam (2003: 13) consider that an ecological approach suggests that language behaviour involves more than 'can be captured in any single frame or script' and that learning contexts, which are socially constructed and dynamically negotiated on a moment-by-moment basis are 'discoursally and socioculturally complex'.

Building on these ideas Larsen-Freeman (1997, 2010), has proposed complexity theory to explain SLA, which she claims adopts a more holistic approach to learning. Here social interaction allows interactants the possibility to co-adapt, that is, to engage in ‘an iterative, reciprocal process, with each partner adjusting to the other over and over again. It is learning-in-interaction (Larsen-Freeman 2010: 47). Context is part of the complex system and different social context will result in different performances. Ellis (2007: 23) argues that from this standpoint language can be seen as:

[...] a complex dynamic system where cognitive, social and environmental factors continuously interact, where creative communicative behaviours emerge from socially co-regulated interactions, where there is little by way of linguistic universals as a starting point in the mind of *ab initio* language learners or discernable end state, where flux and individual variation abound, where cause-effect relationships are non-linear, multivariate and interactive, and where language is not a collection of rules and target forms to be acquired, but rather a by-product of communicative processes.

Obviously research in such a complex system *in vivo* is not easy and Dornyei (2009: 242) suggests that a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach be taken due to the extensive number of variables in the system.

2.3.3.4 Sociocognition and Variationism

A sociocognitive approach sees language learning as being both cognitive and social in nature. Atkinson (2002: 529) argues that language can be seen to be cognitive due to the fact that as we converse we use cognitive functions such as storing and retrieving linguistic information, producing and comprehending language, monitoring our production and planning our next contribution. He proposes that connectionism (2002: 529), a cognitive explanation of L1 acquisition which theorises that language production and comprehension are related to the selective and simultaneous stimulation of interconnected neural networks has potential to explain the cognitive mechanisms involved in L2 learning. However he also points out that cognition is not a feature of the individual but a public activity produced in social activity and that the development of language depends on ‘greater engagement with and adaptation to the (socially-mediated) world – or more

accurately on the progressive inter articulation of the social and the cognitive' (2002: 534).

Atkinson *et al.* (2007: 176) using an interactional sequence between Ako, a young Japanese learner of English, and her aunt Tomo, show how Tomo scaffolds Ako's understanding of the exercises she is attempting to complete, not only through corrective feedback but simultaneously through affective encouragement and support involving mirroring Ako's voice and gestures.

Another researcher whose work illustrates the sociocognitive perspective is the variationist Elaine Tarone (2008, and 2010) who argues that interaction in different social contexts involving interlocutors with different relationships can influence both the learner's interlanguage and overall interlanguage development. She maintains that cognitive constructs such as input, output, attention etc. should be considered sociocognitive in nature as they are strongly influenced by the relationship between interlocutors (Tarone 2010: 54). For example, she claims that the social setting affects the variety of the L2 input the learner is exposed to, whether this be vernacular, academic, or the language of business, and that the amount of attention to and noticing of language forms varies with the audience and formality of the social context. She further claims that learners make adjustments to their output when they converse with different interlocutors and that they are more likely to attend to feedback from some interlocutors than others (Tarone 2008). She illustrates this (Tarone & Liu 1995) with the example of Bob, a 6 year old Chinese boy learning English in Australia, showing how the quality of his interactions in three different contexts – with his teachers, his classmates and a familiar adult figure, varied greatly in qualitative terms. However, variationists take care to point out that it is not the social settings per se which influence the interactions, but individual's perceptions of characteristics of the context (Lafford 2006: 18).

The ideas expressed by researchers such as Vygotsky, Tarone, Lave, van Lier, Larsen-Freeman and Pekarek Doehler closely align with what I believe about interaction and the social context in the classroom. However, it is important that the framework chosen is flexible enough to describe what this researcher feels are the

important processes which the data reveals. Accordingly the research here is situated within a sociocognitive framework based on the work of Vygotsky and his followers, which could be termed a neo-Vygotskian framework.

2.3.3.5 Interaction, Socially Orientated Theories and Task Based Learning

As stated by Ellis (2003: 178):

[...] tasks can cater for learning by providing opportunities for learners (1) to use new language structures and items through collaboration with others; (2) to subsequently engage in more independent use of the structures they have internalized in relatively undemanding tasks; and (3) to finally use the structures in cognitively more complex tasks. In theory, learning takes place when learners actually use a new skill in the accomplishment of some goal. It requires not just understanding input containing unknown language forms but actually producing them. Central to this process are the collaborative acts learners participate in. Tasks, then, can be seen as tools for constructing collaborative acts.

In sociocultural theory, although tasks may provide opportunities for learners to extend their L2 knowledge, these opportunities are not created by the tasks themselves, but by the way in which the learners perform them. This therefore makes it difficult to attribute particular learning opportunities to certain tasks. Even so, research has been conducted on how scaffolding, collaborative dialogue and metatalk, that is, talk about language or the task itself, and private speech may promote development.

Research carried out on group interactions has shown that learners support each other during oral production by providing assistance and expressing interest and encouragement (Foster & Ohta 2005: 402). In addition, Donato (1994: 44), has shown how, when engaged in a small group activity with a focus on form, learners were able to produce a complex form which no single member of the group could

have produced individually.⁷Both these studies seem to show how collaborative interaction and scaffolding can provide opportunities for learning. In addition, DiCamilla and Anton (1997) showed how repetition was used by learners as a strategy to pause as they struggled to find the next word. Kowal and Swain (1994) examined how learners worked to collectively decide which forms to use in a dictogloss task and Swain and Lapkin (1998) were able to show that learner interaction during a jigsaw task to solve a linguistic problem led to measurable learning in post-tests. An interesting longitudinal study has been carried out by Ohta (2001) on peer scaffolding during oral pair work. She notes various methods used by learners to assist others during classroom interactions. These include waiting for a partner to complete the L2 utterance, even when struggling, prompting by repeating the syllable or word just uttered in order to help the interlocutor continue, co-constructing by providing a word or phrase that helps the interlocutor complete the utterance, explaining in L1, initiating or providing repair and asking the teacher for help. She further claims that in interaction, the listener has available working memory to provide help, notice errors and anticipate what might come next (2001: 78) and therefore even a less knowledgeable peer could provide appropriate support to a peer interlocutor. Klinger and Vaughn (2000) report on how the effects of collaboration and scaffolding were maximised by training second language learners in how and when to help their peers during reading task work.

From a cognitive point of view, when learners talk about language (metatalk) they gain explicit knowledge that could be used to notice-the-gap between their incorrect utterances and target-like forms in the input (Schmidt 1994).

⁷ A1	Speaker 1	...and then I'll say...tu as souvenu notre anniversaire de mariage...or should I say mon anniversaire?
A2	Speaker 2	Tu as...
A3	Speaker 3	Tu as...
A4	Speaker 1	Tu as souvenu... 'you remembered'
A5	Speaker 3	Yea, but isn't that reflexive' Tu t'as
A6	Speaker 1	ah, tu t'as souvenu
A7	Speaker 2	Oh, it's tu es
A8	Speaker 1	Tu es
A9	Speaker 3	Tues, tu es, tu...
A10	Speaker 1	T'es, tu t'es
A11	Speaker 3	Tu t'es
A12	Speaker 1	Tu t'es souvenu

From a sociocultural point of view, metatalk is thought to regulate thinking and so enable learners to develop their interlanguage (Ellis 2003: 196). In a study on a reformulation writing task, Swain and Lapkin (2002) showed that after writing a composition, comparing their version with a reformulated version and finally rewriting their initial composition, 78% of learners' changes were correct, which Swain and Lapkin attributed to the process of peer-to-peer interaction which they suggest allowed learners to reflect on differences and find correct solutions.

Lastly Ohta (2001) suggests that private speech allows learners to test hypotheses about sentence construction by comparing their private speech forms with utterances of others and that it also provides phonological control through repetition. Donato (1994) suggests that the scaffolded help learners in his study gave each other caused these learners to use private speech to organise, rehearse and gain control over new verbal behaviour. However, as it can be problematic to decide what constitutes private speech when examining evidence, the role of private speech in L2 development is as yet unclear.

Socio-cultural theory therefore suggests that language, the learning environment, the individual, and active participation and interaction are at the heart of learning. So, from both a cognitive point and sociocultural point of view, the quantity and quality of utterances is important for learning, and it is also clear that whatever standpoint we take on how L2 is learnt in the classroom, interaction is crucial. Research on task based learning has been undertaken drawing on both cognitive and socially oriented theories (Ellis 2003) although much debate exists amongst those who support one or other of these standpoints. Sociocultural theory has been criticised because any learning it has shown has been local, individual and short term (Mitchell and Myles 2004: 222), due to the fact that the empirical research carried out to date has concentrated on the recording and analysis of classroom activity. However, it is also true that social factors have recently been highlighted as being particularly important in interaction research, and it is to one social factor, that of affect, that I now turn my attention.

2.4 Affect in Language Learning

Although most would agree that oral interaction in the language classroom is necessary for language learning to take place, it is also true that it can be a threatening environment for some learners. If we consider the potential face threatening nature of the language classroom, where individuals who may be highly eloquent in their first language can struggle to express themselves in the target language, it is unsurprising that classroom language learning can provoke negative emotions in some learners. However, our emotional state is important for our capacity to learn. As stated by Damasio (1994: 159-160),

Feelings [...] because of their inextricable ties to the body [...] come first in development and retain a primacy that subtly pervades our mental life. Because the brain is the body's captive audience, feelings are winners among equals. And since what comes first constitutes a frame of reference for what comes after, feelings have a say on how the rest of the brain and cognition go about their business.

Research into emotions and thinking has shown that when groups of people are shown clips of films to induce happiness, sadness, or neutral emotions, those shown the humorous clip are more likely to be able to solve a problem than those shown the sad or emotionally neutral clip, or no clip at all (Johnson-Laird & Oatley 2000: 464). And when we consider the effect of emotions on L1, it has been shown that negative emotions such as anxiety, due to the sustained cognitive workload it involves, can adversely affect 'speech planning and execution' whereas more positive emotions such as contentment may 'improve speech fluency through the minimizing of extraneous, distracting thoughts' (Johnstone & Scherer 2000: 222). Krashen (1982, cited by Richards & Rodgers 2001: 183), recognised the importance of the learner's emotional state in L2 language learning in his 'Affective Filter Hypothesis'. Here, he proposed that a high affective filter (e.g. fear or embarrassment) would hinder or block the necessary input for acquisition, whereas learners with a low affective filter would interact more confidently and would seek out and be more receptive to this input, leading to more exposure to input. Research in the study of affect in L2 learning acknowledges that attention to affect can 'improve language teaching and learning' and that negative emotions such as

anxiety, fear, stress, anger or depression may compromise our learning potential, whereas positive emotions such as self-esteem and empathy can ease the language learning process (Arnold & Brown 1999: 1). The main interest of research into emotions in language learning has focused on anxiety, and studies of the classroom context have identified interactions in the classroom as a potential source of language anxiety (Young 1991), which has been found to be inversely related to second language achievement (Horowitz 2010). It has been argued that a certain non-debilitating level of anxiety may encourage certain students, specifically negatively oriented students 'to perform better than they would in a low anxiety situation' (Matthews 1996: 39). However, for the majority of learners, the classroom environment should be a place which encourages interaction and minimises negative emotions such as anxiety, which could interfere with such interaction. Interactions in the classroom are therefore of extreme importance. Both cognitive and socially orientated approaches to L2 language learning see them as being necessary for learning, and emotions are thought not only to be conveyed through our verbal interactions, but also 'socially constructed through people's intersubjective encounters[...], as they engage in a certain activity to pursue a certain goal' (Imai 2010: 282-283). But what happens when students are unwilling to interact?

2.4.1 Cohesive versus Non Cohesive Groups

Hadfield (1992: 7) reports that in response to a questionnaire on problems language teachers faced in the teaching/learning process, the most common complaint concerned classes of students who failed to gel, with teachers reporting that such groups created a negative classroom atmosphere, were reluctant to work together to perform tasks and were over dependent on the teacher for their learning (1992: 11). Similarly, Senior (1997) describes how teachers she questioned felt a necessity to foster and maintain a positive whole group feeling amongst learners, and noted the importance of the bonded group as being one that is considered by its teacher to function in 'a cohesive manner' as this was 'a necessary precondition for the development of linguistic proficiency through oral practice' (1997: 4).

Dornyei and Malderez (1997) consider group dynamics, defined by Ehrman and Dornyei (1998: 3) as ‘processes within or between groups greater than dyads’, as being an integral component of the affective dimension of L2 learning and therefore an important consideration for teachers who wish to create rewarding learning environments. In the language classroom, group cohesion, a group process which refers to ‘the strength of the relationship linking the members to one another and to the group itself’ (Forsyth 1991:10), has been identified as a motivational subsystem, which in conjunction with self-confidence and integrative motivation makes up the Clement, Dornyei and Noels motivational model (1994).

Classes do not start life as cohesive groups. They develop over time. Ehrman and Dornyei (1998: 109) propose a developmental model of class group development which consists of four main stages, these being formation, transition, performing and dissolution. During the group formation stage, learners are undergoing a complex getting process of social integration. Learners tend to be anxious during this stage as they are unsure of others’ acceptance and respect. In addition they could be anxious about the language learning itself. They may compare themselves negatively with other group members, find the teacher’s style difficult to adjust to, or feel inadequate and foolish when interacting in the target language in front of their peers. The interaction at this stage is generally polite and students are on their best behaviour as they strive for approval and acceptance from other group members. Group formation here takes place through a process of attraction to and identification with others in the group, friendship and acceptance (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 113-114), and a lack of real communication can be a major obstacle to be overcome if the group is to develop cohesively. In the second stage of transition, two significant processes can be seen. These are conflicts amongst group members as they strive to overcome interpersonal differences and attempts to regulate group life so the group can meet task requirements (1998: 126).

According to Ehrman and Dornyei, if a group manages to move successfully through the transition stage it continues to the performing stage of group development where it can ‘mobilize the energy stored in its cohesiveness for productivity and goal achievement’ (1998: 136). One factor which promotes this

cohesiveness is the amount of time group members spend together and the longer they stay together, the more likely it is that they bond, as they become friends and accept one another. Another is how much they learn about other group members, which promotes intermember acceptance. Shaw (1981, cited by Ehrman & Dornyei 1998:142) mentions proximity, contact and interaction as being important in the development of cohesive groups. In the language classroom, all three are interrelated. Physical proximity promotes contact and facilitates learner interactions in small groups. However, it is also true that some groups never mature, and become stagnant and unproductive. Ehrman and Dornyei (1998: 77), describe fragmented groups as being the opposite of cohesive groups. Here there is little mutual loyalty and individuals experience themselves as a collection of individuals rather than a group.

In the area of group research, group cohesion has been found to be positively correlated to group performance, with cohesive groups tending to work more productively (Evans & Dion 1991), and more productive groups being more cohesive (Swezey, Meltzer & Salas 1994). Peer to peer interaction is also thought to be enhanced by a cohesive group climate and Levine and Moreland's review of the literature regarding small group research (1990) confirms that members of a cohesive group are more likely to take an active part in conversation and engage in self-disclosure (basic behaviours which are advantageous in L2 communicative L2 language tasks), than others. Slavin (1996:46) believes that cohesiveness promotes learning as 'students will help one another learn because they care about one another and want one another to succeed'. Interestingly, again from the area of group research, it has been suggested that the quality of group interactions influences participants' affective responses rather than affect influencing the quality of interactions (Linnenbrink-Garcia, Rogat & Koskey 2011). In a survey on why adult students dropped out of foreign language courses, Gibson and Shutt (2002: 62) found poor management of group dynamics to be a factor mentioned by students, with some saying they felt apprehensive when paired with more experienced learners. However, we should also bear in mind that class groups which are cohesive, but which lack any firm goal commitment, may focus more on their relationships rather than on the task of language learning and therefore become

unproductive (Dornyei & Murphey 2003: 71). Whereas it is true that I have witnessed this with teenage learners, I would consider it to be much less likely to occur with adults who are paying for private lessons to improve their work opportunities or to prepare for a period of study, as is the case in this study. In general, it would appear that positive group processes such as group cohesiveness can have a beneficial effect on the morale and motivation of learners and engender positive attitudes to the language and learning, but although research on group cohesiveness in areas such as business and sport have shown promising results, empirical research in the area of group cohesiveness in language learning classes 'remains scarce' (Chang 2007: 324).

In recent years a number of publications have appeared which give advice on practical activities to promote positive class group dynamics, (Dornyei & Murphey 2003, Hadfield 1992) along with some more theoretical treatments (Dornyei & Malderez 1997, Ehrman & Dornyei 1998), although there have been few empirical studies on group dynamics or interpersonal processes and how these influence learners' behaviours. One study undertaken by Chang (2007), investigated the influence of group processes on learners' autonomous beliefs and behaviours. Here quantitative results showed a mild correlation between whole group cohesiveness and learners autonomous behaviours, with members of more cohesive groups being more likely to take more responsibility for their learning (2007: 332). Another study investigated the effect on group cohesion of intensive and standard format courses (Hinger 2006). This revealed that learners on the intensive course produced significantly higher group-building utterances, which was taken as an indicator of greater group cohesion (2006: 115).

As a language teacher I see classes where the individual members remain cold and uncommunicative towards each other over the course of the academic year and which never develop into cohesive groups. On the other hand, there are also groups which gradually gel and become a bonded unit of individuals who seem to be more fully engaged in classroom activities. Weldon, Jehn and Pradhan (1991) suggest that group cohesion can be evaluated by studying the discourse of group members because verbal interaction is what stimulates enthusiasm, inspires

confidence and produces a sense of efficacy amongst group members. Kalaja and Leppanen (1998:172) further suggest that group cohesion is ‘something that learners themselves construct in speech’. So, to the characteristics previously assigned to interactions in the L2 classroom above – that they are the object of study and the means through which learning takes place, that they are necessary for learning, and that they may be the source of emotional experiences, another can be added – that they are the vehicle of group building. For this reason I propose to study peer to peer interactions during small groupwork. Through this I hope to shed light on interactions between and amongst students in cohesive and non-cohesive L2 classrooms, and opportunities for learning.

2.4.2 The Social Dimension of Tasks

Skehan (1998:101) believes that tasks have both didactic and phatic goals, and Ellis and Fisher (1994:22) point out that two basic dimensions within any group are the task dimension which ‘refers to the relationship between group members and the work they are to perform’ and the social dimension which ‘refers to the relationships of group members with one another – how they feel toward one another and about their membership in the group’. So during oral tasks learners in the L2 classroom will be using language to address both these, with the task dimension being principally related to productivity and the social dimension principally related to group cohesiveness (Oyster 2000:4). Actions that help group members achieve their academic goals by successfully completing the task or help to improve the quality of group interaction are characteristically executed by leaders who may be teachers or group members (Schmuck & Schmuck 1997:65). Teachers have legitimate power in the classroom, in that schools give them this power and students recognise teachers’ right to such power, but students themselves also have power to encourage certain behaviour in their peers through rewards such as smiles or conversely through exclusion (Schmuck & Schmuck 1997: 67). Could it be that learners in cohesive groups participate more in behaviour which encourages a positive social dimension by, for example, encouraging others, calming down those who are frustrated, encouraging silent members to speak, or joking to communicate good feelings, than those in non-cohesive groups?

In their review of group interactions Levine and Moreland (1990), state that it is more probable that members of cohesive groups will engage more actively in conversations than members of less cohesive groups and Brown (2000: 47) similarly states that members of more cohesive groups interact more frequently. In addition, Greene (1989, cited by Clement, Dornyei & Noels 1994: 424) states that whole group cohesion and the quality of group interactions are interrelated. Although these studies were not conducted in the context of the L2 classroom, it seems that learners in classes I perceive as being cohesive are more fully engaged in oral tasks and produce more language, whereas those in less-cohesive classes are more likely to say less in class. But is this merely my perception or do learners actually feel more confident and therefore speak more, given the opportunity, in cohesive language learning groups?

An interesting concept which has emerged in recent years to account for individuals' first and second language communication is that of willingness to communicate (WTC), defined in relation to L2 communication by MacIntyre *et al* (1998:547) as 'a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2'. They consider engendering WTC in language learners to be the ultimate objective of language learning and classes which fail to produce students willing to use the language, failed classes. MacIntyre and colleagues presented a heuristic model showing the potential influences on WTC in the L2 as a pyramid, with L2 use at the pinnacle of the pyramid in Layer 1. A total of six layers comprised the pyramid, the top three representing situation-specific influences, which change depending on the situation and the bottom three, more stable influences. Some of these stable influences were intergroup motivation, intergroup attitudes, the social situation, and intergroup climate. In this way, the classroom and learning group are, according to MacIntyre and colleagues, directly related to students' willingness to communicate in class and therefore learn. The quantity of learners' interactions is correlated with their learning as the more they interact, the more practice they receive. Situational WCT has been shown to be affected by factors such as interlocutor familiarity and participation, task type, topic, group size and the confidence of the learners (Cao 2014: 790) and WCT has

been shown to change moment to moment depending on psychological conditions and variables in the environment (Kang 2005).

Although it is my perception that learners in more cohesive classes are more likely to question, clarify or correct themselves and others as they engage more deeply with oral tasks, this can only be shown to happen through empirical research, which is the focus of the research presented here.

2.5 Summary

This chapter detailed the pedagogical approach in the classrooms where the research takes place. It explained tasks and task types before moving on to consider the role of interaction in cognitive and socially orientated theories of language learning. It showed that although cognitive theories of learning are still predominant in research today, consideration of the social context is gaining credence and various approaches now propose that considerations of learning are inseparable from considerations of the social setting in which the learning takes place. It then explored one of these variables of the social context, that of affect, and showed that research into small groups has shown that cohesive groups, that is, groups characterised by strong relationships between the individual members, are more productive, more likely to take an active part in conversation and may learn more effectively.

In an attempt to ascertain how cohesion is talked into being in L2 classrooms, how the learning opportunities described by sociocognitive theories arise in task based learning classroom, and more specifically how they can be described in cohesive and less cohesive whole class groups of learners over the course of an academic year, I decided to follow the suggestion of Mackey (2012: 38) who states that one good way to go about classroom research is to ‘involve the instructor as much as possible’, keep the researcher’s involvement to a minimum and conduct research in regular classroom hours using tasks that are compatible with regular classroom activities. In the next chapter I will describe the methodology used to carry this out.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Teachers are the focal points of classrooms and either consciously or subconsciously guide and orchestrate group processes. But why is it that, faced with two classes of the same level, similar numbers of students, the same materials and curriculum, can teachers perceive that one class has developed into a cohesive group, while the other is fragmented? The study of classroom interactions, their content and the context in which they occur and their relationships to learning behaviours, could offer a greater insight into their role in the second language learning classroom, and could attempt to help answer the question raised in the previous chapter. The objective of this study is to examine these interactions and attempt to determine if this could lead to the description of common features of the discourse of self-reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups, and investigate whether learners in such groups are more or less likely to engage in behaviours which could promote both learning and positive affect within the group.

Turner and Meyer (2000) in a review of methodological differences in the study of classrooms list a range of methods and note their advantages and disadvantages. Observation, self-reports using surveys and questionnaires, interviews and classroom discourse analysis are all mentioned, but they conclude that research is often limited by a lack of description and explanation of classroom interactions and an overdependence on quantitative methods. They suggest using both qualitative and quantitative methods simultaneously, thereby taking advantage of the strengths of different approaches while compensating for their weaknesses. This study therefore proposes to use quantitative and qualitative methods to study classroom interactions.

This chapter sets out the methodology used in this study and is divided into six main sections. Section 3.1 describes the research questions this study is attempting to answer. Section 3.2 characterises the context in which the study takes place and the students involved. Section 3.3 details the tasks employed, section 3.4 describes the questionnaires and their analysis, section 3.5 sets out how student and

teacher interviews were carried out and analysed, and section 3.6 deals with methodology relating to the qualitative and quantitative analysis of recorded tasks.

3.1 Research Questions

I have already established that research into language learning and group dynamics suggests that oral interactions in the L2 classroom are necessary for learning, that interactions serve to both convey and construct emotions, and that they are the vehicle of group building, where group refers to the group-as-a whole. Research also claims that more cohesive groups are more productive and that the quality of interactions influences group members' affective responses. From this we could hypothesise that more cohesive groups produce more language and that more language production leads to greater possibility of improved language learning. We could also speculate that group interactions which encourage a more social dimension will lead to more positive affect amongst group members, which in turn will lead to more group cohesion and greater possibilities of improved language learning. Seedhouse (2005: 176-178) claims that 'the utterance [...] documents the learner's cognitive, emotional and attitudinal states' and that:

Learners and teachers construct their identities in and through their talk. These identities [...] are deployed as a resource for making particular types of learning behaviour relevant at a particular moment in a particular interaction.

So how do utterances in interactions document the learner's emotional and cognitive status in cohesive and less cohesive groups? If, as reported by Kalaja & Leppanen (1998: 172), group cohesion is something that learners themselves construct in speech, how do learners in self-reporting cohesive or less-cohesive groups talk cohesion into being, and how could this be related to language learning? This leads to the following research questions.

Research Question 1

How do learners' utterances lead to group cohesion? Such utterances could also be termed scaffolding which attends to affective states within the group.

Possible examples of interaction which could scaffold affective states and encourage a positive social dimension (Schmuck & Schmuck 1997: 95) include:

- The use of humour
- Encouraging silent members to speak
- Calming down those who are frustrated
- Listening to each other's opinions
- Reconciling disagreements
- Compromising one's own position or expressing concern for the feeling of others.

However it is also true that interactions could have the opposite function and could discourage a positive social dimension. Such interactions could include:

- Ignoring the contribution of others
- Showing frustration or irritation with another group member
- Making fun of others

This leads to Research question 1:

- How do learners' utterances lead to or discourage group cohesion in self-reporting/teacher reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups?

The interactions listed above are possible examples and it is difficult to specify what exactly such interactions will entail before analysis of the discourse.

Research Question 2

From a sociocognitive perspective of language learning, how does peer interaction in oral tasks provide learning opportunities which could promote learning over the academic year in self-reporting/teacher-reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups? Such interactions could be termed scaffolding for learning. Possible examples of interaction which could serve to scaffold learning include:

- Prompting
- Co-construction
- Explaining in L1
- Providing repair
- Asking questions, including Long's comprehension and confirmation checks and clarification requests.

This leads to research question 2.

- How do peer to peer interactions facilitate behaviour which could provide learning opportunities from a sociocognitive viewpoint in self-reporting/teacher reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups?

It should again be noted that the above list is merely indicative of possible behaviours which could provide learning opportunities. Again analysis of the data will be necessary to define exactly what constitutes such behaviour.

Research Question 3

How engaged are learners in the language learning process? Is there a high level of involvement and participation in L2? This leads to research question 3.

- How does the quantity and quality of peer to peer interaction compare between self-reporting/teacher reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups, with quality of interaction referring to complexity of language produced?

As noted above, very little empirical research exists on the relationship between classroom interaction, learning opportunities, and group cohesion. However, as the area of group cohesion and creating an atmosphere conducive to learning in the classroom is recognised by teachers and researchers alike as being a key factor in successful learning, this study could help explain what characterises interactions in good L2 classrooms thereby creating potentially successful learning environments. If these learners were then proven to engage in behaviour which could promote their learning, learners could be trained in how to work effectively

in groups, and helped to develop affective learning strategies prior to group work. Another possible outcome of such research could be using the findings in teacher training to help teachers more effectively manage affect in their classrooms.

3.2 Classroom Context and Learners

The learners involved in this project were adult learners who attended English classes at the British Council, Lisbon, Portugal. The three hour weekly classes, which could consist of a single three hour class or two lessons, each of one and a half hours, were conducted in groups of up to eighteen learners, all of whom were eighteen years of age or over. Many in the younger age group (18-26) were graduate or post graduate students, with the majority of older students being working professionals. Some needed English for their studies, some for work, and others for personal fulfilment. Six whole class groups were involved, and details of their composition, including the background contextual factors which Seedhouse (2004:84) believes is necessary to establish the generalizability of the research and ‘applicability to the reader’s own professional context’, can be seen in Table 3.1. The research was carried out in these classrooms between October 2012 and June 2013. All names have been changed.

Table 3.1 Learners and Classroom Context

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6
L1 of Learners	Portuguese	Portuguese (1 native Spanish speaker term 3)	Portuguese	Portuguese (1 native Turkish speaker in term 1, 1 native Arabic speaker terms 2 and 3)	Portuguese (1 native Turkish, 1 native Italian speaker & 1 native Arabic speaker in terms 2 & 3)	Portuguese (1 native Ukrainian speaker in term 3)
N° of students						
Term 1	17	13	17	17	17	17
Term 2	15	13	17	15	15	12
Term 3	11	12	17	15	15	13
Ages of learners	19-47	19-65	20-58	19-56	18-47	20-69
Timetable	14.00-17.00 Monday	14.30-16.00 Tues/Thurs	18.30-21.30 Wednesday	10.00-13.00 Thursday	12.45-15.45 Saturday	16.45-19.45 Saturday
No of lessons involved in study/fragments of lessons	8 lessons/2 groups recorded during 1 task per lesson	8 lessons/2 groups recorded during 1 task per lesson	8 lessons/2 groups recorded during 1 task per lesson	8 lessons/2 groups recorded during 1 task per lesson	8 lessons/2 groups recorded during 1 task per lesson	8 lessons/2 groups recorded during 1 task per lesson
Teacher	Ronnie	Colin	Anne	Kate	Mary	Mary

Tables and chairs in classrooms were arranged into groups of four or six to facilitate small group work. Learners were pretested and allocated to classes according to Common European Framework of Reference levels (Council for Cultural Co-operation Education Committee 2001). The participants in this study were all at level B1. As described in section 2.2.1, the language institute where these students studied adopted what I have previously described as a ‘textbook-supported task based learning’ approach. The textbook used in class was *New Cutting Edge Intermediate* (Cunningham & Moor 2005) and the syllabus for each term was based on two modules from the book, heavily supplemented with tasks produced in-house, and authentic reading and listening materials related to the theme of each unit.

3.3 Tasks

The tasks used in class for recording purposes were produced by the researcher to complement classroom work. Prior to data collection, consent from administrators and teachers was obtained. Teachers were then sent the tasks in advance and consulted as to whether they considered the tasks appropriate for their groups. The research work was introduced to learners by the teacher, as part of their everyday classwork. All were asked for permission to record and all consented.

The tasks used can be seen in Appendix 1.1. - 1.8. Term 1, task 1 was an error correction task based on work students had covered that term. Small groups of students were asked to work together to discuss ten sentences, all of which had an error, and correct the sentences. This task is an example of a closed, convergent (as learners were asked to reach a consensus of opinion), focused task – the type of focused task Ellis refers to as a consciousness-raising task where the focus of the task is the language itself (2003: 162). Term 1 task 2 and term 3 task 3 were both dictogloss tasks. Dictogloss, also described as grammar dictation (Wajnryb 1990) is a reconstruction activity believed to promote noticing. In this study the teacher read a short text twice, at normal speed. During the first reading, students listened to the text, during the second reading they were allowed to make notes of key words

and phrases. They then worked in small groups, comparing notes to reconstruct the text. Wajnryb (1990: 12) suggests that during reconstruction, an information gap exists between the original text and what learners can remember, thereby providing a real reason for communication. Learners here were instructed that it was unnecessary that their texts recreated the original text exactly but that it was important that they included the key information and that their final texts were as grammatically accurate as possible. Wajnryb (1990: 17) suggests that the ‘exchange, negotiation, discussion, repair and compromise may actually be more important in the learning process than the actual production of the reconstructed text’. This exchange was the focus of the recording during this task. A dictogloss is an example of a closed task, as the group has to produce one final text on which they all agree, with oral input, where information is shared with all learners. Interaction is optional, as learners could feasibly work to produce a reconstructed text individually, and convergent. Learners work to explain, give reasons and exchange information and opinions about how to reconstruct the text, and the final outcome is a written piece of text. These are also focused tasks as learners are involved in making decisions about language and both texts were written with a specific focus on the language learners had been studying in class.

Tasks 2 and 3 in term 2 were both discussion tasks. The input provided was written and learners were asked to share their opinions and exchange information on the topics raised. These tasks were open, divergent and unfocused. Task 2 in term 3 was also a discussion task but this task was focused in that learners were specifically prompted on the task sheet to say what the people ‘should have done’. Similarly task 1 in term 3 was a focused discussion task as learners were asked to both discuss questions and correct grammatically incorrect sentences. Lastly Task 1 in term 2 was also a discussion task but here the input was both written and pictorial. Information was shared and the output was a written text. Learners discussed best how to construct sentences and for this reason the task was convergent and focused. A summary of these task features can be seen in Table 3.2, which uses the general task framework of Ellis (2003: 217) plus an indication of whether the task is focused or unfocused in nature. Table 3.3 shows the intended pedagogical focus of the task.

Table 3.2 Task Features

	Focused vs. unfocused	Input	Conditions	Processes	Outcomes
Term 1 task 1	Focused	Written Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Convergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Written Closed
Term 1 task 2	Focused	Oral Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Convergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Written Closed
Term2 task 1	Focused	Pictorial & written Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Convergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Written Closed
Term 2 task 2	Unfocused	Written Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Divergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Oral Open
Term 2 task 3	Unfocused	Written Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Divergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Oral Open
Term 3 task 1	Focused	Written Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Convergent/divergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Written & oral Closed & open
Term 3 task 2	Focused	Written Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Divergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Oral Open
Term 3 task 3	Focused	Oral Loose structure	Shared information Optional group interaction Convergent	Exchanging information and opinions. Explaining & reasoning. Dialogic discourse	Written Closed

Table 3.3 Intended Pedagogical focus of Tasks

Task	Task Activity	Pedagogical focus
Term 1 task 1	Error Correction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To revise past simple and past continuous form and use To revise <i>used to be</i> form and use To revise use of verbs related to memory (<i>remember/remind, learn</i>) To revise expressions + dependent prepositions e.g. <i>interested in</i> To provide the opportunity for students to exchange knowledge/discuss/peer-teach the above
Term 1 task 2	Dictogloss	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To revise passive forms and <i>ed/ing</i> adjectives To revise vocabulary of TV programmes To attend to these linguistic features in the input To allow students the opportunity to discuss language, focus on form and highlight linguistic problems through co-production of text
Term 2 task 1	Focus on form writing task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To provide a model of a 'lifeline' in preparation to students writing their own To give students further practice at using past simple and present perfect tenses appropriately To revise vocabulary to describe life events To allow students the opportunity to discuss language, focus on form and highlight linguistic problems through co-production of text
Term 2 task 2	Discussion task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To provide an introductory speaking task for the lesson To allow students to personalise the topic of socialising
Term 2 task 3	Discussion task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To introduce the topic of social behaviour To provide speaking practice on national stereotypes To give students the opportunity to personalise the topic of national stereotypes
Term 3 task 1	Discussion/error correction task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To focus on the form of second conditional to talk about hypothetical situations To provide personalised speaking practice using second conditional To give students the opportunity to exchange knowledge/peer teach
Term 3 task 2	Focus on form/discussion task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To provide a speaking 'warmer' to start the lesson To provide speaking practice on giving advice To provide practice in using second conditional to talk about hypothetical situations
Term 3 task 3	Dictogloss	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To revise third conditional form To allow students the opportunity to discuss language, focus on form and highlight linguistic problems through co-production of text

3.4 The Questionnaire

A group-administered questionnaire was used with learners and teachers to measure whole group cohesiveness and assess classroom behaviour. Questionnaires are advantageous in that they provide a way to understand different individual's experiences in the same classroom. In addition, they are relatively efficient, allow information gathering from large numbers, are generalizable and there are well established procedures for measuring reliability and validity (Turner & Meyer 2000:76). Group administered questionnaires also have the advantage of obtaining a high response rate, they allow personal contact and introduce a minimum of interviewer bias (Oppenheim 1992: 103).

3.4.1 Questionnaire Structure and Procedure

A pilot questionnaire, based on that of Chang (2007) was distributed in three classes at B1 level in May 2012. As B1 students can range from lower intermediate to intermediate level, it was written in English with an accompanying translation in Portuguese, which was revised by a native Portuguese speaking university lecturer. This pilot questionnaire can be seen in Appendix 2.1. The questionnaire was accompanied by a letter of introduction (Appendix 2.2), which was also translated, and which introduced the research, stated who had given permission, and assured confidentiality and anonymity. The pilot questionnaire was accompanied by a pilot questionnaire feedback form (Appendix 2.3), which was used to determine if any questions had been confusing or inappropriate, or if respondents thought any relevant questions had been omitted. Consequently the following changes were made to the pilot questionnaire. Question 1 in Part 1, *Compared to my previous language learning classes, I feel this class is better*, was removed, as several respondents found reference to a previous class confusing. Question 4, *There are some people in this class who do not like each other* was replaced by *There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with* as it was thought this would give a greater variety of responses, and a further two questions were added. These were question 3, *I know the names of all my classmates*, and question 11, *I feel anxious speaking English in this class*. In Part 2, Question 6, *Fully participate in the class*

(e.g. *answering the teacher's questions*), was substituted for, *Always try to answer the teacher's questions*, to reduce ambiguity. Lastly, questions 1, 3, 4 and 5 in Part 2 of the questionnaire were substituted by questions relating to behaviour inside class which reflect beliefs about language learning held by researchers into cognitive and sociocultural learning theories. The final version of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 2.4.

In this final version of Part 1 of the questionnaire, eleven attitude statements were ordered randomly, to reduce acquiescence bias, a tendency to agree with statements (Oppenheim 1992: 181). A 5 point Likert scale was used to analyse attitude statements, with a score of 5 corresponding to a favourable attitude (Oppenheim 1992: 198). As the Likert attitude scale is a linear interval scale, this allows the use of quantitative scoring (Oppenheim 1992: 188). This part of the questionnaire measured group cohesiveness and used some questions from Chang's cohesiveness questionnaire (2007) such as '*If I were in another class, I would want that class to have students very similar to the classmates I have now*' and others such as '*There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with*' or '*I know the names of all my classmates*' which were formulated by the researcher based on observations made throughout the years.

In Part 2, learners were presented with twelve statements referring to classroom behaviours and asked for their opinion as to what extent the group and they themselves behaved in these ways. The questions here were formulated by this researcher and are based on behaviours believed to promote learning, for example, clarification, confirmation and comprehension checks and peer correction, and interactions thought to scaffold affective states such as listening to what others say and asking colleagues for their opinions. Here a 4 point Likert scale was used, with a score of 4 corresponding to consistent use of behaviours believed to be conducive to learning. Students were asked to indicate on a 4 point scale to what extent they believed the group and they themselves behaved in this manner. Information on scoring of the questionnaires can be found in Appendices 2.6 and 2.7. A questionnaire was also distributed to the teachers of these classes asking for their opinions on group cohesion and classroom behaviours of learners and this

questionnaire can be seen in Appendix 2.5. This questionnaire was also piloted but no changes were necessary. The objective for Part 1 of the questionnaire was to determine how cohesive each group judged itself to be, with higher scores indicating greater group cohesion. Mean and standard deviation was calculated for each group and summated Likert scale analysis was used to calculate results for the questionnaires distributed. Here the mean score for each item was calculated per group and these mean values were added together to give a score per class for Part 1 of the student questionnaire and the Teacher questionnaire. This score itself had no value and served merely as an indicator of group cohesion from the point of view of the teacher and the students, with a higher score reflecting a more cohesive group attitude. In part 1, the Likert scale therefore ordered groups according to their attitudes in relation to class cohesion. Similarly, for Part 2, the Likert scale order groups according to their classroom behaviour, with a higher score corresponding to greater use of behaviours believed to be conducive to learning.

Questionnaires were distributed personally by the researcher in class time to both students and teachers in the final lessons of term 1 (December 2012) and term 3 (June 2013). The research was explained and questionnaires completed immediately.

3.4.2 Reliability, Validity and Limitations

To assess how well questions measure variables, the concept of reliability and validity must be considered. These two terms can be defined thus:

Reliability refers to the purity and consistency of a measure, to repeatability [...]. Validity [...] tells us whether the question, item or score measures what it is supposed to measure. (Oppenheim 1992: 144-145)

Reliability of attitude statements, such as those in Part 1, was attempted using a set of eleven items relating to attitudes towards the group, as sets of statements have been shown to give more consistent results. Use of the pilot questionnaire failed to reveal contradictory results, and statements which confused participants were removed. This would suggest that the statements in Part 1 had internal consistency, thereby improving reliability. In this way it may be possible to ensure content

validity, which ‘seeks to establish that the items or questions are a well-balanced sample of the content domain to be measured’, and which is the type of validity most researchers take into consideration when using attitude scales (Oppenheim 1992: 161-162). Part 2 of the student questionnaire combined both factual and opinion questions. A set of twelve statements was used in an effort to assure reliability. Furthermore, reliability and validity were additionally determined by re-administering the questionnaire to the same sample, and by interviewing a sample of respondents face to face.

Limitations inherent in all questionnaires were also a feature here. Results could have been contaminated through copying, and the need for brevity meant that questions were simple. The number of students involved in the study was also low, and for this reason, the results obtained are representative of the sample involved and not the population of L2 learners as a whole.

3.5 The Interviews

Due to the inherent limitations of questionnaires mentioned above, qualitative research using a semi-structured interview was used to help interpret the classroom context and illuminate the why and how behind questionnaire results and observed interactions. Respondents either volunteered for these interviews or were selected after discussion with the class teacher, and were asked how they felt about studying in the group and how they felt it affected their learning behaviours. The interview was semi-structured. A list of ten questions was drawn up (Appendix 2.8), but as putting respondents at ease and building rapport in an effort to encourage them to reveal potentially emotionally loaded information was important in interviews, respondents were not always asked exactly the same questions in the same order and unscripted questions were also used to react to respondents’ answers. Approximately 3-4 students per group were interviewed after class in the last 3 weeks of the academic year. This sample is not representative of the survey population and their opinions cannot be taken to represent those of their groups. Nonetheless, they provide a valuable insight into the classroom context and

illuminate some of the reasons why learners believe their class is more or less cohesive. Interviews were conducted in English but at times both interviewer and interviewee resorted to Portuguese in an effort to ensure understanding. Teachers were also interviewed in the 2 weeks after classes ended using an adapted form of the same question framework which can be seen in Appendix 2.9. However only interviews with the teachers and students of the most and least cohesive groups were transcribed. Transcription included attention to non-verbal communications such as laughter and pauses as well as emphasis given by respondents, and followed guidelines provided by Humble, 2009. These interviews can be heard in the DVD which accompanies this volume. Two questions used at the end of each interview, one on private speech and another on possible motives for students having dropped out of class were later considered of less relevance to the present study and are not discussed in this work.

Interview transcripts were then carefully read and those parts of the texts judged to be about the same concept were coded into three major descriptive, thematic coding concepts (Taylor & Gibbs 2010), which developed out of the questions and topics of the semi-scripted interview questions. These major concepts, namely positive and negative affective behaviours, positive and negative sociocognitive behaviours and positive and negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes were subsequently divided into categories and subordinate categories.

Advantages of interviews are that they illuminate how individuals feel in relation to the constructs under investigation and allow more detailed responses in comparison to questionnaires. However disadvantages also exist, including the validity of interviewees' responses, who may answer questions to look socially acceptable and to please the interviewer, and the lack of reliability and consistency of interviewees' answers (Turner & Meyer 2000: 77).

3.6 Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis of Recordings

Recordings of students taking part in these oral tasks were carried in normal class time after the class teacher had explained the activity and distributed task sheets.

Two groups of between 2 and 4 students were chosen randomly in each class and recorded simultaneously and in the same room for the duration of the task, which on average lasted approximately 15 minutes, using two voice recorders which were placed on the table in front of the students. During the task itself the class teacher circulated helping students when necessary and answering learners' questions, as usual. Recordings were made in weeks 5 and 10 in term 1, weeks 3, 6 and week 10 in term 2 and week 3, 7 and 10 in term 3, that is, over 8 classes, a reasonable sample size on which to make generalizations and draw conclusions, especially as it is complemented by cross-triangulated findings from questionnaires and interviews. Due to technical difficulties only one recording per class was made in Term 1 week 10 and Term 3 week 7. The researcher was unable to be present in all classes due to timetable incompatibility. As for interviews, only the recordings of the most and least cohesive classes, as determined by the questionnaires were transcribed. This study therefore rests on a corpus of approximately 8 hours of recorded tasks. Information on task, recording number, participant name and classes can be seen in Appendix 2.10.

3.6.1 Qualitative analysis of recordings

Some of the advantages of questionnaires have been highlighted in the previous section. However, they also have drawbacks, the most important being that they do not provide information 'about events or interactions in the classroom, thus obscuring the why and how' (Turner & Meyer 2000: 76). For this reason interactions in the classroom were audio recorded, transcribed, and certain sections re-transcribed and analysed using conventions from Conversation Analysis (CA). CA is a methodology which tries to explain the details of interaction and to 'uncover the communicative and social competences that structure and render meaningful talk-in-interaction' (Firth & Wagner 2007:813). It is a multi-disciplinary methodology and has been applied to a wide range of academic areas, including language learning and teaching. Seedhouse (2004: 13) proposes that the two principal aims of CA, which spring from an interest in language as a means for social interaction, are to describe interactional organisation by studying examples

of talk in interaction to reveal the underlying emic⁸ logic, and to gain an understanding of how participants develop a shared understanding of the interaction through analysing and interpreting each other's actions. CA aims to interpret from the data rather than impose pre-determined categories thereby rejecting an etic⁹ perspective of conversation (Walsh 2011: 84-87).

Research which has been carried out on how participants in tasks achieve certain pedagogical behaviours has typically used CA, the basic principles of which according to Seedhouse (2005) are that talk in interaction is organised, ordered and methodic, that contributions in interaction can only be understood in the 'sequential environment' they occur in, that no detail can be dismissed as irrelevant or accidental and that no prior theoretical assumptions should be made about the data. CA is rooted in Ethnomethodology, which was seen as a rejection of the etic or external analyst's view of human behaviour for an emic or participant's perspective. Ethnomethodology, which studies the principles on which people base their social actions, was defined by Heritage 1984, (cited by Seedhouse 2004) as;

The study of [...] the body of common-sense knowledge and the range of procedures and considerations by means of which the ordinary members of society make sense of, find their way about in, and act on the circumstances in which they find themselves.

In the language classroom CA investigates the dynamics of 'classroom-talk-in-interaction', with the objective of describing language teaching and learning practices (Sert & Seedhouse 2011: 4). A general outline for research involves four basic stages. These are 'getting or making recordings of natural interactions, transcribing the tapes, in whole or in part, analysing selected episodes and reporting the research' (ten Have 2007: 68). The data should be examined with an open mind, termed 'unmotivated looking' (Seedhouse 2004: 38) and the analyst should be prepared to discover new phenomena rather than search the data with preconceived ideas. Recordings are transcribed using a transcription system which identifies the participants, the words spoken, the sounds uttered (including inaudible or

⁸ An emic perspective studies behaviour as from inside the system (Seedhouse 2004: 4).

⁹ An etic viewpoint results from studying behaviour as from outside that system (Seedhouse 2004: 4).

incomprehensible sounds or words), and overlapping speech and silences (ten Have 2007: 97-103). Figure 3.1 sets out the Transcription key used in this study.

:	Elongation of a syllable
(.)	Brief untimed pause
(3.2)	Interval between utterances (in seconds)
<u>word</u>	Speaker emphasis
!	Animated or emphatic tone
CAPITALS	Loud sound relative to surrounding talk
◦ ◦	Utterances which are noticeably quieter than surrounding talk
◦◦ ◦◦	Whispered utterances
< >	Talk produced slowly and deliberately
> <	Talk produced more quickly than surrounding talk
()	Unclear or unintelligible speech or attempt to transcribe such speech
→	A feature of special interest
<i>sim</i> ((tr.: yes))	Non-English words are written in italics and followed by English translation in double brackets
T:	Teacher
L1:	Unidentified learner
LL:	Several or all learners simultaneously
[Indicates overlap with portion in the next turn that is similarly bracketed
[[Indicates overlap with portion in the next turn that is similarly bracketed when the single bracket is used in the previous line and or turn so there will be no confusion regarding what brackets correspond to.
(())	Comments
[finished]	An approximation of the right sound in the case of inaccurate pronunciation
?	Rising intonation
,	Slight rise in intonation
.	Falling intonation
↑	Accentuated rise in intonation
↓	Accentuated fall in intonation

Figure 3.1 Transcription Conventions (adapted from Seedhouse 2004: 267-269 and Ohta 2001: 27)

Seedhouse (2004: 241-253) shows how this method can be used to identify learning opportunities such as receiving corrective feedback, the talking into being

of a ZDP through the interaction, and how learners focus on form. Heritage (1997) mentions how CA can be used to examine turn-taking organisation and asymmetry of roles. As these are amongst the areas of interest in this study, this methodology was adopted here. However, Seedhouse excludes discourse ‘talked into being precisely by abandoning the connection to the teacher’s pedagogical focus’ (2004: 201) from his definition of L2 classroom interaction, labelling it ‘noninstitutional talk’ and giving the following example to illustrate his point:

L1: teacher said don’t use Malay are you? So you don’t use Malay.

LL: (1.0) ((laugh))

L2: very difficult I don’t know answer the question.

((Scuffles, laughter))

L1: >OK OK never mind, never mind, don’t worry, discuss, discuss, come on don’t laugh. <

LL. ((laugh))

In contrast, I would suggest that the above extract, which shows learner 1 providing affective scaffolding in an effort to encourage the others to stay in L2 and engage with the task is as important to the accomplishment of the task as interaction which is restricted to the pedagogical focus of the task, and as such, this type of interaction is a typical example of the type of talk heard in the second language classroom, an institutional setting in its own right. For this reason it will form part of the discourse analysed here.

In Research questions 1 and 2, although I have given indications as to what might be of interest, I have also made it clear that only by analysing the data can the categories for study be identified, and all examples of the CA analysis in interaction are presented. Because language form and discourse function do not neatly map onto each other, this study used function to guide coding. The data was analysed qualitatively for interaction which could lead to or discourage a positive social dimension, and behaviours which could promote language learning. Transcripts of the oral tasks were read and re-read while simultaneously listening to the recordings, as only by determining intonation patterns could utterances be

accurately coded. Selected episodes were then transcribed using CA and are presented in chapters 5-7. Further details are given in the following chapters.

3.6.2 Quantitative Analysis of Recordings

The quantification of data in CA has been controversial although informal quantification has been used from the beginning. Foster and Ohta (2005:403) emphasise that:

Sociocultural approaches prioritize qualitative research methodology and pay close attention to the settings and participants in interactions. Quantification may be used to gain a partial understanding of a data set, but categories for quantification must emerge post-hoc from the data being analysed.

Heritage (2005: 137) admits that ‘a number of questions about the relationship between talk, its circumstances, and its outcomes cannot be answered without the statistical analysis of results’. Stivers (2002) has used CA to observe patient-doctor discourse from a quantitative perspective, and Clayman and Heritage (2002) used CA and statistics to compare questions journalists asked public figures in news interviews and press conferences in the 1950s and the 1980s.

3.6.2.1 Quantitative Analysis: Behaviours which Lead to Learning Opportunities

To identify behaviours which lead to learning opportunities, transcripts of the interactions were read and re-read while listening to the recordings so form and function could be mapped. Interactions were then coded for learning opportunities which are described in greater detail in Chapter 7. As the teacher allowed students enough time to complete the tasks, the entirety of the recording was analysed and opportunities counted. As some groups were more engaged than others and took longer to finish the task, this means that recordings of different lengths are compared. In Term 2 task 2 however, no group managed to complete the task and consequently the first 17 minutes of each recording was analysed. In Term 2 task

1, the teacher gave differing instructions to each class which resulted in recordings 9-12 being eliminated from this quantitative analysis.

3.6.2.2 Quantitative Analysis: Quantity of Language

For analysis of the quantity of language produced, the unit of measurement was the ‘analysis of speech’ unit (AS-unit) proposed by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 365-366), and described as ‘¹⁰a single speaker’s utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either’. Sub-clausal units are defined as consisting of ‘either one or more phrases which can be elaborated to a full clause by means of recovery of ellipted elements from the context of the discourse or situation’. These researchers developed this unit to analyse spoken data as they believed the previous units in use, for example the T-unit or the C-unit (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth 2000: 360-361) were inadequate when applied to the transcription of complex oral data, which is difficult to divide into clear units.

In their description of the AS- unit Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth refer to three levels of application, depending on the research purpose and the different types of spoken language data used. In the present study, level two, which is suggested for use with highly interactional data, was adopted. This suggests that one word minor utterances such as ‘Yes, No, Right, Uhuh, Mm’, and ‘OK’ should be excluded, as these could form a high proportion of utterances in some tasks and their inclusion could distort the perception of the nature of the interaction. In addition it is suggested that verbatim echoes be excluded. However during the processing of the data in this study, further decisions were made on expressions to exclude and exceptions to be made, and these are detailed in Tables 3.4 and 3.5. The recording numbers given refer to the recordings which can be found in the DVD which accompanies this volume. An AS-unit is marked by an upright slash ...|...

¹⁰ However scaffolded phrases are an exception to this and are discussed below.

Table 3.4 Utterances Excluded from AS-unit Count Data

Utterances	Examples	Recording number
One word minor utterances	Yes, no, right, mhm, OK, etc.	Most if not all recordings
Verbatim echoes	Mi: met S : met B : met yes	2
Utterances in Portuguese	O: é é porque a relação mantenha se ate hoje.	32
Phrases read from the input	M: We immediately felt in love	2
One word utterances used when spelling out a word	S : g Mi : g S : h	2

Table 3.5 Exceptions to Utterances Excluded from AS-unit Count Data

Utterances	Examples	Recording
Verbatim echoes which serve to answer a question	B: interested in learning or interested to learn? S: interested in learning	2
Verbatim echoes used as ellipted questions	S : keeps you healthy Mi: keeps?	2
Utterances involving code switching (when at least one of the words uttered is English)	S: mas isso não é normally	2
Spelling a whole word	B: fell is I s M: f B: yes fell M. f - e - l - l	2
Proper names in Portuguese	A: yeah, museu dos coches	14

Foster *et. al.* (2000:369) make reference to the situation of interruption and scaffolding, mentioning that in highly interactive discourse, as is the case here, interrupting and scaffolding can pose problems for the analyst. The sequence of interaction in recording 10 seen below exemplifies how this situation was dealt with in this study. Student A starts the AS-unit on line 1 which is then successively completed by students B and C in lines 2, 3, 6 and 8. This is considered one AS-

unit of 17 words. This AS-unit is interrupted in line 4 by student B and this is also considered one AS-unit as is A's utterance on line 9. Repetition on lines 5 and 7 are not counted as AS-units.

Line	Participant	Utterance
1	A	And finally
2	B	5 years later
3	C	at the age of 30
4	B	you can 5 years later in 2010
5	A	at the age
6	B	he won
7	A	he won
8	B	the prize a best novel
9	A	the prize for the best novel

For each task recorded, the total number of AS-units per task was calculated as was the average number of AS-units per participant per task to give a measure of the quantity of language produced.

3.6.2.3 Quantitative analysis: Quality of Language

To calculate the quality i.e. the complexity of language produced, a word count per unit was used, as suggested by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 368). Bygate (2001) similarly suggested using words per unit as a measure of complexity, although his unit of choice was the T-unit. He found that with argumentation and narrative tasks, learners made their output more complex by increasing the number of clause elements or words (Bygate 1999: 199) and for this reason he argues that the number of words per unit reflects complexity as the learner is demonstrating their ability to combine lexical items around syntactic structures.

In this study it was decided to establish a benchmark for complexity, similar to that suggested by Moser (2010: 18). 10 transcripts were chosen at random and the total number of words for each AS-unit counted. When these were compared it

could be seen that the majority of AS-units contained between 2 and 4 words, although the word count varied enormously across groups and tasks. It was then decided to analyse examples of AS-units containing from 4 to 9 words for complexity. As suggested by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000:368), false starts, verbatim repetitions, words in L1 (except when they were proper nouns) and self-corrections were not considered as part of the word count and are shown inside brackets {...}. Minor utterances such as ‘Yes, No’ and ‘OK’ were considered part of the word count when they made up part of a longer AS-unit but utterances indicating hesitation (‘Eh, Ah, Hmm’ etc.) were excluded. Contractions were counted as two words. Table 3.6 below defines and exemplifies false starts, repetitions and self-corrections in greater detail.

Table 3.6 Definition and Examples of False Starts, Repetition and Self-Correction

Feature	Definition	Example	Recording
False starts	An utterance which is abandoned or reformulated.	F: {No, yes, but you,} but you say you fall in love (word count = 7)	3
Repetition	Repetition of previously produced speech, but not for rhetorical effect.	R: {I use I use I use I use my I use my coat} I use my coat all days (word count =6)	4
Self-correction	Speaker stops and reformulates speech when an error is identified	N: And what’s the first thing you notice when you {met someone}, meet someone! (word count = 12)	13

Four and five word AS-units were predominantly composed of simple affirmative clauses, short questions, short negative clauses and sub-clausal units which often functioned to answer a previous question. The vast majority were in the present simple tense, with the occasional example of past simple tense. Some examples of four and five word units are:

- What about you Maria?
- Maybe it’s true
- Do you go to parties

- It's something like that
- Yeah, it's that part

Six word AS units predominantly employed present simple tense and many again were simple affirmative clauses, short questions or short negative clauses. However some employed simple noun or adverbial phrases. Noun phrases are shown in bold in the following sentences.

- I understand **what you're saying**
- It was a documentary **about inventions**
- How often you go **to parties?**

A significant number contained comment clauses which can be seen in bold in the following sentences.

- It's different, **I would say**
- **I think** it's good but,
- **I think** that he's teach
- **I think** it was rock or

Seven word AS-units included more adjective, noun and prepositional phrases, some examples of which can be see below.

- Well Portuguese nowadays they wear **very fashionable**
- It's very important **for a woman**
- You ever visit any museums **in Lisbon?**

Eight word AS-units began to show a greater variety of tenses in verb phrases, including present simple, present continuous, past simple, present perfect and present perfect continuous. Some examples are;

- **It's** better than just in the fridge
- Yes, because we **are saying** the same thing
- I **didn't know** the name was Elizabeth
- But Mary **didn't say** that, did she?
- You **have had** a party in your house?

- So I think we **have finished** number one
- He **have been selling** a lot of books

In addition, eight word AS-units began to employ more adverbial phrases, noun phrases, and prepositional phrases. Some examples can be seen below in bold.

- **My preferred place in Lisbon** is Calouste Gulbenkian – Noun phrase
- **The next time** I will go with you – Adverbial phrase
- I woke up **every day at eight o'clock** – Adverbial phrase
- We have had a party **in your house** – Prepositional phrase

In nine word AS-units it was noticeable that a considerable number of units contained subordinate or coordinate clauses, a feature virtually absent from AS-units with fewer words. Some examples are;

- It doesn't sound well **but it is correct**
- He leave the teacher job **and became a writer**
- He have a new girlfriend **and I met her**
- I wish to **but I don't have time**
- And I pass through **so I lift you somewhere**

For this reason it was decided to choose nine word AS-units as the benchmark for complexity and the percentage of AS-units containing 9 or more words was calculated as a percentage of the total number of AS units per task, with a higher percentage showing greater complexity of language used during the task.

3.6.3 Reliability, Validity and Limitation

One key factor in the reliability of CA studies is how repeatable or replicable the studies are (Bryman 2001, cited in Seedhouse 2004: 254) and it is standard practice for CA practitioners to include transcripts of the data they employ so readers can analyse the data for themselves thereby rendering the analyses repeatable and replicable to readers. Transcripts of all data analysed using CA in this study are included in the Results section.

In relation to validity, Seedhouse (2004: 255) suggests that internal validity, which is concerned with issues such as credibility of findings and soundness, is assured because the purpose of CA is to present the participants' perspective and this is clearly documented in the details of the interaction. External validity, concerned with how findings can be generalised is guaranteed, because although CA studies the microinteraction, which is necessarily unique, on another level, the classroom context has features in common with other L2 classroom contexts, for example, a focus on form task, and on yet another level, the interaction being studied will have features which are common to all L2 classes, which Seedhouse (2004: 183) suggests are the fact that language is simultaneously the object and vehicle of instruction, that the language learners produce may be evaluated by the teacher and that the relationship between pedagogy and interaction is reflexive i.e. as the pedagogical focus changes so does the interactional organisation. Construct validity, which assesses the degree to which an instrument measures the characteristics being investigated does not apply to CA as researchers do not start with an etic perspective and instead aim to reveal interactional organisation through unmotivated looking. Lastly ecological validity, which is concerned with whether findings are applicable to people's everyday lives is assured as recordings are made of naturally occurring talk in authentic settings.

In quantitative analysis a particular limitation here could be the 'premature quantification in relation to superficially identifiable interactional phenomenon' (Seedhouse 2004: 259) leading to an etic rather than an emic analysis of the discourse. For this reason, it is necessary to carefully analyse the data from an emic perspective before quantitative analysis is performed.

Perceived limitations of this work include occasional insufficient quality of recordings and possible uncharacteristic behaviour of learners due to the recording activities, known as the Observer's Paradox (Labov 1972, cited by ten Have: 69). An attempt was made to mitigate the former by clearly marking untranscribed talk and rejecting sequences where this was lengthy. It is hoped that learners' uncharacteristic behaviour was minimised as students were engaged in familiar classroom activities in their regular classroom, with their teacher and fellow

colleagues. It is also hoped that as the research was longitudinal, learners became accustomed to the presence of tape recorders in the classroom and any uncharacteristic behaviour which may have been observed initially was reduced to a minimum by the end of the study.

3.7 Summary

This chapter described the methodology employed in the study. It started with the research questions and went on to give details of the classroom context and learners involved in the research. It then gave information on the content of the oral tasks and how these were recorded and the structure of the cohesion questionnaire and how it was administered. This was followed by a section dedicated to the interviews and the chapter ended with a description of qualitative and quantitative analysis of task recordings. The following chapter will present and discuss the results of questionnaires and interviews.

CHAPTER 4 THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEWS

This chapter reports the results of the questionnaire and the interviews and is divided into two main sections. Section 4.1 presents and discusses the results of the student and teacher questionnaires and section 4.2 details and discusses the results of student and teacher interviews.

4.1 The Questionnaire

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a questionnaire was distributed to students at the end of term 1 and term 3. Part 1 of the questionnaire was designed to measure group cohesiveness and Part 2 to study classroom behaviours. The teachers of the 6 classes involved in the study were also asked to complete a two part questionnaire on the same topics.

4.1.1 The Questionnaire: Part 1

Results for each individual item of the student questionnaire on group cohesiveness, expressed as mean and standard deviation, are presented in Appendix 3.1 (Student questionnaire, term 1) and 3.2 (Student questionnaire, term 3). Appendix 3.3 presents the same information for the teacher questionnaire for both terms. Summated Likert scale analysis was used to add the mean scores of the individuals from each group and thereby rank groups according to perceived cohesiveness, with higher scores indicating greater perceived group cohesiveness. A similar summated Likert scale analysis was used to analyse the results of the teacher questionnaire and these summated results for both students and teachers can be seen in Table 4.1. Likert scales tend to perform very well when it comes to a reliable ordering of people with regard to an attitude (Oppenheim 1992: 200).

The first important point to note in Table 4.1 is the consistency of results over the academic year and the close relationship of results for both student and teacher questionnaires. As can be seen, with the exception of Mary’s class 2 in the Teacher Questionnaire term 1, the two most cohesive groups for both teachers and students throughout the academic year are Mary’s Class 1 and Ronnie’s class, and the two least cohesive groups are Mary’s Class 2 and Anne’s group, with Kate and Colin’s classes consistently occupying positions 3 and 4 throughout the year for both students and teachers. This in general confirms the reliability of the questionnaire used.

Table 4.1 Summated Likert Analysis of Student and Teacher Questionnaires, Part 1, Term 1 and Term 3

Class	Student questionnaire Term 1	Student questionnaire Term 3	Teacher questionnaire Term 1	Teacher questionnaire Term 3
Mary Class 1	42.4	48.9	48	46
Ronnie	44.8	44.8	42	39
Colin	41.5	44.0	41	37
Kate	40.1	41.7	33	38
Mary Class 2	38.5	41.4	45	28
Anne	35.3	36.7	27	35

It is interesting to note how perceived cohesiveness changes for students and teachers over the academic year. Table 4.1 columns 1 and 2 show that students in 5 of the 6 groups questioned rated group cohesiveness as higher in term 3 than in term 1, the exception being Ronny’s class which rated cohesion equally in both terms. An increase in perceived cohesion over a period of time is consistent with previous research. Group cohesion develops over time and the more time individual group members spend together the more likely they are to bond and accept each other,

promoting the development of cohesive groups (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 142). Interestingly the same is not true for teachers. The four highest scores in Term 1 for teachers' perception of group cohesiveness (Mary's class 1 and 2, Ronnie and Colin's class) fall in term 3, while those of the two classes with the lowest scores in term 1 (Kate and Anne's class) rise in term 3. This suggests that teachers may initially over estimate how well or how badly students appear to work with and tolerate each other. This could be due to the reason that teachers can often find it difficult to accurately judge classes and individual group members after 10 weeks of lessons as they are often less aware of the minutiae of student interactions than are the students.

Table 4.1 shows that the class considered most cohesive by both teachers and students over both terms is Mary's first class, which appears in first position in the ranking for both students and teachers on 3 occasions, (Teacher ranking term 1, and teacher and student ranking term 3) and in second position in Student ranking term 1. This group, which henceforth will be referred to simply as Class 1 was chosen as the most cohesive group. Anne's group is the least cohesive and appears in last position in the ranking for both students and teacher on 3 occasions. However, Mary's class 2 also appears towards the bottom of the ranking on 3 occasions, (in second last position according to student ranking in both terms 1 and 3 and last position according to teacher ranking in term 3), and it was Mary's class 2 (henceforth referred to as Class 2) which was chosen as an example of a less cohesive group, as it was considered advantageous that both these groups were taught by the same teacher, thereby eliminating one variable which could have a significant bearing on results.

4.1.1.1 Student Questionnaire, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3

Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show mean scores by item for Class 1 in term 1 and term 3. The green line represents a 'neutral' response on the Likert scale. Scores below this show a negative attitude towards the item. As can be seen on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 showing the most positive attitude towards group cohesion, just under half the items score more than 4 in Term 1 and only 2 score less than 4 in Term 3, indicating a group that considers itself cohesive.

These figures show that the items with the highest scores for this group over the academic year are consistent, these being items 7, 10, 2 and 4. This group strongly disagrees with the statements that their classmates don't seem to care about each other very much (Item 7) and that there are some classmates they'd prefer not to work with (Item 10). In addition the group also strongly agrees that the class is composed of people who get on well (Item 2) and that they are satisfied with their class (Item 4).

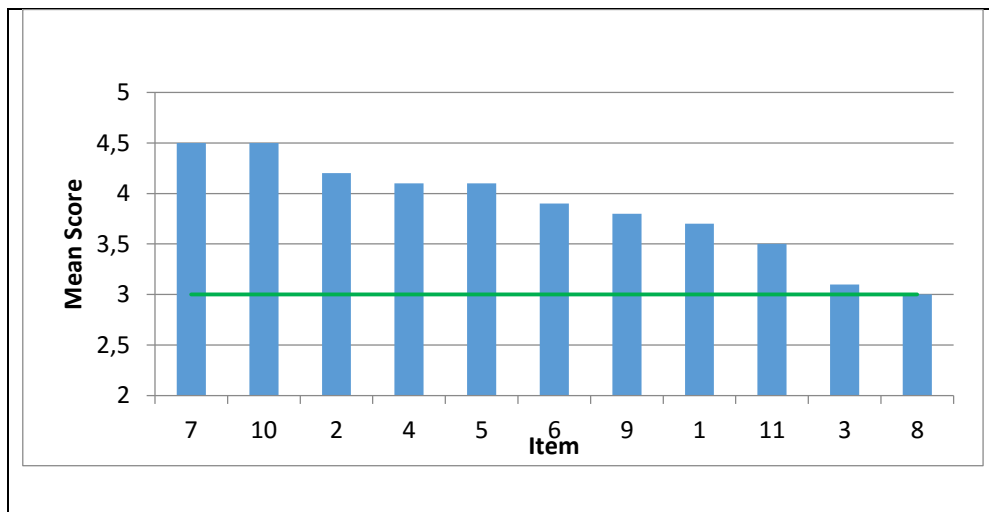


Figure 4.1 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 1, Term 1

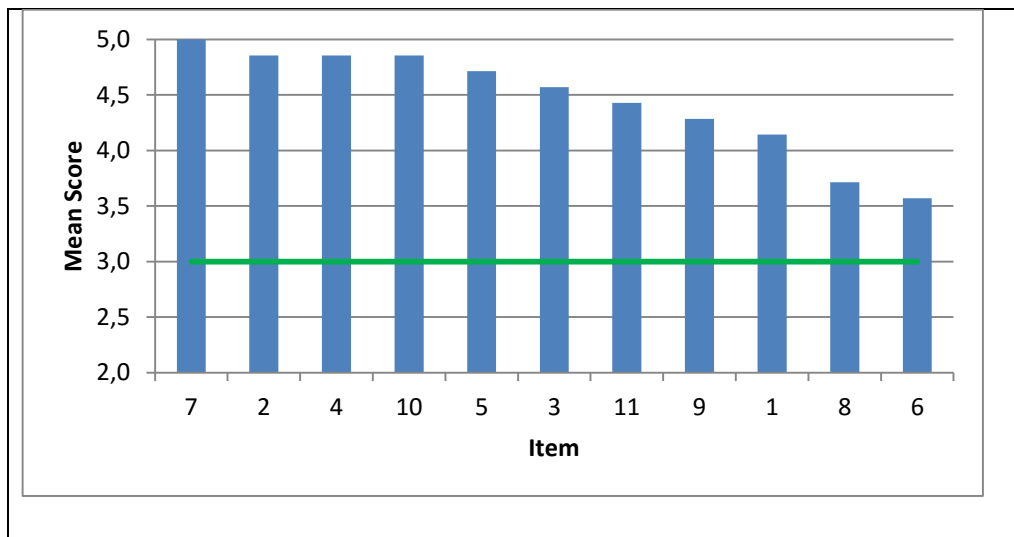


Figure 4.2 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 1, Term 3

Group cohesion, as previously mentioned refers to ‘the strength of the relationship linking the members to one another and to the group itself’ (Forsyth 1991: 19), or ‘a sense of liking among group members, usually resulting from perceived similarity and then from mutual acceptance (Ehrman and Dornyei 1998: 136-137). Intermember acceptance is a key concept of group dynamics and strong group cohesiveness can result from intermember acceptance of others, regardless of initial intermember attraction (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 115). The fact that members of Class 1 feel that they care for each other, and the fact that group members state they are willing to work with everyone in class would seem to suggest mutual acceptance of others here.

Figures 4.1 and 4.2 also show that of the two lowest scoring items in the Term 1 questionnaire for Class 1, items 3 and 8, only item 8 (*I know most of my classmates*) appears amongst the lowest scoring items in Term 3. Item 3, (*I know the names of all my classmates*) has a more positive score in term 3 indicating that the students are more familiar with each other’s names, as would be expected after sharing a class over the academic year. The lowest scoring item for Class 1 in term 3 is item 6 (*If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class again*).

In other words learners in Class 1 disagree that their classmates don’t seem to care about each other and also disagree that there are some classmates they’d prefer not to work with. They also strongly agree that the class is composed of people who get on well and that they are satisfied with their class. On the other hand they feel they don’t know their colleagues, and given the choice would prefer to study with different classmates in future. It could be argued that these results are contradictory. However, although group members are satisfied with their present class, they could quite legitimately prefer to have a change of classmates in the coming year, simply due to the fact that exchanging ideas and opinions with different colleagues would be more stimulating and challenging. Similarly they may have learned each other’s names by the end of the academic year but still feel they do not know each other, in the sense that they have not developed friendships with each other. This could be due to the fact that the 3 hours a week they spend in each other’s presence offers them few opportunities to really get to know each other.

Their class relationship would appear to be based on the fact that they all recognise the aim of the lesson is to learn English and for that they need to interact. It is therefore important that they maintain a good working relationship with each other which involves a certain degree of mutual trust that all group members are going to cooperate to achieve this common goal. The learners of this group seem to see the class more as a place of academic learning rather than one of social encounter or relationship building, and while it is true that initial attraction between the individuals of a group may lead to stronger interpersonal bonds such as friendship, this is not a requirement of groups, even groups which function well (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 114). Social identification theory (Hogg & Abrahams 1988, cited by Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 54) suggests that the primary source of group cohesion is category membership and not liking, or perceptions of similarity. Hogg and Abrahams postulate that it is category membership, in this case the category being that of language learners, that eventually leads to perceptions of affinity and similarity. It would appear that Class 1 could be cohesive in this sense. They do not appear to be particularly strongly attracted to each other or to have formed strong friendships, but there does seem to be a certain degree of acceptance amongst group members.

4.1.1.2 Teacher Questionnaire, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3

Figure 4.3 shows the teacher's scores by item for Class 1 in term 1 and term 3. As can be seen the teacher rates Class 1 highly for cohesion for 8 of the 10 items in term 1 and 6 in term 3. The two items rated by the teacher as True rather than very true in term 1 are items 1 (*The group is tolerant of all its members*) and 5 (*There is a supportive atmosphere in class*). It can also be seen that the teacher's opinion of class cohesion remains steady over the academic year, the only difference being a slightly less positive response to items 9 (*The students all know each other*) and 10 (*The students seem to like each other*) in Term 3. The teacher's responses corroborate the students' positive attitudes towards group cohesion.

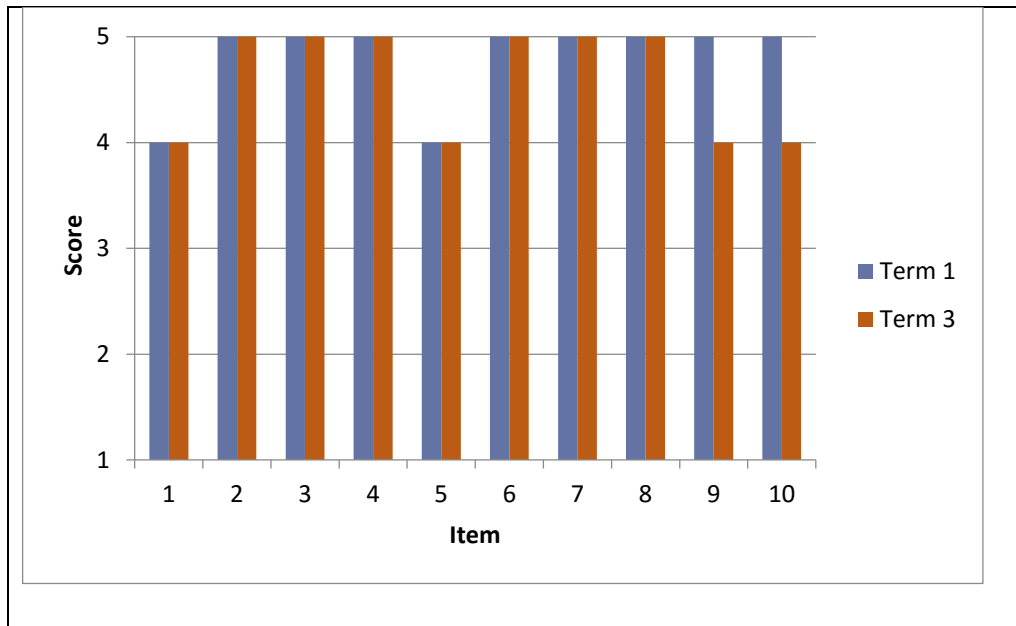


Figure 4.3 Scores by Item, Teacher Questionnaire Part 1, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3

4.1.1.3 Student Questionnaire, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3

Figures 4.4 and 4.5 show mean scores by item for Class 2 in term 1 and term 3.

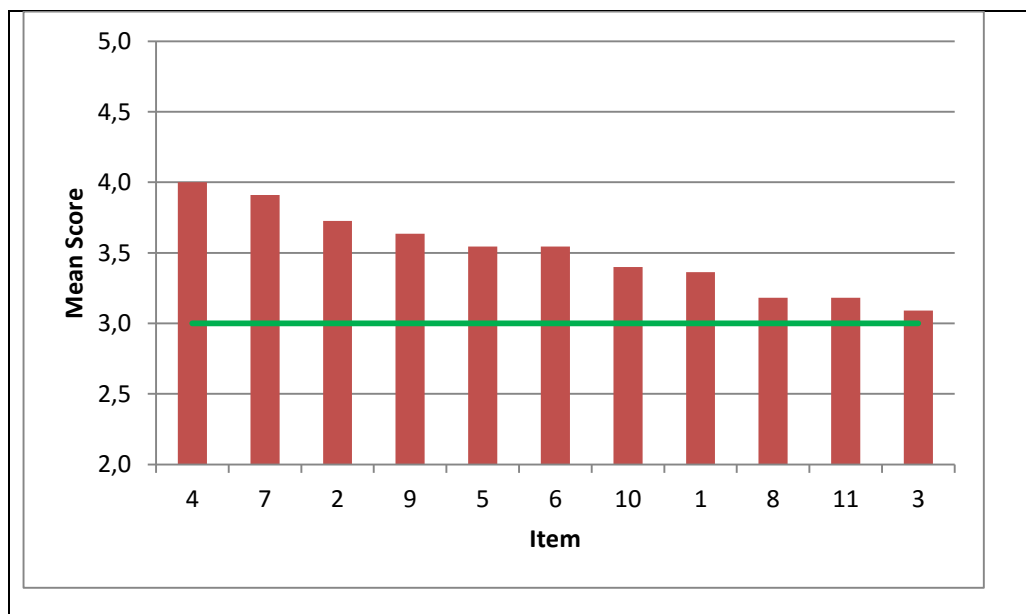


Figure 4.4 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 2, Term 1

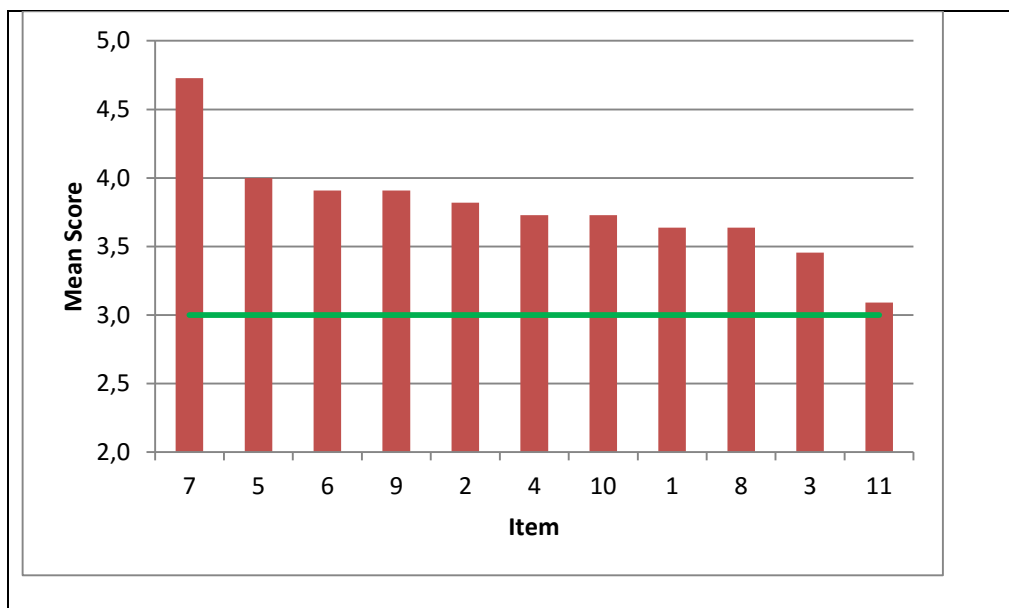


Figure 4.5 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Class 2, Term 3

As can be seen on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 showing the most positive attitude towards group cohesion, none of the items score more than 4 in Term 1 and only 1 scores more than 4 in Term 3, indicating a group which in general has a rather neutral opinion of group cohesion, and one whose attitude towards group cohesion changes very little over the academic year.

These figures show that, similarly to Class 1, students in Class 2, term 1 also agree they are satisfied with their class, that the class is composed of people who get on well and disagree that their classmates don't seem to care about each other. Interestingly, students in Class 2 disagree less strongly with item 10 (*There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with*), but agree more strongly than students in Class 1 that they would want to learn English in the same class again.

These figures show that there is slightly less consistency of scoring between Term 1 and Term 3 in Class 2 for the highest scoring items. In term 1, the highest scoring items was item 4 (*I am satisfied with my class*) and these students also disagreed that their classmates didn't seem to care about each other very much (item 7). However, in term 3, although item 7 was the highest scoring item, students appeared to be less satisfied with their class, as this item drops in ranking from first position in term 1 to 6th position in term 3. However item 5 (*I feel very comfortable working in this class*) attains a higher score in term 3 than in term 1. The lowest

scoring items however remain constant over the academic year, these being items 8 (*I know most of my classmates*), item 3 (*I know the names of all my classmates*), and 11 (*I feel anxious about speaking English in this class*). In other words, the students in Class 2 disagree that their classmates don't seem to care about each other very much and declare themselves to be satisfied with their class in term 1 and comfortable working in the class in term 3, all of which appear positive, but even at the end of the academic year they still feel they don't know their classmates or their names, and in fact feel slightly more anxious about speaking English than they did at the end of Term 1.

This contrasts with class 1, where anxiety about speaking English diminishes over time. When anxiety fails to decrease, it becomes a trait rather than a state (Oxford 1999: 60) which can have a negative correlation on language achievement, and some studies have suggested that language anxiety leads to problems with language learning, rather than anxiety being a consequence of such problems (MacIntyre 1995: 91). Language anxiety has been classified as a social anxiety and involves feelings of tension and discomfort, shyness and embarrassment (Oxford 1999:63). This corroborates the findings of the questionnaire of Class 2 as a group which is less cohesive in nature as it is clear that if group members feel shy or embarrassed about communicating with peers in the class they are unlikely to develop the positive interpersonal relationships necessary for the formation of a cohesive group. These interpersonal factors could be one reason for increased anxiety which could ultimately be responsible for language learning difficulties.

4.1.1.4 Teacher Questionnaire, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3

The results of the teacher's questionnaire on Class 2 group cohesion can be seen in Figure 4.6. This shows that although the teacher's opinion is generally more positive than neutral (a score of 3) in term 1, where the lowest score (Neutral) is given for item 1 (*The group is tolerant of all its members*), in term 3 values fall for all items except one (Item 4, *There are some people in this class who do not like each other*) with which this teacher disagrees and which remains stable over both terms.

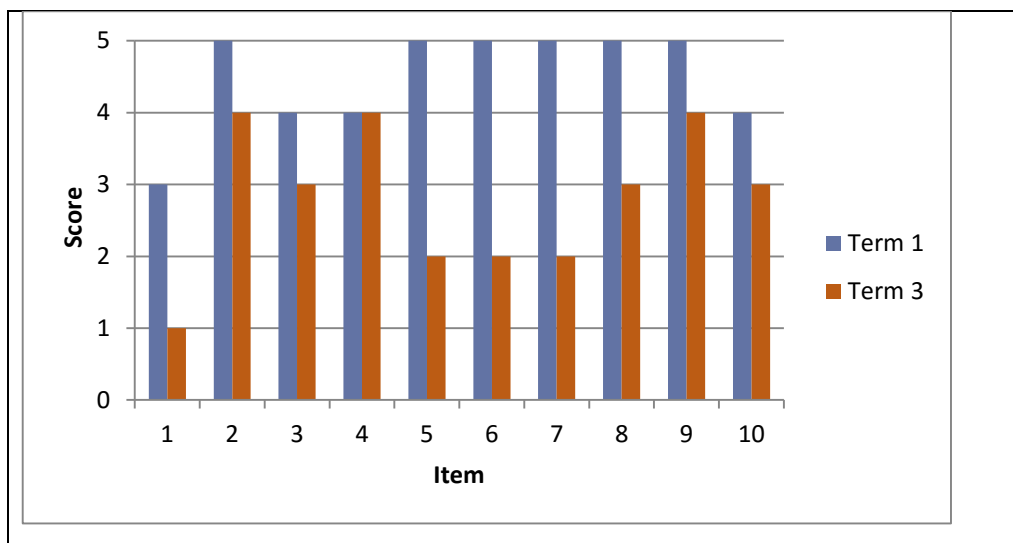


Figure 4.6 Scores by Item, Teacher questionnaire Part 1, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3

The greatest changes between Term 1 and 3 for Class 2 can be seen in items 1 (*The group is tolerant of all its members*), 5 (*There is a supportive atmosphere in the group*), 6 (*I feel very comfortable working with this class*), 7 (*If I had the choice I would like to teach English to this class again*), which have negative scores in term 3, and item 8 (*The individuals don't seem to care much about each other*) which along with items 3 (*The class is composed of people who get on well*) and 10 (*The students seem to like each other*), have neutral scores in Term 3. It is clear that as the academic year progresses the teacher begins to have more negative views on whether group members get on well, tolerate or like each other, which further supports the belief that this group is less cohesive in nature. When informally questioned by the researcher, Mary reported that she was unaware that the scores in term 3 were less positive than in term 1, although the presence of Olivia in the class was mentioned as a negative influence, even though Olivia had been present in the class since the beginning of term. As mentioned earlier it can often take the teacher longer than 10 weeks to become familiar with all students in a class and this could be one possible reason for the changes in the teacher's opinion of group cohesion in Term 3. It could also be that the students themselves were still unaware of the true nature of their classmates after 10 weeks and only became less supportive and tolerant of each other after spending longer in each other's presence.

4.1.1.5 Student Questionnaire, Classes 1 and 2, Terms 1 and 3,

A clearer picture emerges when we compare scores for Class 1 and Class 2 in term 1, and in term 3. Figure 4.7 below compares mean scores by item for Class 1 and Class 2 at the end of term 1.

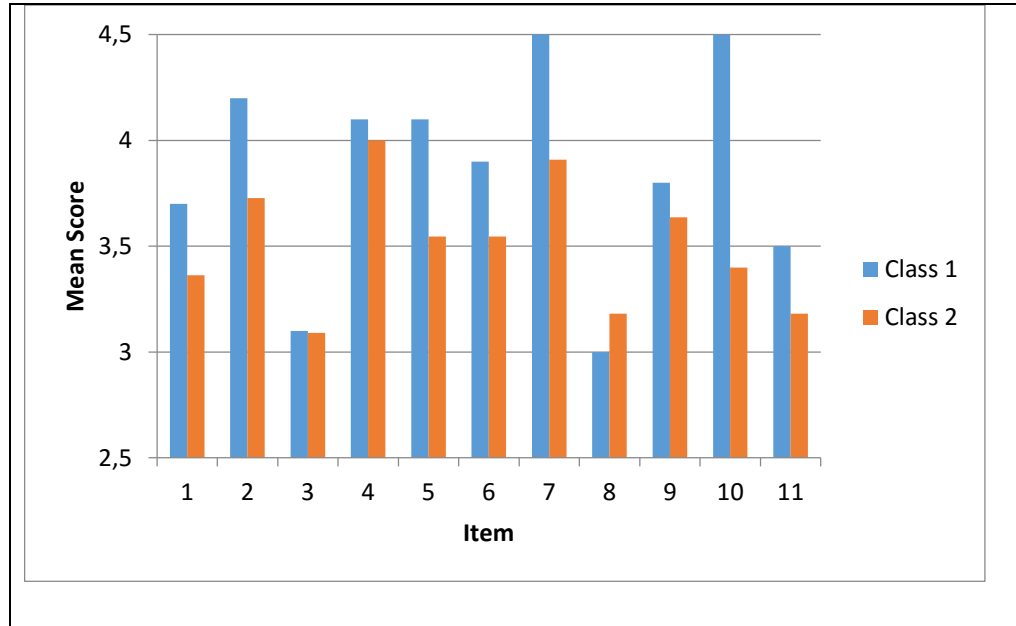


Figure 4.7 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 and 2, Term1

Firstly it can be seen that of the 11 items, scores for all except item 8 (*I know most of my classmates*) are higher in Class 1 with the score for item 3 (*I know the names of all my classmates*) being equal. This would indicate a more positive attitude and possible greater group cohesion in Class 1. The greatest difference can be seen in item 10 (*There are some classmates I prefer not to work with*). In Class 1, of 10 students questioned, 7 scored this item as false, 2 as somewhat true, and 1 as neutral i.e. a clear majority of the class disagreed with this statement. However in class 2 of 11 students questioned, only 3 scored this item as false, 3 as somewhat true, 2 as neutral, 2 as true and 1 as very true. In term 1, Class 2 therefore seems to have a much wider range of opinions on this topic, with just under half of those questioned being neutral or agreeing with the statement. Whereas the members of Class 1 are generally prepared to work with all other group members, this is not the case for Class 2, indicating less acceptance of other group members in this class and one possible reason for less cohesion amongst these group members.

Figure 4.8 compares mean scores by item for Class 1 and Class 2 at the end of term 3.

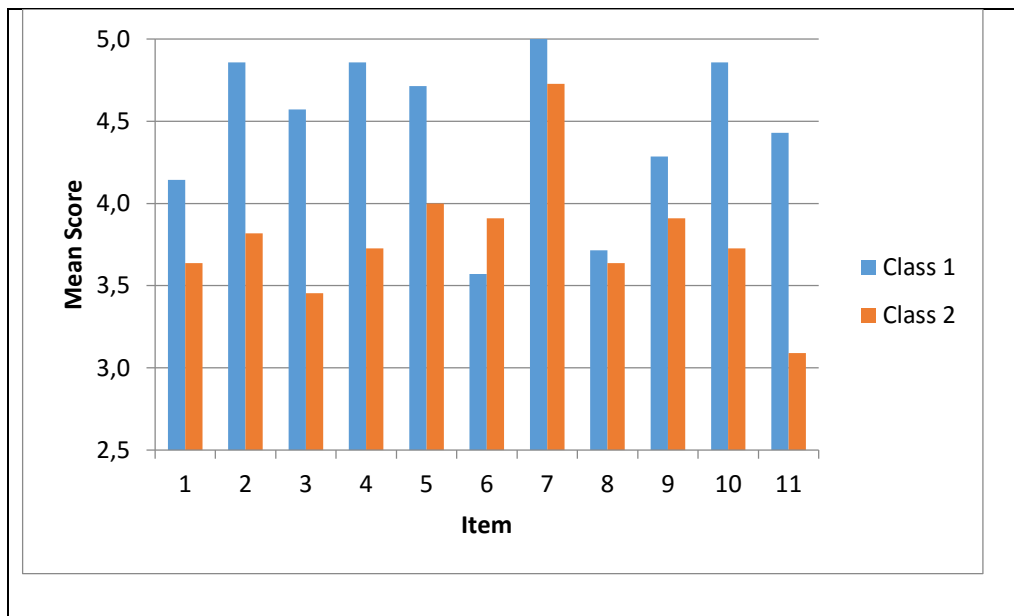


Figure 4.8 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 and 2, Term 3

Firstly it can be seen that, as in term 1, the scores for all items, except item 6 (*If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class*) are higher in Class 1 than in Class 2 and although members of class 2 scored the 11 items of this part of the questionnaire slightly more positively in term 3 when compared to term 1 (with the exception of class satisfaction, item 4, and anxiety about speaking English in the class, item 11), the members of Class 1 scored items more positively still, and the difference between Class 1 and Class 2 scores in Term 3 is greater for 9 of 11 items than in Term 1. For this reason, considerable difference can be seen in the scoring of five items, all of which scored considerably lower in Class 2 than in Class 1 in term 3. These are items 2, (*This class is composed of people who get on well*), 3, (*I know the names of all my classmates*), 4, (*I am satisfied with my class*), 10 (*There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with*) and 11 (*I feel anxious speaking English in this class*). With the exception of item 11 and arguably item 4, the others are directly related to the relationships between class members suggesting that there may be some reason that prevents members of Class 2 having as good a relationship with fellow group members as that experienced by students

in Class 1. Some possible reasons for these results will be presented in part 4.2 which relates to student and teacher interviews.

4.1.1.6 Teacher Questionnaire, Classes 1 and 2, Terms 1 and 3

Lastly figures 4.9 and 4.10 compare responses for the teacher’s questionnaire for class 1 and 2 in term 1 and term 3.

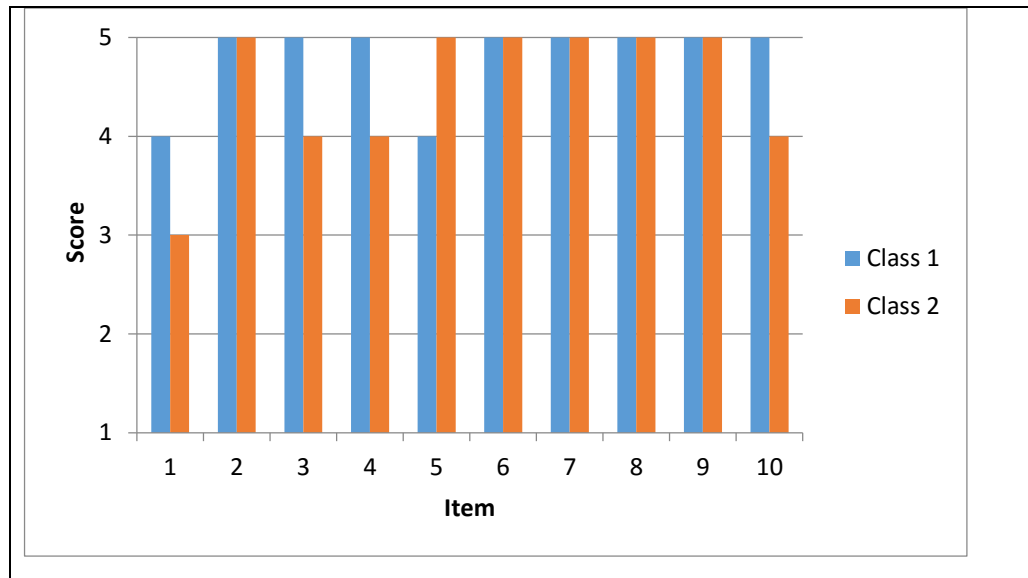


Figure 4.9 Scores by Item, Teacher Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 and 2, Term 1

Figures 4.9 and 4.10 show clearly the differences in the teacher’s perception of cohesion amongst members of Class 1 and 2 in terms 1 and 3. In Term 1, the values for items 1 (*The group is tolerant of all its members*), 3 (*The class is composed of people who get on well*), 4 (*There are some people in this class who do not like each other*) and 10 (*The students seem to like each other*) for Class 2, are lower than for Class 1, with only one item scoring more highly for Class 2, this being item 5 (*There is a supportive atmosphere in class*). In term 3, scores for all items for Class 2 are lower than the corresponding scores for Class 1 with the exception of item 9 (*The students all know each other*), which is equal. These results support the results of student questionnaires which reveal Class 2 as being less cohesive in nature than class 1.

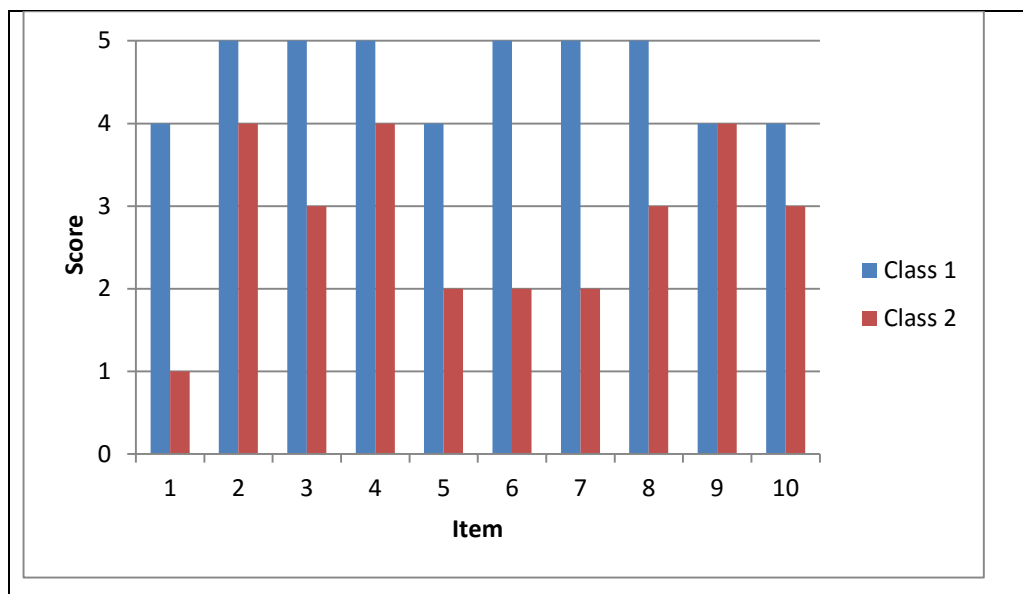


Figure 4.10 Scores by Item, Teacher Questionnaire Part 1, Classes 1 & 2, Term 3

4.1.1.7 Summary

Figures 4.11 and 4.12 summarise the changes in attitudes towards group cohesiveness in Classes 1 and 2 and how these classes compare in Terms 1 and 3.

Firstly it should be pointed out that the consistency of results for all 6 groups over the academic year and the correlation between these results and those of the Teacher Questionnaire confirms the reliability of the questionnaire.

Class 1, the example of the most cohesive group appears to grow and become more cohesive over the academic year, in contrast to Class 2, the example of a less cohesive group, where learners' perceptions of group cohesion remain unchanged over the year. Class 1 students appear to be more accepting of others in the group and are happy to work with all their classmates in contrast to members of Class 2 who state there are some classmates they would prefer not to work with.

<p align="center">How attitudes towards Group cohesiveness change in <u>Class 1</u> over the academic year. Attitudes of students and teacher</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Of 11 items, just under half score more than 4 out of a possible 5 (the most positive score) in Term 1 • In term 3, only 2 items score less than 4 i.e. scores are more positive in Term 3 than Term1. • All scores increase from Term 1 to Term 3, with the exception of item 6 (<i>If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class again</i>) • Highest scores remain constant from Term 1 to Term 3. (<i>Students strongly agree that the class is composed of people who get on well, that they are happy to work with all classmates, that they are satisfied with their class and strongly disagree that their classmates don't seem to care about each other</i>) • Lowest scores change from Term 1 to Term 3. Term 1 (<i>I know most of my classmates, I know the names of all my classmates</i>). Term 3 (<i>I know most of my classmates, If I had a choice I'd want to learn English in the same class again</i>) • Teacher questionnaire in general supports the students' perception of a cohesive group.
<p align="center">How attitudes towards Group cohesiveness change in <u>Class 2</u> over the academic year. Attitudes of students and teacher</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Of 11 items, none score more than 4 in Term 1. • In term 3, only 1 item scores more than 4 • Scores for 9 of 11 items increase in Term 3 with the exception of items 4 (<i>I am satisfied with my class</i>) and 11(<i>I feel anxious about speaking English in this class</i>) • Lowest scores remain constant from Term 1 to Term 3 (<i>I know most of my classmates, I know the names of all my classmates, I feel anxious about speaking English in this class</i>) • Highest scores change from Term 1 to Term 3. Term 1 (<i>Students are satisfied with their class, believe the class is composed of people who get on well and strongly disagree their classmates don't seem to care about each other</i>). Term 3 (<i>Strongly disagree their classmates don't seem to care and feel comfortable working in this class</i>) • Teacher questionnaire is positive but results for Term 3 are considerably less positive than in Term 1.

Figure 4.11 Attitudes towards Group Cohesiveness in Classes 1 and 2

Comparison of Class 1 and Class 2, Terms 1 and 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 9 out of 11 items score higher for Class 1 than for Class 2 in Term 1, 1 scores equally and 1 scores lower than Class 2 (<i>I know most of my classmates</i>) • In Term 1 the greatest difference between Classes 1 and 2 can be seen in the scores for item 10 (<i>There are some classmates I prefer not to work with</i>) which scores considerably higher for Class 1 than for Class 2. • In Term 3, Class 1 scores higher than Class 2 for all items with the exception of item 6 (<i>If I had a choice I would want to learn English in the same class again</i>). • In Term 3, scores for both groups increase but scores increase more for Class 1, and the difference between Class 1 and Class 2 scores is greater for 9 of 11 items than in Term 1.

Figure 4.12 Comparison of Class 1 and Class 2, Group Cohesiveness, Terms 1 and 3

4.1.2 The Questionnaire: Part 2

Part 2 of the questionnaire was designed to study classroom behaviour. As for part 1 of the questionnaire, results for each individual item of the student and teacher questionnaires, expressed as mean and standard deviation, are presented in Appendix 3.4 (Student questionnaire, term 1), 3.5 (Student questionnaire, term 3), and 3.6 (Teacher questionnaire, terms 1 and 3). Summated Likert scale analysis was used to add the mean scores of the individuals from each group and so allow groups to be ranked according to classroom behaviour believed to promote learning. A similar analysis was used to analyse the results of the teachers' questionnaire and these summated results for both students and teachers can be seen in Table 4.2.

Again there is a degree of consistency of results over the academic year and some correlation between results of the student and teacher questionnaire, although, less so than for Part 1 of the questionnaire. There is also a degree of consistency with the results of Part 1 of the questionnaire. The individual members of Ronnie's class, the group which rated itself as the second most cohesive group in part 1 of the questionnaire rate both the group and themselves as most often engaging in learning behaviours likely to lead to learning opportunities over the academic year on three of four occasions (Term 1 Group behaviour and Your behaviour). Class 1 scores highest on one occasion (Term 3, Your behaviour) and appears in 2nd or 3rd position on the other occasions.

Table 4.2 Summated Likert Analysis of Student and Teacher Questionnaires, Part 2, Terms 1 and 3

Group	Student questionnaire Term 1		Student questionnaire Term 3		Teacher questionnaire Term 1	Teacher questionnaire Term 3
	Your group	You	Your group	You		
Mary Class 1	39.9	40.6	38.9	42.8	39	37
Ronnie	41.3	42.4	40.3	41.4	32	36
Colin	40.2	39.9	38.4	41.4	34	32
Kate	37.9	38.7	39.8	42.4	33	36
Anne	35.9	37.9	35.3	38.7	32	32
Mary class 2	36.1	39.9	32.4	37.3	37	36

As for part 1 of the questionnaire, Anne’s class and Class 2 most often score lowest for Classroom behaviour, ranking last or second last on all but one occasion. As for Part 1 of the questionnaire, Mary again ranks Class 1 most positively in both terms, but now ranks Class 2 only slightly less positively in Terms 1 and 3. There therefore appears to be a degree of correlation between group cohesion for student questionnaires, as reported in Part 1 of the questionnaire and classroom behaviours in Part 2, with the groups which rated themselves as most cohesive (Ronnie’s class and Class 1) also rating themselves amongst the top scoring groups for appropriate classroom behaviour, and the groups rating themselves as least cohesive (Anne’s class and Class 2) similarly rating themselves as the groups who least often engage in learning behaviours believed to lead to learning. Some studies suggest that more cohesive groups perform better, however it is unclear whether cohesion improves performance, whether improved performance leads to greater cohesion or whether both occur (Levine & Moreland 1990: 605). Nonetheless, it is increasingly becoming accepted that learning opportunities are generated through learner agency described by Waring (2011: 201) as involving;

(...) the general principle that learning depends on the activity and the initiative of the learner – more so than any ‘inputs transmitted to the learner by a teacher or a textbook’.

Waring lists these initiatives as students asserting themselves, displaying knowledge, joking, persuading, and seeking and pursuing understanding (Waring 2011: 215), behaviours less likely amongst students who are suffering from language anxiety and who feel embarrassed or shy about speaking in front of their peers, such as Class 2.

4.1.2.1 Student Questionnaire, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3

Figure 4.13 below shows mean scores by item for students’ opinion of the group’s behaviour and their own individual behaviour for Class 1, term 1.

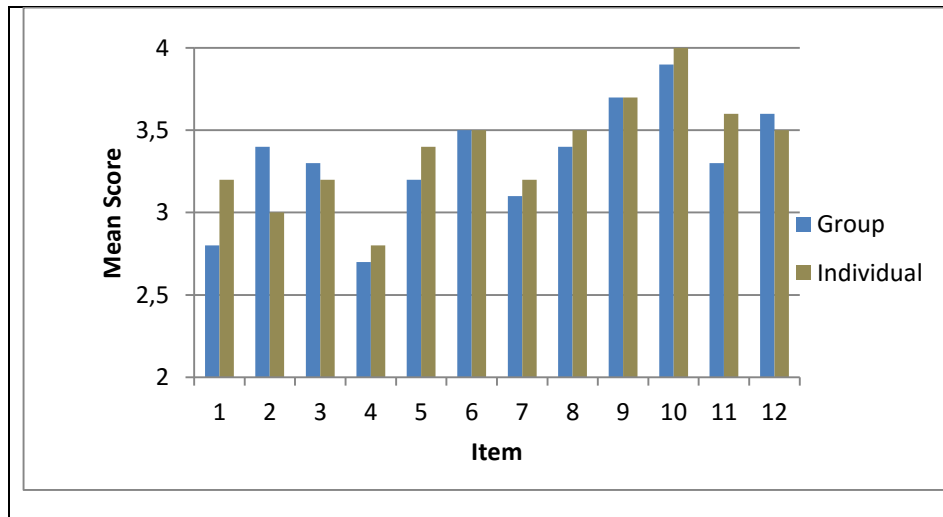


Figure 4.13 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 1, Term 1

Firstly it is obvious that the scores the individuals of this group attribute themselves and the group as a whole are similar. Individuals scored their behaviour higher than group behaviour in just under half the items (items 1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10 and 11), with the greatest difference being seen in item 1, where individuals rated themselves more likely to ask their colleagues for their opinions when discussing a topic. Individuals scored the group more highly in 3 items (*Help each other with the work*, *Participate fully when working with colleagues*, and *Happily work with anyone else in the class*) and scored individuals and the group equally for items 6 and 9 (*Fully participate in the class* and *Listen in class to what other people say*).

Figure 4.13 also shows that the highest scoring items for the individual's opinion of group behaviour were items 10 (*Listen to what the teacher says*), 9 (*Listen to what other people in class say*), and 12 (*Happily work with anyone else in the class*). For the individual's opinion of their own behaviour, the highest scoring items were again 10, 9 and 11 (*Come to classes regularly*), with item 12 ranking in 4th position along with items 6 (*Always try to answer the teacher's questions*) and 8 (*Ask the teacher when there are questions or problems*). The lowest scoring items for opinion of group behaviour were items 1 (*Ask my colleagues for their opinion when we are discussing a topic*) and 4 (*Correct classmates when they make a mistake*) and for the individual's opinion of their own behaviour, items 2 (*Help each other with the work*) and 4 scored lowest.

Class 1 students in term 1 rated both the group and themselves as most likely to listen to what their teacher and other people in the class say and to happily work with anyone else in the class. Listening to, and happily working with others are both characteristics of cohesive groups. Listening to others in the group is clearly the first step towards accepting and getting to know others. If we are unwilling to listen to what others have to say, if there are no open lines of communication, then relationships will not be formed and the group will remain incohesive and fragmented. The concept of 'holding' in psychoanalysis, which can be 'as concrete as a long hug or as abstract as the rock steady reliability of a good psychotherapist in the face of a client's rage' (Ehrman and Dornyei 1998: 223-224), is applied as a metaphor for interpersonal security between two individuals. Attentive listening is a form of holding which may exist between two individuals in a language learning classroom and which promotes the secure conditions necessary for individuals to explore the language, make mistakes and learn. It is an integral part of creating the conditions in which individuals feel sufficiently comfortable with their classmates to 'have a go' and not worry about others ridiculing them for their attempts. Hadfield (1992: 8) reports that results of a teacher questionnaire on problems involved in the teaching /learning process reported 'students who didn't listen to each other' as a feature of groups which 'didn't gel', yet another reason to believe that Class 2 are indeed an example of a less cohesive group. Students in class 1 also rated both themselves and others as being unlikely to correct their classmates'

mistakes. Since the 1990s there has been a greater awareness in the field of second language learning that a focus on form is necessary. In a study in 1993, Carroll and Swain (1993) found that oral corrective feedback was more effective than no feedback at all and Katayma (2007: 61), in a study on university learners of Japanese found that approximately 93% wanted their teacher to correct their errors in speaking Japanese, and did not consider it face threatening. However, only 63% favoured peer correction, feeling that their classmates were incapable of providing accurate correction. It is also true that the teacher, as ‘the language expert’ has a certain legitimacy in the classroom to correct errors which peers do not have, and therefore peer correction could be considered face threatening. This point is further explored in section 4.2 on student interviews. Finally it is interesting to note that members of Class 1 scored others as likely or more likely to engage in behaviours which could lead to language learning opportunities in just under half of the questionnaire items. This would indicate a generally positive attitude towards their fellow classmates, with group members perceiving others as having similar behaviours in class to themselves. Perceived similarity to others often leads to a sense of liking among group members leading to group cohesion and it may also be true that perceiving others as ourselves leads us to include them in the positive evaluations we attribute to ourselves (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 138).

Figure 4.14 shows mean scores by item for students’ opinion of the group’s behaviour (Group) and their own individual behaviour (Individual) for Class 1, term 3.

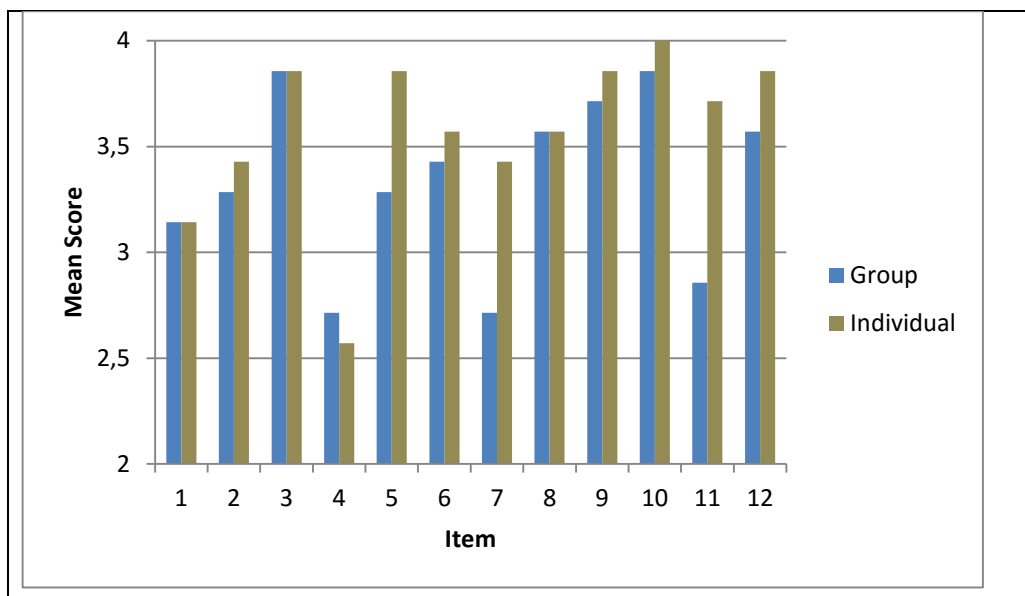


Figure 4.14 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 1, Term 3

These results in general show consistency between the results for Class 1 in term 1 and term 3. Firstly, as for Term 1, students again rate the group most highly for listening to what the teacher and others say (items 9 and 10) and happily working with others (item 12). In contrast to term 1, they now rate the group as being very likely to participate fully when working with colleagues (Item 3). Again there is a similarity between the highest scores for the individual with items 3, 9, 10 and 12 ranking amongst the highest scoring items for the individual's behaviour, as was the case in term 1. Again, similarly to term 1 the students in class 1 consider both the group and themselves as being least likely to correct classmates when they make a mistake, although they now also think it unlikely that others in the group will speak only English in the class all the time (Item 7). One point to highlight is that very little difference can be seen between values from term 1 to term 3. Values for group behaviour remain steady overall or rise slightly in term 3, with the exception of items 7 and 11 (*Regularly come to class*) which fall slightly in Term 3. Values for the individual again remain steady or rise slightly in term 3 with the exception of item 4 (*Correct classmates when they make a mistake*) which falls slightly. One minor difference is that in Term 3 individuals in the class seem to regard their fellow classmates in a slightly less positive light than term 1 as they now only score item 4 more highly for the group than for themselves, whereas in Term 1 students scored a total of 3 items more highly for the group than the individual.

4.1.2.2 Teacher Questionnaire class 1, Terms 1 and 3

Figure 4.15 compares the teacher's opinion of classroom behaviours of the students in class 1 for terms 1 and 3. It shows that for half the items (items 1, 2, 6, 8, 9 and 10) the teacher judged behaviours to be equally positive in Terms 1 and Term 3. The items which scored highest in Term 1 were 3, (*Participate fully when they work with colleagues*), 6 (*Always try to answer the teacher's questions*), 7 (*Speak only English in the class all the time*) and 11 (*Come to class regularly*), although scores for items 3, 7 and 11 fell slightly in Term3. Scoring for Item 6 remained high in Term 3, and that of item 12 (*Happily work with anyone else in the class*) rose to the maximum score. Lowest scoring items were 5 in Term 1 (*Ask for clarification when they don't understand a classmate*), and item 4 in Term 3 (*Correct their classmate when they make a mistake*). These results correspond to the positive scores attributed by Class 1 students to the group, and the lowest scoring items are the same for both teacher and students.

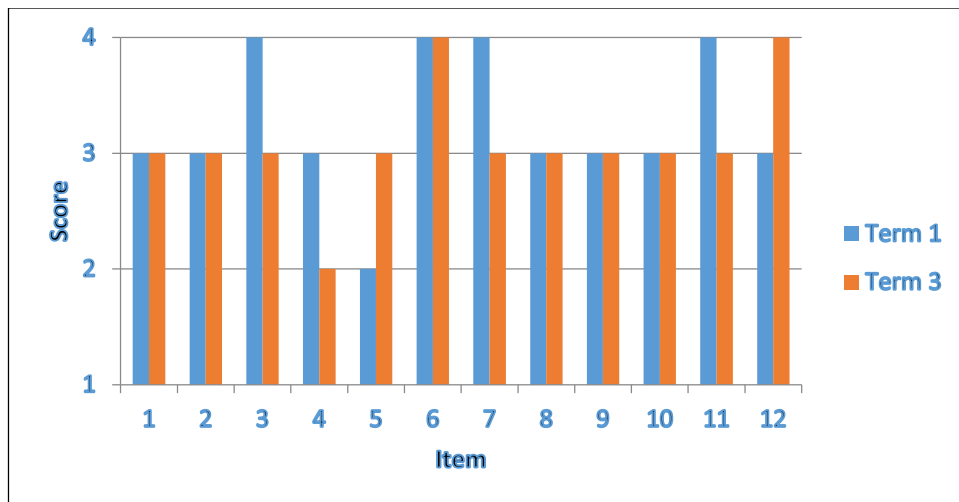


Figure 4.15 Scores for Teacher Questionnaire Part 2, Class 1, Terms 1 and 3

4.1.2.3 Student Questionnaire, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3

Figure 4.16 shows mean scores by item for student's opinion of the group's behaviour and their own individual behaviour for Class 2, term 1. What is immediately obvious is that students in this group rate themselves higher than the group in general for all 12 items. This is consistent with the less cohesive nature of this group, the individual members of which see themselves and others as different.

In this case members of this group judge their fellow classmates as being less likely to engage in behaviours likely to lead to language learning, that is, they regard themselves in a more positive light than they do their classmates. It is true that we tend to look more positively on people we judge to be similar to us and to feel more similar to people we like. The fact that members of this classroom believe their fellow classmates have different learning behaviours to themselves would confirm that they look on their classmates less positively than students in Class 1. It has also been suggested that shared attitudes towards a third party, in this case the activity of language learning, are also likely to promote feelings of affiliation (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 113). Here, the perception of similar attitudes amongst group members towards language learning, suggested through similar behaviours in the classroom, would indicate a greater affiliation amongst members of the group. However this is not the case. For every item, the individual scores himself more highly than the group in general, suggesting a lack of affiliation amongst group members, which would be expected in a less cohesive group.

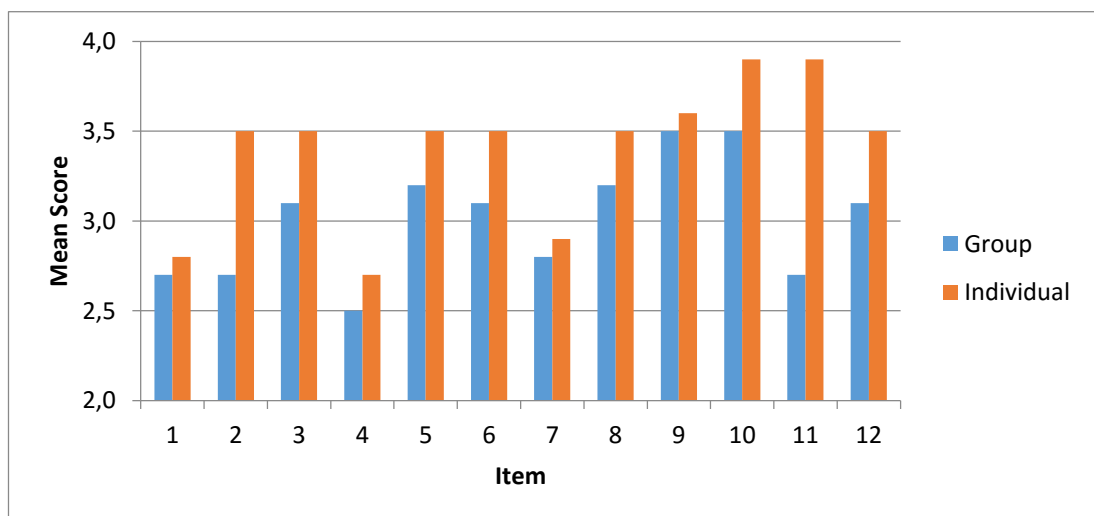


Figure 4.16 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 2, Term 1

Interestingly the items which scored highest and lowest for the group and students' individual behaviour correspond to the same items for Class 1, term 1. Items 9 and 10 score highest for group behaviour, and 9, 10 and 11 for individual behaviour. Similarly the behaviours students believe the group are least likely to engage in are those described in items 1 and 4 (and also item 2 – *Help each other*

with the work) and those they believe they themselves are least likely to engage in are also those described in items 1 and 4, as for Class 1. However, when these results for term 1 are compared to the results for term 3 seen in Figure 4.17, it is evident that scores for both individual and group behaviour decrease in Term 3 with 9 items having lower scores in relation to group behaviour and all scores of items but one decreasing for individual behaviour when compared to term 1. The highest scoring items in Term 3 for the group and individual are items 10 and 11 (*Listen to the teacher* and *Come to class regularly*), with the lowest scoring items for both group and individual being items 4 and 7 (*Correct classmates when they make a mistake* and *Speak only English in class all the time*).

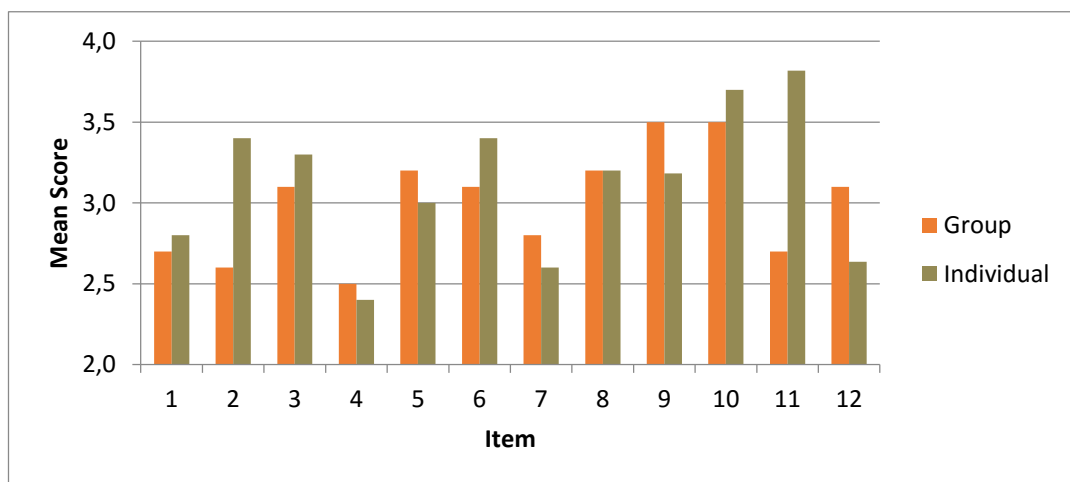


Figure 4.17 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Class 2, Term 3

According to Ehrman and Dornyei's model of classroom group development, (1998), during the first stage of group formation, individual members are unsure of others' acceptance and respect, and are on their best behaviour. In the second stage of transition, conflicts can occur amongst group members as they work to overcome personal differences but over time, if groups move through this stage, they continue to the performing stage where they work as a cohesive group. This does not seem to be the case for Class 2, who as time progresses see their fellow classmates' behaviours in a less positive light. Class 2 is an example of a more fragmented group where students see each other as a collection of individuals rather than a group.

4.1.2.4 Teacher Questionnaire, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3

Although students in Class 2 scored both themselves and other class members less positively in Term 3 for classroom behaviours, it can be seen in Figure 4.18 below that this is not the case for the teacher, who rates behaviours for both class 1 and class 2 similarly over the academic year. As can be seen, scores for 8 items (1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11) remain equally positive over the year, with scores for items 6 (*Fully participate in the class*) and 12 (*Happily work with anyone else in the class*) being the highest scoring items in Term 1, although the score for item 12 drops in Term 3 in line with the teacher's more negative view of this group towards the end of the academic year. In term 3 the highest scoring items are item 6 and item 3 (*Participate fully when they work with colleagues*). Similarly to Class 1, the lowest scoring items in both term 1 and 3 are items 4 and 5. So interestingly, although the teacher feels that this group is a much less cohesive group in Term 3, she judges their learning behaviours similarly across the academic year and comparison of figures 4.15 and 4.18 shows how the teacher judges classroom behaviours similarly for Class 1 and Class 2.

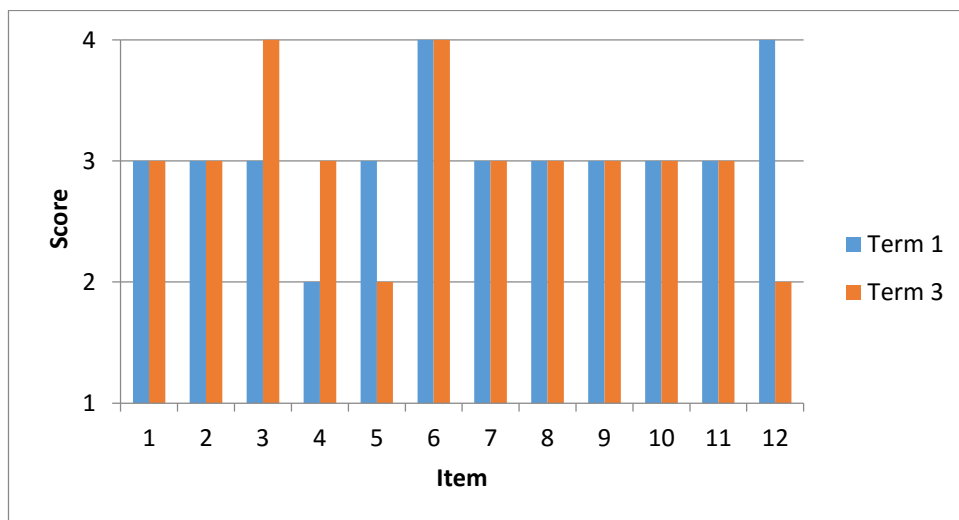


Figure 4.18 Scores for Teacher Questionnaire, Part 2, Class 2, Terms 1 and 3

4.1.2.5 Student questionnaire, Classes 1 and 2, Terms 1 and 3: The Individual

Finally let us consider how class 1 and 2 compare for individual and group scores for terms 1 and 3. Figure 4.19 compares students' evaluation of their own behaviour for Class 1 and 2 in term 1, and figure 4.20 compares the same criteria in term 3. Figure 4.18 allows us to see more clearly that the individuals of Class 1 and 2 in fact evaluate their own learning behaviours similarly in term 1. However, although the individuals of Class 1 judge themselves equally or more positively than those of Class 2 in eight of the items in term 1, by term 3 they judge themselves equally or more positively in all but one of the items (*Come to classes regularly*). This is due to the fact that in term 3, scores for Class 1 rose or remained stable for 11 of the 12 items, whereas for Class 2, values for 11 of the 12 items fell, with the other (Item1) remaining stable, i.e. individual members of Class 2 perceive that their own use of appropriate class behaviours decreases over the academic year.

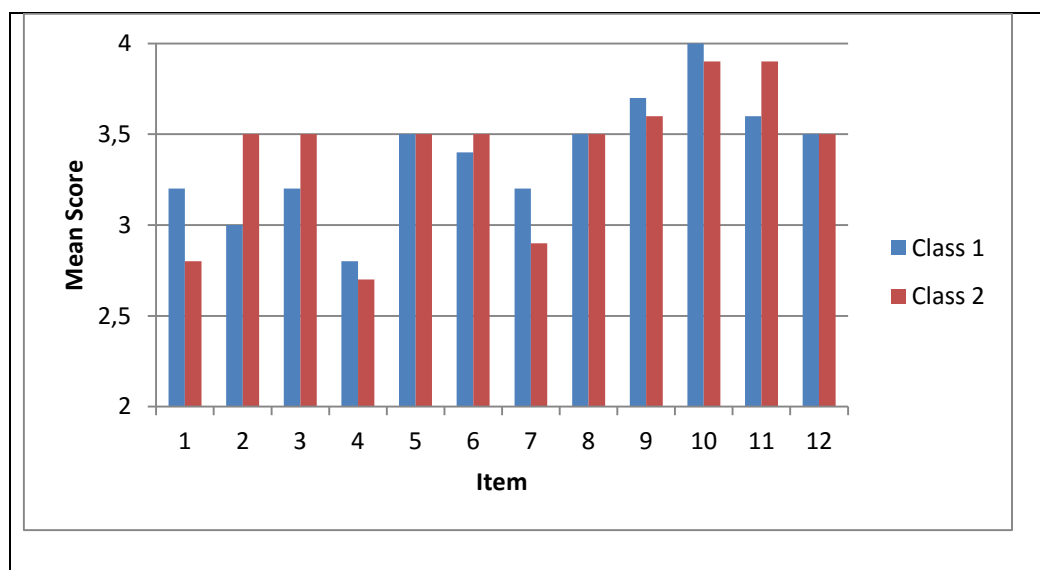


Figure 4.19 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 1: The Individual

In term 1 the highest scoring items for Class 1 and Class 2 are the same, these being items 9,10 and 11 (*Listen to what other people say, Listen to what the teacher says, Come to class regularly*) as is the lowest scoring item, item 4, (*Correct classmates when they make a mistake*). However in Term 3, whereas items 9, 10 and 11 continue to score highly for both groups, items 3, 5, and 12 (*Participate*

fully when working with colleagues, Ask for clarification when we don't understand each other, and Happily work with anyone else in the class) now score highly for Class 1. The same however is not true for Class 2.

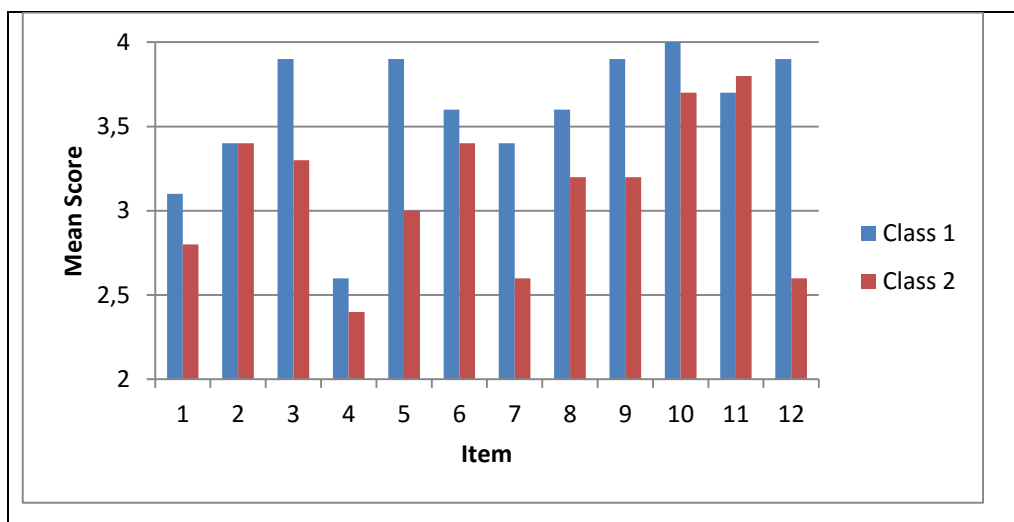


Figure 4.20 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 3: The Individual

As for the lowest scoring items, although both groups continue to attribute the lowest score to the item referring to correction of classmate's mistakes, Class 2 also attribute a low score to items 7 and 12. Figure 4.20 shows that the greatest differences in term 3 between Class 1 and Class 2 scores lie precisely in ratings for these two items (7 and 12), related to their perceptions of their own opinion of themselves speaking English in class all the time and whether they happily work with everyone else in class.

4.1.2.6 Student Questionnaire, Classes 1 and 2, Terms 1 and 3: The Group

Figures 4. 21 and 4.22 show the opinions of Class 1 and Class 2 students of group classroom behaviours in Terms 1 and 3.

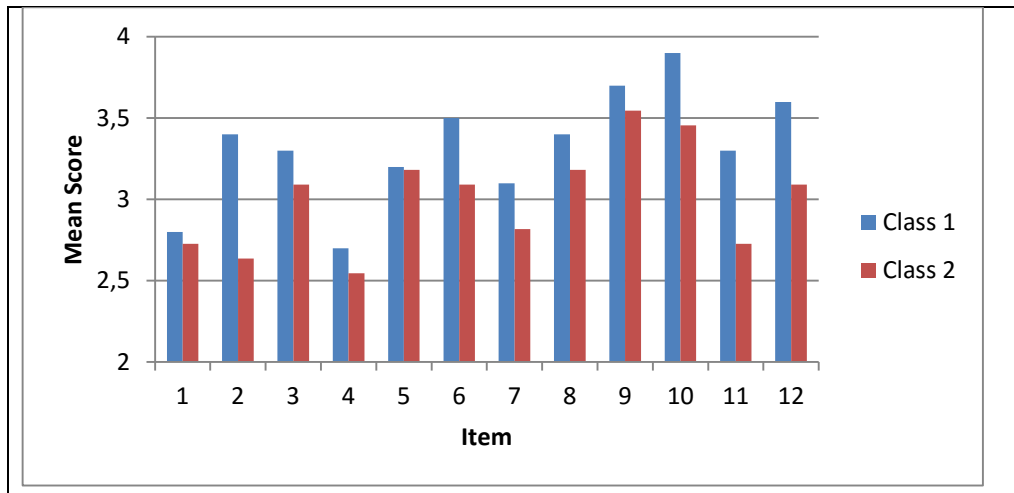


Figure 4.21 Mean Scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 1: The Group

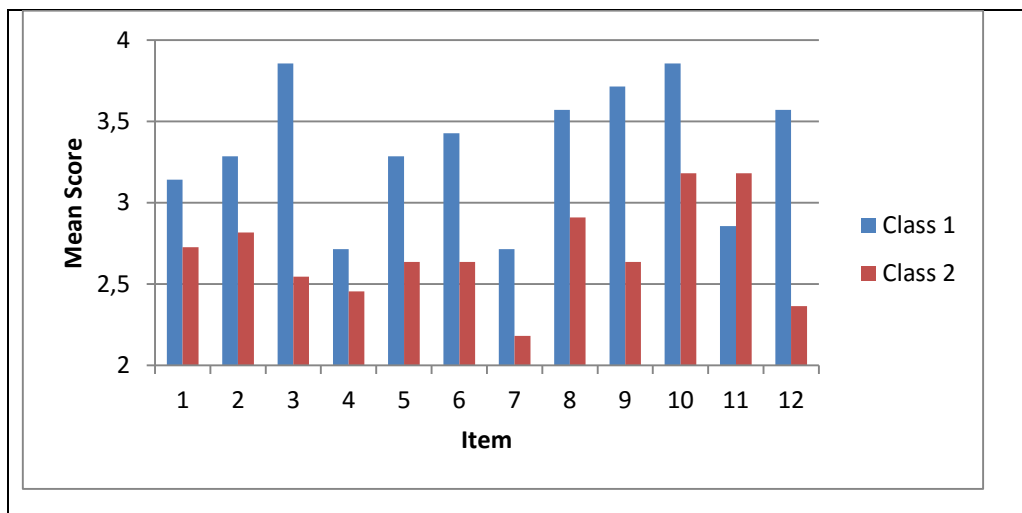


Figure 4.22 Mean scores by Item, Student Questionnaire Part 2, Classes 1 and 2, Term 3: The Group

Figure 4.21 shows that in term 1, the individuals in Class 1 consistently rate fellow group members more highly for each one of the 12 criteria than students from Class 2, and although in term 3 one item is scored more highly for Class 2 than for Class 1 (Item 11, *Come to classes regularly*), the disparity between scores for Classes 1 and 2 increases in term 3, as values for Class 2 tend to drop (9 from a total of 12) whereas scores for Class 1 tend to increase or remain stable (8 from a total of 12). Again in term 1, individuals from both classes rank items similarly believing that the group listens to what other people and the teacher say (Items 9 and 10) and happily work with anyone else in the class (Item 12). Again item 4 related to correcting the mistakes of others scored lowest for both groups. In term

3, whereas Class 1 continue to rate items 9, 10 and 12 highly, items 3 (*Participate fully when working with colleagues*) and 8 (*Ask the teacher when there are questions or problems*) were also rated highly. However, for Class 2, the highest scoring items are 10 and 11. In term 3, items 4 and 7 (*Correct classmates when they make a mistake* and *Speak only English in the class all the time*) score lowest for Class 1. Interestingly items 7 and 12 (*Speak only English in the class all the time* and *Happily work with anyone else in the class*) now scored lowest for Class 2, suggesting there could be a relationship between group members not speaking English and a disinclination to work with these students.

4.1.2.7 Summary

Figures 4.23 and 4.24 provide a summary of how students and teacher perceive classroom behaviours to change for both classes over the academic year and highlights some of the main differences between groups.

Class 1 students perceive that both they themselves and other class members display similar classroom behaviours throughout the year which could lead to learning whereas the members of Class 2 judge themselves much more favourably in this respect than the group as a whole. These more negative sentiments on the part of Class 2 students could be related to the anxiety they claim to feel throughout the academic year in relation to speaking English or to the existence of problematic students in the group which in some way impedes the group becoming cohesive. Having established which groups are most and least cohesive, the following section on teacher and student interviews attempts to gain a greater understanding of why this is the case.

How perceived classroom behaviours change in Class 1 over the academic year.
Attitudes of students and teacher
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Term 1, of 12 items, 10 score 3 or more out of a possible 4 (the most positive score), for evaluation of group behaviour, and 11 score 3 or more for evaluation of their own behaviour. • In Term 3, 9 items score 3 or more for evaluation of group behaviour and 11 for evaluation of their own • Between Terms 1 and 3, the scores of 4 items increase in relation to group behaviour and 4 decrease, with 9 increasing for individual behaviour and 2 decreasing i.e. scores for group behaviour fluctuate slightly with those for individual behaviour increasing slightly. • In Term 1, Class1 score the group equally or more positively than the individual for 5 items. In Term 3 this value falls to 4, although scores are similar in both terms. • Highest scoring items for the group remain constant from Term 1 to Term 3 (Items 9 , 10 and 12 - <i>Listening to what the teacher and others say and happily working with others</i>), as do the highest scoring items for the individual (<i>Participating fully when working with colleagues</i>), plus items 9, 10 and 12). • Lowest scoring item for the group and individual in both terms is item 4 (<i>Correct classmates when they make a mistake</i>) • The Teacher questionnaire confirms the generally positive attitude of Class 1 students in relation to classroom behaviours.
How perceived classroom behaviours change in Class 2 over the academic year.
Attitudes of students and teacher
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Term 1, of 12 items, 7 score 3 or more from a possible 4 (the most positive score), for evaluation of group behaviour, and 9 score 3 or more for evaluation of their own behaviour. • In Term 3, only 2 items score 3 or more for evaluation of group behaviour and 8 for evaluation of their own behaviour i.e. individuals rate their own behaviour in the classroom similarly from Term 1 to Term 3, but rate the behaviour of fellow classmates considerably less positively in Term 3. • Between Terms 1 and 3, the scores of 9 items decrease in relation to group behaviour and 2 increase. For individual behaviour, the scores of all but one item decreases. • In Terms 1 and 3, Class 2 consistently score the group more positively than the individual for all items, with the exception of item 4 (Term 2), which is scored equally for both the individual and the group. • Highest scoring items for Class 2 for both the individual and group in Term 1 are items 9 and 10 (<i>Listen to what the teacher and others say</i>). In Term 3 the highest scoring items for both the individual and group are items 10 and 11 (<i>Listen to what the teacher says and Come to class regularly</i>) • Lowest scoring items for the group and individual in both terms are items 4 and 7 (<i>Correct classmates when they make a mistake and Speak only English in class all the time</i>). • The teacher judged behaviours of Class 2 students positively

Figure 4.23 Attitudes towards Classroom Behaviours, Classes 1 and 2

Comparison of Class 1 and Class 2, Terms 1 and 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Term 1, Class 1 scored 11 of 12 items more highly for evaluation of group behaviour than Class 2, but only 4 more highly for evaluation of individual behaviour. • In Term 3, Class 1 again scored 11 of 12 items more highly for evaluation of group behaviour and also scored 10 more highly for evaluation of individual behaviour when compared to Class 2. • The teacher judged behaviours of Class 1 and Class 2 students similarly over the academic year.

Figure 4.24 Comparison of Class 1 and Class 2, Classroom Behaviours, Terms 1 and 3

4.2 The Interviews

Having selected Class 1 and Class 2 as examples of cohesive and less cohesive classes respectively through the use of both student and teacher questionnaires, only tapescripts of interviews with students from these classes (four students from Class 1 and three from class 2), were transcribed and analysed, as were the interviews with Mary, the teacher of both classes. These recordings can be found on the CD which accompanies this volume. It is important to remember that no claim is being made that these interviews are representative of the views of either group, merely that they give an indication of the feelings of the individuals interviewed, which may or may not reflect the feelings of the group as a whole. Having established which groups consider themselves cohesive and least cohesive, these interviews aim to provide a window onto what happens in these classes and how learners feel, although the frequency with which all respondents hold similar views on a particular topic could reflect the extent to which this view is held by others in the group.

4.2.1 Class 1

After careful reading and re-reading, the four transcribed interviews of learners in Class 1 were coded into three major descriptive thematic coding concepts which developed naturally out of the themes of the interview questions. These were:

1. Positive and negative affective behaviours, defined as behaviours in interaction which could encourage or discourage a positive social dimension within the group

respectively. For example, working with all other students in class is considered positive affective behaviour whereas always sitting at the same table is considered a negative affective behaviour as it suggests a possible reticence to mix with other students.

2. Positive and negative sociocognitive behaviours, defined as behaviours in interaction which could promote learning. Examples of positive sociocognitive behaviour are answering questions in class and correcting others in interaction. An example of negative sociocognitive behaviour would be students who don't want to learn from others.

3. Positive and negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes defined as emotions, beliefs and attitudes which promote positive sociocognitive and affective behaviours or negative sociocognitive and affective behaviours respectively.

These three major concepts were then further subdivided into categories and subcategories which give examples of learner behaviour and affective orientation identified. Those stated by at least half the respondents in Class 1 can be found in Table 4.3. As can be seen, learners mentioned many more positive affective and sociocognitive behaviours, and positive emotions, beliefs and attitudes than negative, as would be expected. Out of a total of 29 subordinate categories, 25 reflect positive behaviours, emotions beliefs and attitudes with only 4 reflecting negative aspects. This is also in agreement with the teacher's interview responses presented in table 4.4.

4.2.1.1 Positive and Negative Affective Behaviours

Here two categories were identified, interpersonal contact and engagement with activities. Lutz, Guthrie and Davis (2006: 3) define engagement in learning as students 'behavioural, cognitive, affective and social involvement in instructional activities with their teachers and classmates'. Here, engagement with activities is considered an affective behaviour, although it could equally be considered a cognitive behaviour. The two categories identified here, interpersonal contact and engagement with activities are related. Here, interpersonal contact represents the degree to which learners interact with others, how well they know others and their

affective behaviour while interacting. Engagement with activities represents the effort learners then make to achieve a task when interacting with others. According to Brown (2000: 46) physical proximity leads to greater frequency of interaction and is believed to promote greater group cohesion, and Ehrman and Dornyei (1998: 142) state that time spent together, proximity, contact and interaction are important factors in promoting group cohesiveness. Interpersonal contact therefore is of extreme importance in the formation of cohesive groups, and it is interesting to note that all 4 learners questioned claim they work with all other students in the group and that all students in the group worked well together. Similarly all four believe they themselves, and others participate fully in oral tasks. This is important as commitment to task is thought to be another important factor in group cohesion (Mullen & Copper 1994). This commitment then leads to group members investing more energy to achieve goals and participating more actively in interaction (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 141). It is interesting to note however that of the 4 group members interviewed, only two said they knew the names of all the other students in class and all but one always sat at the same table, but as the class teacher explains:

Yes, although (...) it was evident that there were certain little, cliques, they did like to sit in the same place and worked very well in those groups and we did have mingling activities and changing partners and they would work very well in those circumstances but they still had their preferred groups.

And further develops:

I think there was quite a high energy level and the fact that they would participate so actively in communicative exercises, I mean, some exercises that I would anticipate taking 3, 5 minutes, and 10 to 15 minutes later they could still be talking about things [laughs] (...).

Another interesting point raised by the teacher in relation to affective behaviours is the use of humour in class 1.

And a very humorous group, you know they're always making jokes and things.

Play in language learning classrooms where play is related to having fun, is considered by Waring (2013) as a useful resource for language learning and Senior (2001) reports that teachers use humour to create a cohesive atmosphere.

Table 4.3 Class 1 Learner Interviews. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories. Subordinate Categories in Italics- where all participants agree.

<p>Concept: Positive Affective Behaviours</p> <p>Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Ask others for help, <i>help each other</i>, help by providing word, synonym or antonym, <i>work with all others</i>, <i>self and others work well together</i>, all students work well together, plan social events outside class, invite others to participate</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: <i>Self and others fully participate in oral tasks</i></p>	<p>Concept: Negative Affective Behaviours</p> <p>Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Always sit at same table, don't know names of others.</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: None</p>
<p>Concept: Positive Sociocognitive Behaviour</p> <p>Category: Error correction Subordinate categories: Correct others, call for teacher to clarify correction, <i>learn for own mistakes</i>.</p> <p>Category :Interaction Subordinate categories: Answer questions in class, <i>ask colleague or teacher when fail to understand</i>, try to guess unknown words in oral interaction.</p>	<p>Concept: Negative Sociocognitive Behaviour</p> <p>Category: Error correction Subordinate categories :None</p> <p>Category: Interaction Subordinate categories: None</p>
<p>Concept. Positive emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: Have good relationship with others, <i>believe group atmosphere is positive</i>, believe working together is important for learning, <i>feel positive about lessons</i>, motivated, <i>and consider themselves active learners</i>.</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: Happy to be corrected by colleagues, <i>believe oral interaction helps learning</i>, believe oral interaction leads to greater automaticity and less inhibition in speaking, believe they learn from others in oral interaction.</p>	<p>Concept: Negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: None</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: Feel nervous when being assessed, feel nervous when not prepared.</p>

Table 4.4 Class 1 Teacher Interview. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories

<p>Concept: Positive Affective Behaviours</p> <p>Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Students work well together</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: Participate actively in communication activities</p>	<p>Concept: Negative Affective Behaviours</p> <p>Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Students have preferred groups.</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: None</p>
<p>Concept: Positive Sociocognitive Behaviour</p> <p>Category: Error correction Subordinate categories: Students correct each other in accuracy based activities</p> <p>Category :Interaction Subordinate categories: All students made an effort to speak in English,</p>	<p>Concept: Negative Sociocognitive Behaviour</p> <p>Category: Error correction Subordinate categories : Unsure as to whether error correction is common</p> <p>Category: Interaction Subordinate categories: None</p>
<p>Concept. Positive emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: Positive atmosphere in class, students all supportive of each other</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: Students are appreciative of error correction</p>	<p>Concept: Negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: Some students aware of their weaknesses, intimidated by stronger students</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: Some students embarrassed when doing presentations in front of class.</p>

Teachers further believe that humour is vital in the class to relax students and encourage participation, and that:

[...] in classes that have developed into cohesive groups, spontaneous whole-class laughter occurs with increasing frequency and serves to affirm the spirit of well-being and camaraderie within the class. (Senior 2001:52)

So the teacher's comments support learners' perceptions of their affective behaviours and give an insight into why this group perceives of itself as being cohesive.

4.2.1.2 Positive and Negative Sociocognitive Behaviours

Under the general concept of sociocognitive behaviour, two categories were identified, that of error correction and interaction. Again these are related in that both refer to behaviours learners employ when faced with a problem in the language learning classroom, for example a breakdown in communication or a doubt over accuracy. All participants agreed that they could learn from their own mistakes. As Beatriz says:

For example sometimes I listen to them and I can say my mistakes, if I heard how to say correctly, I eventually say correctly because I'm aware of how it says.

The teacher also feels that making and learning from mistakes is important when she says

[...] a positive learning environment can be created by praise and at the same time not making people be afraid to make mistakes.

And Miguel also mentions,

[...] I know when we talk we make mistakes, and with these mistakes we are all the time learning English.

These students appear to feel their language classroom is a secure environment where making mistakes is considered a normal part of language learning and accept the fact that they and others make mistakes. It would seem that these students have an open-minded attitude to interaction and learning, and group members regard one another with acceptance, or non-judgmental positive regard,

‘an attempt to understand the other in his or her own terms, not through the filters of one’s own constructs’ which is a necessary foundation for interpersonal trust (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 115) and group cohesion. As students trust each other they feel they can admit their own linguistic limitations and ask for and receive help from one another and the teacher. One caveat here would be the comments of Neema who suggests that she wouldn’t correct a colleague if she thought that person didn’t like being corrected. Another would be the comments of the teacher who was unsure as to whether learners helped each other to express themselves or correct each other, although she did admit that stronger students might occasionally correct others during accuracy based activities.

In conclusion, it would appear that although these 4 students’ statements suggest an open accepting environment in class where learners accept each other and feel comfortable to admit to weaknesses in their knowledge of language while interacting, this is not confirmed by the teacher who is unsure whether learners help or correct each other on a regular basis.

4.2.1.3 Positive Emotions, Beliefs and Attitudes

Attention to the area of affect is acknowledged as being important for better language learning, either by effectively handling negative emotions or stimulating positive emotions (Arnold 1999:2). However, calls have been made for greater attention to be paid to the wide range of emotions between people in language learning i.e. the social aspect of emotions, rather than focusing solely on individual intrapersonal aspects of emotions, such as anxiety, as has happened to present (Imai 2010: 279). This study hopes to go some way to addressing this issue by assessing learners’ interviews for positive and negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes. This concept was broken down into two categories; emotions, beliefs and attitudes in relation to themselves and others, and in relation to interaction. The first of these categories was the largest and consisted of a number of subordinate categories which all respondents agreed with, namely that they believed the group atmosphere was positive, that they felt positive about lessons and considered themselves active learners. The teacher agrees with these perceptions saying:

[...] they were all very supportive of each other and very, very enthusiastic, highly motivated class who made a lot of progress.

The fact that all 4 learners believe the group atmosphere is positive and also feel positive about lessons would suggest that they find the group experience rewarding. This could be because the class helps them achieve some goal, brings instrumental benefits or simply because they enjoy the activities, but for whatever reason, reward is an important factor in group cohesion and according to Levine and Moreland (1990) the more a group is rewarding to the members, the more cohesive it tends to be. However insight from the teacher reveals that emotions may not always be positive with Anna, a weaker student possibly feeling intimidated by stronger students and being aware of her weaknesses.

As for emotions, beliefs and attitudes in relation to interaction, 3 of the 4 students questioned state they believe they learn from interacting with peers. As Miguel says:

I think because when you are speaking with the teacher or with your partner we are all the times speaking in English and I think because of that we are learning and our phrase, and going out naturally, I think speak more natural with speak with our partner.

And Anna says in response to the question ‘What can you learn from your colleagues?’

From colleagues? When I have a doubt about the something, if he help me and it’s correct form, I accept, ‘Oh good.’

However, Miguel said he learns grammar from writing, not speaking and Neema feels she learns the mistakes of others during oral interaction. However she also mentions the importance of speaking by saying:

It’s important for me, it is, speaking with other students and activity that teacher gives us and speaking. It’s really important for me.

Lastly both the teacher and 3 of the 4 students mention feeling nervous or embarrassed when being assessed and although this may initially appear to be negative, it could be considered positively, as another factor which increases group cohesion is a shared threat or being in a common predicament. However, from the information supplied by these interviews it is impossible to determine if this anxiety

leads to greater overall group satisfaction or to more negative emotions in relation to lessons.

In conclusion, it appears that the ways learners perceive how they and their peers behave, and the emotions, beliefs and attitudes they express reinforces the idea achieved through the use of the questionnaire, that this is a cohesive group. The views of the teacher in general also support the ideas expressed by students.

4.2.2 Class 2

As for Class 1, the three interviews of learners in Class 2 were transcribed and coded into the same conceptual groupings as Class 1, and the behaviours, emotions beliefs and attitudes stated by two or more students can be seen in Table 4.5. Again it is important to remember that no claim is being made that these results are representative of the views of the group as a whole, but they may help illuminate why these students feel their group is less cohesive.

Table 4.5 shows that in contrast to results for Class 1, which showed many more positive aspects, results for Class 2 show that of a total of 18 subordinate categories, 12 reflect positive behaviours, emotions, beliefs and attitudes, but 6 reflect negative aspects i.e. one third of categories reflect negative aspects and again this is in agreement with the teacher's interview responses presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.5 Class 2. Learner interviews. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories

<p>Concept: Positive Affective Behaviours Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Help each other by providing a simpler word, <i>plan social events outside class</i>, sit in different places</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: Participate fully in oral tasks themselves</p>	<p>Concept: Negative Affective Behaviours Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Reluctant to work with all their colleagues, self or others don't work well together</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: Not all participate fully in oral tasks</p>
<p>Concept: Positive Sociocognitive Behaviour Category: Error correction Subordinate categories: Correct others, <i>call for teacher to clarify correction</i></p> <p>Category: Interaction Subordinate categories: <i>Ask colleague or teacher when fail to understand</i></p>	<p>Concept: Negative Sociocognitive Behaviour Category: Error correction Subordinate categories :None</p> <p>Category: Interaction Subordinate categories: None</p>
<p>Concept. Positive emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: Have a good relationship with others, <i>believe group atmosphere is positive, feel positive about lessons</i>, consider themselves active learners</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: Believe oral interaction helps learning.</p>	<p>Concept: Negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: Feel nervous/anxious in general, think younger students lack respect for others</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: Express doubt related to learning from peers.</p>

Subordinate categories in italics- where all participants agree.

Table 4.6 Class 2. Teacher Interview. Concepts, Categories and Subcategories

<p>Concept: Positive Affective Behaviours</p> <p>Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Students help each other</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: None</p>	<p>Concept: Negative Affective Behaviours</p> <p>Category: Interpersonal contact Subordinate categories: Not all students work well together, not all students happy to work with colleagues, 2 students who refuse to move seats</p> <p>Category: Engagement with activities Subordinate categories: Reluctance on the part of a minority of students (2) to engage fully in oral tasks</p>
<p>Concept: Positive Sociocognitive Behaviour</p> <p>Category: Error correction Subordinate categories: Students correct themselves</p> <p>Category :Interaction Subordinate categories: None</p>	<p>Concept: Negative Sociocognitive Behaviour</p> <p>Category: Error correction Subordinate categories : Little error correction of peers</p> <p>Category: Interaction Subordinate categories: None</p>
<p>Concept. Positive emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: Generally positive atmosphere in class</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: None</p>	<p>Concept: Negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes</p> <p>Category: In relation to themselves and others Subordinate categories: Some believe they learn the mistakes of others in oral interaction, teacher doesn't like having to spend more time with weaker group</p> <p>Category: In relation to interaction Subordinate categories: None</p>

4.2.2.1 Positive and Negative Affective Behaviours

In contrast to Class 1, it is clear in Class 2 that there is less interpersonal contact amongst the students than in Class 1 and some students appear to be reluctant to work with their colleagues, with some stating they or others do not work well together. When asked if she thought all the students worked well together, Mary the teacher says:

No. (Laughs). If I was to —I would say two thirds of the class yes, but there was that little group to the side [...]. Yes, so it's Olivia, Marta [...] Rute to a certain extent too. Sofia broke away from it [...] but Rute would sometimes—she would be happy to work with other people [...]. But you see Olivia would insist in sitting in that same place. I did move her once but then she said to me, I think, I can't remember the exact context but I think she came to me at the beginning of the next lesson and said 'Look I have to sit there because I get, otherwise I get a draught or I can't see the board,' that was it.

Olivia, herself when asked about seating says:

P: I, I prefer. I like my table (laughs).

I: Why?

P: Because the other people don't work, copy only the —, don't ask the teacher 'I don't understand'. All the people understand all, but is not really. When I ask they go too to hear the explanation.

I: So you think other people don't actually ask questions, but they don't understand.

P: No, no.

I: And when you don't understand do you ask?

P: I ask. I need to understand why the things do.

When asked if he thought all the students worked well together João says:

Not really, to be honest not really.[...] sometimes I think some of the students are in a jail [...] and don't want , communicate and learn with another [...] so some people stay in the, in their place and don't [...] change for example, each, each class, each lesson.

He also mentions that when these students in 'the cage' are asked to move seat, their reply is:

No, no, no, the answer is no, no, no. I'm good here and if some say, or suggest to change of seat it's almost a war and I guess that create a bad environment [...] but also, I guess, sometimes a lack of polite.

Although 3 of the 4 students questioned in Class 1 mentioned they preferred sitting at the same tables, and in fact, 2 of the 3 students questioned in Class 2 say they sit in *different* places, the question of seating in Class 1 was unproblematic, undoubtedly due to the fact that students showed a positive disposition towards working with others. This is not the case in Class 2 however. As stated by Olivia;

I don't like to work with the colleagues because they don't speak well English. I have many difficulty to understand them and I know. Show me I understand but when they speak I don't understand.

The teacher explains:

[...] it would be very, very rare that actually Olivia and Marta would be each other's partners (pause) in the same group, if there was a large group work, yes, but they would be maybe, so for example, with Rute or sometimes even Carlos would be sitting at that table [pause] but the problem would be that the other people at the table were always stronger and would dominate.

So although on the surface the reluctance to work with others is due to a sense of territory, the underlying reasons appear to be two; one, voiced by the teacher that the students concerned are weaker than others and one, voiced by the student, that she dislikes working with others and has trouble understanding them. This issue is inextricably linked to the perceived lack of engagement with activities on the part of some students and a lack of willingness to communicate. Mary explains that Olivia has a problem developing her ideas and if asked a question answers with one sentence, and João says, speaking of the students 'in the cage':

P: [...] the people who was in a, a cage, [...] they are a few, compare with the, the general class [...] maybe 25(%) or less.

I: Ok. Right, so do you think there are some people in this group who don't want to be very involved in oral interaction?

P: Yes, yes

I: The same 25%?

P: Yes, yes, because I I guess they have fear, to, to wrong [...] so it's, I guess, it's better don't talk, each talk, so when I'm , I am, when I was with them, I need push to talk.

However, another explanation for Olivia's lack of engagement is her fundamental belief that she doesn't learn English from interacting with colleagues because their level of English isn't sufficient. This opinion will be further developed in section 4.2.2.3.

The fact that there was a wide range of age groups in the class is highlighted by Sofia as being another reason for difficulties in working with peers. She mentions that it is more difficult to work together because younger students have 'different information and different knowledge' and states that those who are nearer in age are more likely to form groups, but if a table is made up of different age groups, they cope with the situation. Cohesion is often attributed to a sense of liking among group members and has been defined as the strength of the relationship between group members and the group itself. Individuals often like and form relationships with those they find similar to themselves in some way (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 136). The fact that differences in ages is highlighted by all three group members interviewed could be significant in that different age groups may have different interests, attitudes, beliefs, abilities and as Sofia mentions, different information and knowledge, and such differences in group composition could be a factor resulting in less group cohesion.

There are positive aspects of group members' affective behaviour, such as the fact that they believe they themselves participate fully in oral tasks (although Olivia's answers here are somewhat ambiguous in that she claims she gets fully involved in oral activities but also says she feels that oral interaction with peers is only useful if they know how to speak minimally well, and at this moment they should talk more with the teacher). Both students and teacher also believe they help each other, although Olivia equates helping to correcting, which according to herself and João can cause conflict and is further developed in 4.2.2.2.

As mentioned previously, groups do not start life as cohesive groups. They develop over time as the individual members get to know and respect each other

through interaction, but a lack of interaction can impede the development of group cohesion. Shaw (1981: 216-222) states that in highly cohesive groups there is more communication amongst members, group members are friendlier and more cooperative and that groups members exert greater levels of control and influence over the behaviour of members. Although it is true that both students and teacher alike admit that the majority of students in Class 2, approximately 75% of students, are willing to interact and contribute during oral interaction, the remaining 25% who reluctantly work with others, who are at times responsible for a negative atmosphere, who fail to engage in interaction and who ignore both the teacher's and classmate's requests to move are enough to lead to a perception of less cohesion in this group.

4.2.2.2 Positive and Negative Sociocognitive Behaviours

At first glance, a lack of negative sociocognitive behaviours and the presence of the positive sociocognitive behaviours 'calls for teacher to clarify correction', 'asks a colleague or teacher when fail to understand' and 'corrects others' would seem to be positive aspects of Class 2's cognitive behaviours. However scrutiny of learner comments reveals that these behaviours, which in Class 1 suggest acceptance of and a non-judgemental regard towards others can be a source of conflict in Class 2.

When asked how she tries to help others if they have a problem Olivia says:

P: Sometimes I says 'You don't say, for example water, you say what' (i.e. correcting pronunciation)

I: Ok, so you correct the other students.

P: Yes

I: Ok. And do other students correct you?

P: [pause]. Sometimes, but I am (laughs) teimosa. I don't remember.

I: Stubborn

P: When I am sure, I don't accept (laughs).

I: So do you not like other students correcting you or...? How do you feel?

P: Sometimes, but when I am sure I call the teacher.

I: Umm hmm. When you're not sure...

P: And I won (laughs).

In fact in the above exchange the interviewer initially misunderstands, believing that Olivia calls the teacher to clarify a situation, but it then becomes apparent that Olivia calls the teacher to prove her point, and the fact that she uses the word 'won' suggests she sees this as some type of contest with winners and losers rather than a joint learning process. On the contrary, João states that he has no recollection of any bad reaction to correction. Sofia however states it is not normal to correct others in class as they do not know how to correct properly.

For some members of the class, error correction is a contentious issue. There is little tolerance of the errors of others on the part of at least one student and a difficulty in accepting correction. This is in stark contrast to the students interviewed from Class 1, who all believed they learned from their mistakes. In conclusion, there is reason to believe that certain classroom behaviours in Class 2 are leading to the perception of less group cohesion.

4.2.2.3 Positive Emotions, Beliefs and Attitudes

In relation to the categories emotions, beliefs and attitudes in relation to themselves and others and in relation to interaction, the results of Class 2 were again different in some respects to those of Class 1. As for Class 1, all those questioned in Class 2 believed the group atmosphere was positive and all felt positive about lessons. Two of the three students interviewed considered they were active learners who asked the teacher and their colleagues for help but João considers himself to be a more passive learner than in the past because he has less time to study English outside class. When all three were asked if they thought they had a good relationship with the others in the group, all agreed to a certain extent, but all expressed reservations. Olivia's reply was 'More or less', Sofia replied that she had a better relationship with those who were nearer in age but admitted she also worked with younger group members, and João said he was afraid to talk to new students initially but made an effort and over time lost this fear.

As in Class 1, Sofia and João also admit to being nervous in class although in contrast to Class 1 where this nervousness is associated with assessed tasks, in Class 2 both João and Sofia say they are nervous by nature. However many more negative emotions, beliefs and attitudes are expressed by individuals in this group in relation to themselves than others. Olivia mentions being *angry* with others when they speak loudly and being *stubborn* in relation to error correction, both Olivia and Sofia mention a *lack of respect* for others on the part of younger members of the group, João mentions the students ‘in a cage’ have a *fear* of making mistakes, that they are *impolite* at times and implies they *victimise* (an) other class member(s) for whom he feels sorry. The teacher mentions Sofia had *no patience* for Olivia and Marta and moved groups and says she herself *didn't like* the fact she had to spend more time with this pair of learners. So, contrary to Class 1 where it would seem there is a certain positive regard for others, this acceptance of peers is lacking amongst some members of Class 2, which again could explain why this group is perceived by its members as being less cohesive.

Lastly, and again in contrast to Class 1, two of the students in the group imply they learn better from the teacher than their peers. Sofia says that in her group they try to share what the teacher is saying if someone fails to understand, and if they are not sure they call over the teacher. Olivia quite explicitly states that she does not believe she can learn from her peers. She comments:

I: Do you think that when you speak to your colleagues in English in groups, do you think that helps you to learn English? When you speak to colleagues?

P: No, no.

I: Why?

P: I don't like to work with the colleagues because they don't speak well English I have many difficulty to understand them and I know. Show me I understood, but when they speak I don't understand.

I: Umm hmm. Umm hmm, OK. So maybe this question. Do you think you can learn from your colleagues or you can only learn from the teacher?

P: I don't understand. What do you want?

I: A Olívia acha que consegue aprender Inglês através das colegas ou só da professora?

(Do you think you can learn English from your colleagues or only the teacher?)

P: Da professora.

(From the teacher)

And Mary mentions:

[...] and as she (Olivia) probably told you she felt (pause) she (pause), felt that she was not listening to correct English from (laughs), from other colleagues, she felt that she was maybe picking up bad English by listening to others.

4.2.3 Summary

To sum up, there appears to be a number of issues about which students in Class 1 and Class 2 differ in relation to the concepts of affective behaviour and emotions, beliefs and attitudes. The most important of these are shown in Figure 4.25.

Class 1	Class 2
Affective behaviours	
Work with all others Self and others work well together Self and others fully participate in oral tasks	Reluctance to work with all others Self or others do not work well together Not all participate fully in oral tasks
Emotions, beliefs and attitudes	
Believe they learn from peer interaction	Believe they learn from interaction with the teacher, not peers.

Figure 4.25 Principal differences between results for Class 1 and Class 2 interviews

From these results it could be hypothesised that the following process, seen in Figure 4.26 is taking place in Class 1. I would suggest that the first four stages

lead to a sense of group cohesion, as being willing to participate in group-activities and a predisposition to cooperate with each other, working easily with a variety of peers and actively participation in conversation have all been identified by Dornyei and Murphey (2003:63) as being characteristics of student behaviour in cohesive groups. On the contrary, Figure 4.27 shows the possible process taking place in Class 2. Here some learners interviewed suggest they learn from interacting with the teacher, not their peers. This could lead to a more negative attitude amongst some students towards peer to peer interaction, leading to a reluctance to work with others, a lack of full participation in oral tasks and an eventual perception of lower group cohesion. I would argue that this process is cyclical, rather than linear, as a stronger feeling of cohesion would result from and in a greater feeling of dependence and trust in peers, reinforcing the perception that students can learn from their peers. To more fully understand what exactly happens during interaction in these groups, we need to listen to and analyse those interactions and it is to these questions that I now turn my attention.

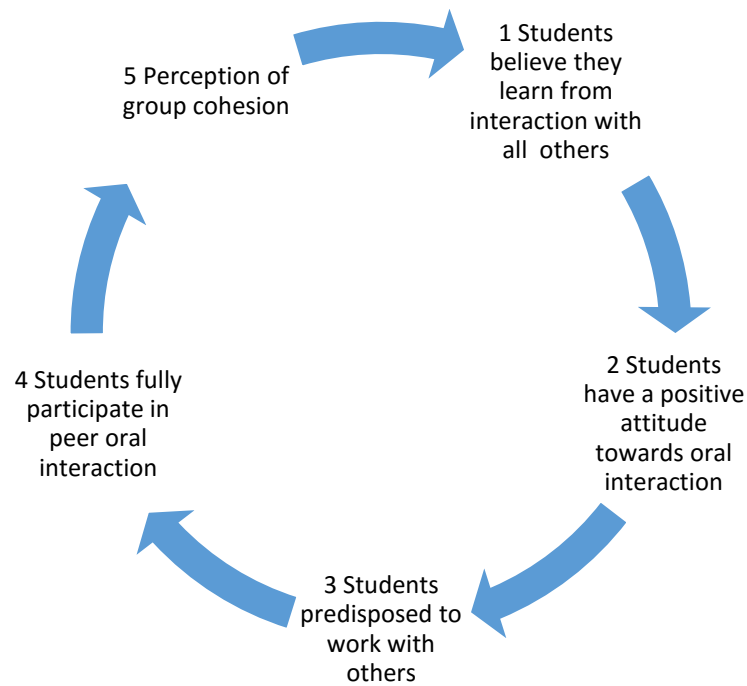


Figure 4.26 Possible group processes in Class 1

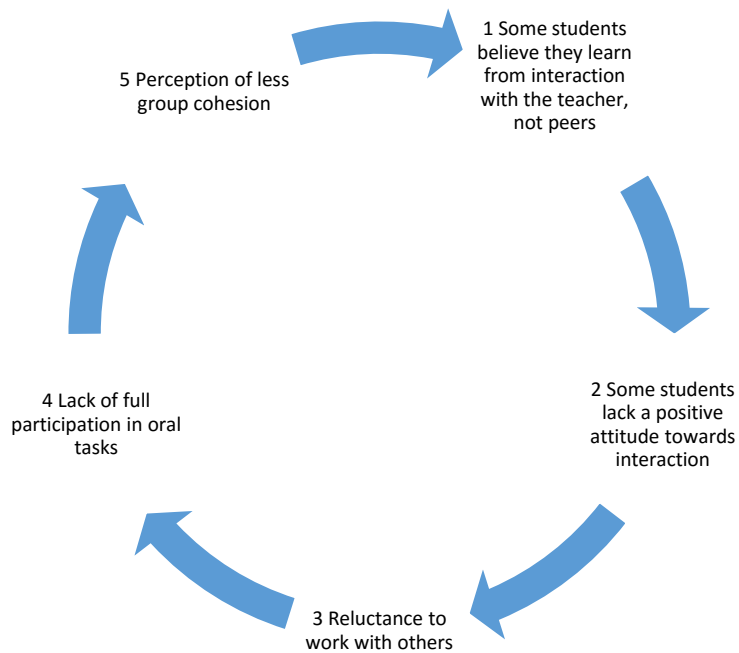


Figure 4.27 Possible group processes in Class 2

CHAPTER 5 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF PEER INTERACTION FOR SCAFFOLDING WHICH ATTENDS TO AFFECTIVE STATES

Having selected Mary's Class 1 and 2 as examples of the most and least cohesive groups respectively, recordings of these groups were transcribed and analysed qualitatively for talk which could encourage a positive social dimension. In term 1, Task 1, an error correction exercise, was completed in week 5, and Task 2 the first dictogloss task was completed in week 10. Section 5.1 shows a range of ways in which learners talked cohesion into being through interactions which could encourage a positive social dimension in these two tasks and 5.2 shows ways in which learner talk discouraged a positive social dimension during these tasks. In Term 2, three tasks in total were completed in weeks 3, 6 and 9. The first of these was a writing task using visual prompts (Bill's Timeline), the second a group discussion task on social networking (Socialising Discussion Task) and the third a group discussion task on national stereotypes (National Stereotypes Discussion Task). In term 3, three tasks again were completed in weeks 3, 7 and 9. The first was a discussion/error correction task, ('What if' Correction and Discussion Task), the second a focus on form discussion task (Tricky Situations Discussion Task) and the last, the final dictogloss task. These task types were explained in greater detail in section 3.3. Sections 5.3 and 5.4 highlight interactions which respectively encourage and discourage a positive social dimension while completing term 2 tasks, and sections 5.5 and 5.6 perform the same functions for term 3 tasks. This chapter ends with a summary in section 5.7. It is important to mention here that the B1 level students in this study overwhelmingly used L2 in peer interaction in contrast to results reported by other researchers (Edstrom 2015, DiCamilla and Anton 1997) who found that students relied heavily on L1 in oral interaction.

5.1 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Encourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 1.

In excerpt 1 (recording 2), Simão, Miguel (Mi), Madalena (M) and Beatriz in Class 1 are discussing an error correction exercise. We can see how Miguel tries to encourage a positive social dimension by declaring a consensus of opinion on line 13 and asking for the opinion of others on line 17. Line numbers shown are those from the original transcription and arrows indicate lines under discussion.

(1)

- 3 S think the the mistake is like in the verb (.) meet
4 B yes
5 S it must be
6 Mi met
7 S [met]
8 B [met] yes
9 Mi yes I met mark [for the first time] nine years ago
10 M ° [for the first time]°
11 B ° yes °
12 S ok
→ 13 Mi we agree all (.) in that
14 M (4) ° the second °
15 B yes the second (.) we immediately
16 M&B felt in love
→ 17 Mi (2) what do you think is (.) uncorrect
18 S we

The excerpt starts with Simão expressing his opinion that the error is in the verb tense. Beatriz agrees on line 4 and Miguel, Simão and Beatriz provide the answer in overlap on lines 7 and 8. This correction is further collaboratively established through Miguel's completion on line 9 and Beatriz's affirmative token on line 11. Simão then closes this sequence on line 12 with the sequence-closing third 'OK' (Wong and Waring 2010: 60), but before moving onto the next sentence Miguel announces a consensus of opinion on line 13. In addition on line 17 he invites the opinions of the others and focuses group attention on the task at hand. Both declaring a consensus of opinion and asking others for their contributions could be important in encouraging a positive social dimension. Firstly both

emphasise collaboration and group spirit. Miguel, on line 13 could have chosen to move the interaction on to the second sentence as Madalena does on line 14 but instead he utters the phrase ‘We agree all in that’. Here I would suggest that Miguel uses this phrase to highlight the accomplishment of the group in successfully working together and managing to reach a consensus of opinion on how to correct the sentence. It could also imply a certain degree of praise for group organisation and group productivity in successfully accomplishing the task, all of which could encourage a positive social dimension within this tetrad, and foster cohesion. Miguel’s utterance ‘What do you think is uncorrect?’ on line 17 again could foster a positive social dimension by inviting others to contribute their opinions, thereby throwing the floor open to any participant, which as an inclusive move, could be important in building group cohesion. It implies that Miguel is interested in the views of others and tolerant of their opinions.

In excerpt 2, from the same task, we can see Miguel sympathising with Beatriz’s opinion on line 43. This follows a sequence of disagreement as to how the phrase ‘We immediately fall in love’ could be corrected.

(2)

- 19 M °we immediately felt in love° (3) hm:
 20 B (1) yes, fe [we fell] in love
 21 M [it’s correct] no?
 → 22 B no! because it’s (.) we immediately fall in love
 23 S fall?
 24 B (.) °yes°
 25 Mi felt felt is a [feeling]
 26 B [yes]. felt in love
 27 Mi i felt in love
 28 M [NO:;! I ()]
 29 B > [i fall] in love i fall in love with you < (.) ° not i (.) fe:lt°.
 30 M no I felt
 31 Mi i hear (irritation) in your voice
 32 M in the past
 33 B in the past yes
 34 Mi (1) hm (.) is in the past
 35 M in the past it’s [correct]
 36 Mi [i felt in love]
 → 37 S [[i fell]]
 38 B >felt it’s feel (1) it’s the past of [feel]
 39 M [you feel] (.) I feel in love

- 40 B (1) °no°
 41 M ok
 → 42 B no falling in love
 → 43 Mi (3) i can understand what you're saying

On line 22 Beatriz declares that the correct expression is to fall in love. However although the others all agree the verb should be in the past, they disagree that the correct expression is fell, except Simão who agrees with Beatriz on line 37, but whose contribution appears to go unheard by the others. Beatriz restates her correction on line 42 which is followed by a pause of 3 seconds. Miguel follows this pause by sympathising with Beatriz's opinion, although not agreeing with it.

It is important to remember that this recording was made in week 5 of term 1 and learners would have spent a maximum of 12 hours over 4 weeks in each other's company. According to Shambaugh (1978, cited by Ehrman and Dornyei 2004: 103) group development involves cycles of feelings of closeness and separateness of members, with these phases decreasing in intensity as groups mature. One of the characteristics of phases of emotional distance is competitiveness and it would seem that this could explain the competitive almost hostile interaction seen in excerpt 2 and which is further explored in excerpts 12 to 15. During group formation individual members can be anxious and on their guard, trying to hide any signs of weakness, and as individuals cope with anxiety in different ways, the different interpersonal styles of group members often emerge at this stage, with some individuals being high in need for expressed power and others managing uncertainties through behaviour which could help affiliate them with other group members (Ehrman & Dornyei 2004: 111). I would suggest that Madalena and Beatriz here seem intent on proving their mastery of the second language. In contrast, Miguel (on line 43) favours affiliation behaviour, which again could strengthen affective bonds within this tetrad.

It is also interesting here that Miguel's contribution on line 43 follows a 3 second hesitation in the group interaction. Impoliteness, as explained by Leech (1983: 139) can be manifested by being silent at the wrong time. If interactants are engaged in conversation, silence is a sign of opting out of the conversation and a

delay is often understood to indicate that a dispreferred second part is forthcoming. Adjacency pairs are automatic sequences of utterances, for example:

a First part 'What time is it?'

b Second part 'Eight thirty'

Second parts are divided into preferred and dispreferred social acts, with preferred being the expected next act and dispreferred being the unexpected next act. Jefferson (1988, cited by Berger 2011: 292) suggested that speakers rarely allow silences of more than approximately one second, so the three second delay between Beatriz's statement of what she believes to be the best correction on line 42 and Miguel's second part on line 43 where he expresses understanding of Beatriz's position would suggest that the (unvocalised) dispreferred second part would again be disagreement with Beatriz. Miguel chooses to end this potentially embarrassing hiatus in the conversation by expressing understanding of Beatriz's position, which could be considered a manifestation of support for a fellow group member and a feature of cohesive groups (Ehrman & Dornyei 2004: 77), or could be explained as a move to save Beatriz's face and maintain her social status within the group.

Excerpt 3 shows how further discussion of the same question leads to Madalena asking if there is a mistake, only to be told by Beatriz on line 57 that all the sentences have a mistake, which Miguel confirms on line 60. Madalena then apologises, and as the conflict cannot be resolved at this stage, Miguel suggests moving on and completing the question later on line 66. This could be a way of helping the others manage the anxiety felt by members of newly formed groups, another useful strategy to promote positive affect in the group, or could simply be a task management move to improve group productivity and encourage group members to cooperate in accomplishing the task, another feature of cohesive groups (Ehrman & Dornyei 2004: 144).

(3)

57 B no (.) >they all have a mistake<
58 L1 (
59 M the all have ° ok ok°
→ 60 Mi (1) now you say they all have a mistake
61 M >ok ok sorry sorry<
62 S [so]
63 B [he] immediately felt in love
64 S i don't know [but]
65 M [but the] regular verb is felt?
→ 66 Mi [[we can]] make later (.) we can
67 B [[°yes°]]

In excerpt 4 (recording 3), Class 2 students Bernardo, Filomena, Irene and Ricardo are attempting the same task. It follows a sequence in which Bernardo suggests the correction of 'I'm interested to learning more English vocabulary' is 'I'm interested in learning more English vocabulary'. Filomena initially disagrees, but after Bernardo justifies his opinion by referring to the students' book and the example sentence, 'I'm interested in politics' she agrees that 'I'm interested in English vocabulary' is a possibility. Although this is not the form that Bernardo originally proposed he concedes that this correction is not wrong, (lines 242 and 244) thereby compromising his own opinion in favour of group consensus.

(4)

239 F <i'm interested in learning more english vocabulary> no!
240 maybe (1) you can say (.) i'm interested in (4) english
241 vocabulary.
→ 242 B (3) i think it's not wrong,
243 F hm:?
→ 244 B you can say that,
245 I [you can say it]
246 F [()]
247 B more english
248 F i think it sounds
249 B [better]
250 F [better] <I'm interested in (.) english vocabulary>
251 B cut the word ((general laughter))
252 I but we
253 F yes
254 B we can say we see it later

By compromising his own opinion, Bernardo is promoting a ‘we’ feeling in the group, and is promoting the accomplishment of the task and consensus of opinion within the group as a whole rather than his own personal opinion. That is, he is acting as a true team player.

This same conversation also involves incidences of light heartedness. Towards the end of the conversation (excerpt 5) where the group are working to correct the sentence ‘My dad gave me a lift because it was rain hard’, Irene uses the idiomatic expression ‘raining cats and dogs’ (line 332), which causes laughter amongst group members.

(5)

- 329 B you can say i like the rain ((laughs))
330 F yes (1) ((B laughs))
331 B it rains a lot
→ 332 I it rains dogs and cats ((smiley voice))
333 B ((B laughs)) °dogs and °
334 F cats and dogs
335 I cats and dogs ((laughs))
336 F it’s raining cats and dogs yes (3) we’re done.

This exchange occurs at what Markee (2004: 584) terms a zone of interactional transition (ZIT) which occur ‘when teachers and learners make the transition from one speech exchange system to another’ and suggests problems such as off task talk can arise at such places in the interaction. In extract 5, having finished the task it would appear that Irene fills this ZIT by ‘doing being playful’ which Waring defines as ‘stepping into an alternative world unfettered by the roles and the setting of the classroom and doing so lightheartedly’ (Waring 2013: 192). As mentioned above, language learning classrooms, especially at the group forming stage, can cause anxiety amongst language learners. Learners may be anxious as they compare themselves negatively to others they believe to be more competent than themselves. They may be anxious because the tasks and methodology are unfamiliar, or their anxiety may spring from their inability to express themselves adequately in the target language. Oxford (1999:76) suggests using laughter to relax students and reduce anxiety and Ziv (2010) suggests that one of the social functions

of laughter is that of oiling the wheels of interpersonal communication and relationships, lessening group tension, making the group more attractive to its members and strengthening ties between them. Duff (2000: 120) suggests that humour can be used in the language classroom to increase students' enjoyment of the activities, undermine the seriousness of classroom interaction and create greater rapport between learners. In addition, Martineau (1972, cited by Senior 2006: 179) suggests that:

The function of humor is to initiate and facilitate communication and development of social relationships. Through humor, consensus is achieved and social distance is reduced. As an aspect of the socio-emotional role in informal groups, humor serves as a symbol of social approval promoting group solidarity.

Through her lighthearted addition to the interaction and the laughter it provokes, Irene is promoting interpersonal relationships and positive affect within this triad. In this way, rather than presenting a problem, I would suggest that off-task talk can strengthen group ties and create more cohesive groups in the classroom

Excerpt 6, where the same learners are completing the same task, shows many examples of what are known as continuers in CA (Wong and Waring 2010: 90), what Storch terms phatic utterances (2002a: 313), and what Donato (1994:46), calls affective markers. During face to face interaction, the absence of continuers such as 'Oh' 'Ah' 'Yeah' or 'Mmhhh' could lead the listener to interpret this silence as a way of withholding agreement, which could be a presequence to disagreement, or disinterest. Storch (2002a) reported that the function of phatic utterances amongst less collaborative dyads was mostly limited to signalling acknowledgement of one interactants' contribution before the next participant vocalised their own ideas. Wong and Waring (2010: 89) point out that continuers could be thought of as being on a continuum which suggests increased engagement on the part of the participants, ranging from utterances which serve solely to acknowledge prior talk to those which suggest a higher level of engagement, for example, utterance which signal 'incipient speakership' . In excerpt 6, I would suggest phatic utterances do show increased engagement by signalling collective orientation to the task and distributed help, and function to acknowledge previous utterances (line 163, 165) to signal agreement (lines

157,159,167,169,171,172,177,178 and 180), and to seek confirmation (line 173), all features of more collaborative interaction. As noted by Donato (1994: 46), we see a cluster of affective markers at critical points in the interaction. Here we see the convergence of these markers where co-construction of the collective effort results in resolution of the problem by Filomena (line 168).

One factor which is important in promoting intermember acceptance and group cohesion is the rewarding nature of the group experience, with Levine and Moreland (1990) considering groups which people find more rewarding tending to be more cohesive. Praise from Filomena for Bernardo, who remembers something he wrote down in a previous lesson, expressed on line 179, would be one way to make the group experience more positive and emphasises the success of the group in this correction exercise.

(6)

	156	F	<cos remember is>
→	157	R	for things yeah
	158	F	<something that <u>you</u> do. (1) <u>you</u> remember.>
→	159	R	yes
	160	F	something
	161	B	[and remind is]
	162	F	[not]
→	163	R	yes
	164	B	to ask someone to
→	165	I	yes
	166	R	someone remind me.
→	167	B	yes yes
→	168	F	so I think it's <you must remind me >?
→	169	B	yes
	170	F	to buy some milk. (3) <u>remi:nd</u> (3) ((writing)) i guess.
→	171	B	[yes here its]
→	172	I	[yes it's right]
→	173	F	yes yes ?
	174	I	remind me
	175	B	here we have passed this (.) one of the the (.) ((laughs)) last
	176		lessons. here is [teachid]. (.) he [teachid] me
→	177	F	(2) oh yes yes
→	178	R	yes
→	179	F	good bernardo
→	180	I	yes

Another would be Miguel (recording 5), congratulating his triad on finishing task 2 (Excerpt 7, line 95).

(7)

- 89 B i didn't knew? (3) not I didn't know
 90 Mi yes i didn't knew, yes it's past
 91 B °i didn't knew that television was invented in 1925 (.) by a
 92 scottish°
 93 Mi yes (.) and the first football match
 94 B and the football match (.) match was first played by aztecs
 → 95 Mi °yes outstanding°. cue words? we have the same cue words?

In excerpt 8 from Class 2 task 2 (recording 4), Carolina, Liliana, David and Rute are involved in mutual orientation to the error correction exercise, specifically the first sentence, 'I meet Mark for the first time nine years ago'. Rute uses Liliana's first name as a method of address on a number of occasions (lines 40 and 57) as a way of approximating interactants and encouraging a positive social dimension. In addition Rute also appears to attend to the feelings of others as can be seen on line 61 where she says 'Don't worry please'. This is an example of what Schmuck and Schmuck (1997: 77) entitle social-emotional group function, which helps maintain internal cohesion and favourable interpersonal feelings.

(8)

- 32 R but but the first time is [co:'rrect.]
 33 L [because]
 34 R [i met mark]
 35 L [i'm given a news]
 36 R (2) pela ((tra.: for)) (.) f for the first time (.) 9 years? ago.(1)
 37 i? met.
 38 L (2) met with one e?
 39 L1 ()
 → 40 R meet it it's it's it's only one (3) i? think.(.) i think liliana.
 41 D °it's more°
 42 L but if it ?
 43 L1 (2) [()]
 44 R [i think i met] mark for the first time 9 years ago (.) i think it's
 45 correct (.) i think.
 46 L 9 years hm:
 47 R the second is (.) we immediately fa fa fa fall
 48 D but they only have a mistake

- 49 R fall (.) fall fall in love (.) fall in love
 50 L °fall in love°
 51 D the first one is
 52 R i met mark (1) i? met.
 53 D sim ((tra.: Yes))
 54 L hm:
 55 R i met 9 years ago (1).9 years ago (.). i met
 56 C °for the first time°
 → 57 R i think? it's correct. liliana
 58 L [no because we are saying the same thing]
 59 L1 (())
 60 L ((laughs))
 → 61 R don't worry(.) please

The error correction task carried out in week 5 of classes involving both Miguel and Beatriz seen in excerpts 11-14 in section 5.2 could be described as confrontational. However in excerpt 9 (Class 1 task 2) it can be seen how Beatriz, Manuela (Ma) and Miguel (Mi) work in a more collaborative fashion while discussing how to complete the dictogloss task (recording 5). They use mitigating expressions and hedges to minimise disagreement thereby saving the face of both the speaker, by indicating that the content of what they are saying may not be altogether correct, and the listener, by reducing the threat of offering contrasting ideas. Face, according to Brown and Levinson (1987, cited by Cutting 2002: 45), is the public self-image of the person we address, and to enter into and maintain social relationships we need to acknowledge and be aware of the face of others. They further claim that it is an expectation in all cultures that speakers should respect each other's expectations regarding self-image, take into account the feelings of others and avoid face threatening acts. It is generally accepted that people involved in a conversation will cooperate with each other, and Grice's Cooperative Principle (Grice 1975, cited by Yule 1996: 37) details four sub principles of cooperative oral interaction, called maxims. These are:

1. Quantity. Make your contributions as informative as required.
2. Quality. Try to make your contribution one that is true
3. Relation. Be relevant
4. Manner. Be perspicuous – avoid obscurity of expression and ambiguity, be brief and orderly.

To Grice's Cooperative Principle, Leech (1983: 131) adds the Politeness Principle, the six maxims of which are:

1. Tact. Limit cost to others. Maximise benefits to others
2. Generosity. Minimise benefits to self, maximise cost to self
3. Approbation. Minimise dispraise of others, maximise praise of others
4. Modesty. Minimise praise of self. Maximise dispraise of self
5. Agreement. Minimise disagreement between self and others
6. Sympathy. Minimise antipathy between self and other. Maximise sympathy between self and other.

In excerpt 9, on lines 25-27, Miguel and Manuela attain a collective orientation to the task indicated by a clustering of utterances related to the year 1995. However when on line 36 Beatriz utters the sentence 'invented in 1925 by' Miguel and Manuela's response is a series requests for clarification (lines 37,39,48) and partial repeats (lines 40, and 47) which is considered by Pomerantz (1984, cited by Locher 2004: 96) as weak disagreement i.e. delay of the dispreferred message. Brown and Levinson (1987, cited by Locher 2004: 97) report hedging opinions as a strategy for avoiding disagreement and this too can be seen in Miguel and Manuel's repetitions (lines 42, 43 and 50) of the phrase 'I don't know'. In this way Manuel and Miguel are complying with Leech's Agreement maxim by minimising their disagreement with Beatriz.

(9)

- 25 Mi in 19 (.) 5. ninety five?
 26 Ma ninety five. ninety five.
 27 Mi yes (.) [ninety five]
 28 B < [°i didn't know] that television (.) [[te:le:vi:sion °]] >
 29 ((speaking as she writes))
 30 Mi [[i didn't catch the aztecs]]
 31 B was invented
 32 Mi by a scottish
 33 Ma in
 34 Mi a scottish
 35 Ma 19
 → 36 B <invented in> (1) 1925 (.) by?
 → 37 Ma 25?
 38 B [yes]

- 39 Mi [or two five]?
 → 40 Ma (2) five
 41 B one nine two five
 → 42 Mi i don't know
 → 43 Ma oh i don't know
 44 Mi i think it was ninety five
 45 B (2) ninety five?
 46 Mi i think
 → 47 Ma ninety
 → 48 Mi [five or twenty five]
 49 B [1925]
 → 50 Mi 1925? i don't know (1) eh (.)
 51 B °<in 1925 by> (2) a scot°

In Excerpt 10, class 2 (Filomena, Bernardo and Lourenço) are completing the same dictogloss task. This excerpt shows that when the group finishes the activity before their classmates, they continue to speak in English and exchange real world information about the Aztecs and football. On line 52 the triad finish the activity and this is followed by a 7 second pause. On line 53 Filomena extends the task by asking about a doubt she has and a short exchange between Filomena and Bernardo then ensues. On line 61 however this exchange finishes, as the interactants have completed the task. Then on line 62 Lourenço takes on the role as information giver and extends the task by initiating a conversation about the Aztecs. A lack of communication is a major obstacle to group development, so the initiative of Lourenço and Bernardo to extend the conversation would appear to signal a willingness to communicate and form stronger bonds with the other participants. Willingness to communicate, as mentioned in chapter 2, is the readiness with which speakers enter into discourse with others using L2, and although it is a personality variable, it is also situationally dependent on factors such as the number of people the speaker is communicating with and how familiar he or she is with these individuals, with willingness to communicate being greatest in small groups of more familiar acquaintances.

This could also be considered an example of positive politeness (Yule 1996: 64) used to convey or strengthen solidarity among people, when requesters appeal to a common goal, claim common viewpoints, opinions or attitudes or knowledge. This can be seen throughout the conversation where Bernardo in particular

expresses positive politeness through asking questions to express interest (lines 64, 71, 73, 83, 87, 89). Only when a certain amount of trust has been established amongst group members do they start to reveal something of their private selves. Through their revelations with regard to reading National Geographic magazine and visiting Mexico (lines 98 and 113), both Lourenço and Bernardo can be seen to take steps to strengthen group solidarity by establishing common interests with group members. This could also be seen as an example of phatic communication. Ending conversations is a problem for native and non-native speakers alike as these are zones of interactional transition where interactants must ‘adjust to the turn-taking practices of the new speech exchange system’ (Markee 2004: 584). Here the interactants have two options: either stop talking or continue interacting to preserve sociability, the behaviour Malinowski (1930, cited by Leech 1983: 141) named phatic communion, and which ‘serves to extend the common ground of agreement and experience shared by the participants’ (Leech 1983: 143). Whether considered an example of positive politeness or phatic communion, both serve the same purpose: to strengthen interpersonal group ties and create a positive social dimension amongst interactants.

(10)

- 49 L tv was invented
 50 B (2) in 1925
 51 F by a scotch? (3) in 1925
 → 52 B (1) °in 1925°
 → 53 F (7) i'm i'm [doubtful] about what here. (3) i was astonished to
 54 learn
 55 B i think it's that
 56 F that
 57 B that football
 58 F yes (.) I guess (.) also (.) that football?
 59 B was [pla:yed]
 60 F °was played by aztecs (.) yeah°
 → 61 B °yes °
 → 62 L °with an iron ball° (2) it was an iron ball or a rock ball (1) [and
 63 they crack]
 → 64 B [an iron?]
 65 L °yeah (1) they crack the the skulls. (.) many of the bodies of the
 66 aztecs that were found they have (.) big cracks in the (.)
 67 cranium. °
 68 B hm:

69 L °it was because of that°
 70 F °because of this? °
 → 71 B [where]?
 72 L °[the skulls] °(2) [[go]]
 → 73 B [[where they]] they get the the the iron (.) you
 74 don't know? ((laughs))
 75 L ()
 → 76 F (3) <very go:od . (2) but Mary didn't say that.>
 77 B no ((laughs))
 → 78 F did she. ((Bernardo laughs)). no. ok because i didn't hear ((very
 79 serious voice))
 80 B yes ((smiley voice))
 81 L it's a
 → 82 F ((laughs)) ok
 → 83 B what kind of material is is the ball made. ((smiley voice))
 84 L yeah ((smiley voice))
 85 B made of
 86 L i think it was iron or or
 → 87 B (3) clothes? no? (.) it's not not some kind of clothes? no?
 88 L it was iron (.) or rock.
 → 89 B rock?
 90 L yeah
 91 B it's too heavy it's
 92 F they're crazy ((smiley voice))
 93 B yes, yes!
 94 F ((laughs))
 95 L [i read it some]
 96 B [yes!]
 97 F they were absolutely [[crazy]]((smiley voice))
 → 98 L [[i think i read it]] in national geographic
 99 B hm:
 100 L actually (.)
 101 B i will try to see it in [the]
 102 L [yes]
 103 B in the google after
 104 L yes (.) if you
 105 B yes
 106 L you can find
 107 B because it's (2) it's nice, it's
 108 L (2) but it it it wasn't like we used to see (.) it (.) they have (.)
 109 small circles or
 110 B hm:
 111 L and the ball in teams (.) and they try to put the ball inside the
 112 circle
 → 113 B hm: yes!. i read about it (.) and (.) i have been in mexico (.) and
 114 (.) they they they they played with the: (.) some (.) not the (.) calf
 115 skin (.) but the (.)
 116 L oh (.) leather

This sequence also exhibits an example of playful behaviour on Filomena's part as she does 'being the teacher' on lines 76 and 78. Here Filomena can be seen to shift to the teacher's identity by giving a teacher's positive assessment of Lourenço's utterance on line 76. The fact she does this dramatically by lengthening the word 'good', and speaking in a paused, measured rhythm shows how she is 'hamming up' this role, thereby injecting a certain amount of humour into the situation. This can also be seen in line 78 where she answers the question she asks in line 76 and uses a lack of intonation and 'No' to 'reprimand' Lourenço for 'straying' from the task at hand, although she orients to the playful nature of these exchanges by laughing on line 82.

5.2 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Discourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 1.

Classes do not start as being cohesive. They talk cohesion into being through their interactions so it is unsurprising that there are instances in term 1 where interaction could be considered to discourage a positive social dimension.

This is shown in excerpts 11 to 14 (Class 1 task 1) where the tetrad Miguel (Mi), Madalena (M) Beatriz and Simão are discussing the error correction exercise. These extracts show tension as participants work together to complete the task.

One feature of emerging groups is the establishment of a status hierarchy amongst members. Initially group members start out equal but soon some achieve informal authority over others. In the language learning classroom this could be because learners intuitively note the language competence or task-achieving skills of others. A higher status within the group implies a tendency to initiate ideas and activities and leads others in the group to evaluate higher status individuals more positively (Brown 2000: 73). Status consensus is the individual's level of status that has been agreed upon by group members. (Oyster 2000: 19). However, until this consensus is reached and group members are still unsure of their position in the group pecking order, conflict may arise as two or more members vie for the same

position. In excerpts 11-14 I would suggest that Beatriz and Madalena and to a lesser extent Simão are in conflict over the position of ‘language expert’.

In excerpts 11 and 12, both Beatriz and Madalena use ‘No’ to disagree with their classmates over how to correct a sentences in this error correction exercise. The use of ‘No’ in turn-initial position, being a non-delayed response to the previous utterance shows unmitigated outright disagreement, a dispreferred social act (Levinson 1983, cited by Yule 1996:79) which could also be considered a face-threatening act (Yule 1996 : 61). The group are discussing how to correct the phrase ‘We immediately felt in love’.

(11)

- | | | |
|------|----|--|
| 19 | M | °we immediately felt in love° (3) hm: |
| 20 | B | (1) yes, fe [we fell in love] |
| 21 | M | [it’s correct] no? |
| → 22 | B | no! because it’s (.) we immediately fall in love |
| 23 | S | fall? |
| 24 | B | (.) °yes° |
| 25 | Mi | felt felt is a [feeling] |
| → 26 | B | [yes]. felt in love |
| 27 | Mi | i felt in love |
| → 28 | M | <u>[NO::! I ()]</u> |
| → 29 | B | > [i fall] in love i fall in love with you < (.) ° not i (.) fe:lt°. |
| → 30 | M | no i <u>felt</u> |
| 31 | Mi | i hear (irritation) in your voice |
| 32 | M | in the <u>past</u> |
| 33 | B | in the past <u>yes</u> (1) |

On lines 22 and 29 Beatriz positions herself as language expert by stating the correction rather than negotiating with the rest of the group or asking for her classmates’ opinion. In this way she is indirectly declaring her superior knowledge of language, thereby offending Leech’s modesty maxim (1983:138) which states speakers should minimise praise of self. She is also offending the agreement maxim previously mentioned by disagreeing with Madalena on lines 22 and 29. Madalena herself however is also offending Leech’s agreement maxim with her disagreement on lines 28 and 30. Further into the task, when discussing how to spell the past tense of teach Madalena again raises her voice, expressing irritation and disagreement with a vehement ‘No’ (line 328 in excerpt 12).

(12)

314 S& Mi <t a> ((spelling out one letter at a time))
315 S u
316 Mi *sim* ((tra.:yes))
317 S g
318 Mi g
319 S h
→ 320 M no!
321 Mi h
322 S t dot ((dot = full stop denoting the end of the word))
323 Mi dot
324 M I! (.) I!
→ 325 S ° no i tem ((tra.: has))°
326 Mi (2) t o ((laughter)) (1) no t a
327 B ok t o u
→ 328 M NO::! [is for u]
329 B [this is how writes]
330 S <U (1) U>
331 M ok ()
332 B t a
333 M a (.) yeah

Excerpt 13 shows how Madalena uses self-repetition to assert her point of view on lines 243, 248, 251, 263 and 269/270. Here she (correctly) repeatedly states that there is no mistake in the use of ‘must’ in the sentence ‘You must remember me to buy some milk’. Through self-repetition she emphasises and asserts her individual point of view suggesting she may be less than open to a mutually acceptable resolution of the problem. Madalena again repeats her question on line 251 but this time using the mitigator ‘I think’, a slower pace and a quieter voice to soften her affirmation.

(13)

234 Mi yeah you might (.) yes (2) must is an obligation yes
235 B <you mi:ght>
236 M hm:?
237 Mi >no mas ((tra.: but) [but but] it can be an obligation<
238 M >[oh yes]it can be an [[obligation]]<
239 Mi [[yes you must]] remember me
240 M >yes, you must<
241 B yes but there is a mistake here so ((laughs))
242 S °you might remember me°
→ 243 M what > [WHY is a mistake.]<

	244	L1	[()]
	245	B	[[because each sentence]]
	246	S	[[so what's the mistake]]
	247	B	has a mistake
→	248	M	<u>YEAH!</u> >ok ok< but <u>WHY</u> must is the mistake and not
	249		(.) another word (2) why change the must.
	250	B	∞ must remember me to buy some milk ∞
→	251	M	must is not a mistake in (.) this sentence (.) i think
→	263	M	but this is not a wrong sentence (.) it's like
→	269	M	it's not incorrect (1) it's not wrong (.) if you said (.) if
	270		you say must

Excerpt 14 shows the same group of learners beginning to discuss the phrase 'He learned me to use a computer'. On line 292 Beatriz suggests the correction is 'He teach me', but Simão contradicts her and suggests the correction should be 'He thought me to use a computer'. Beatriz seems confused by this and seeks confirmation on line 295, 'He what?' and again insists the correct verb is 'teach' on line 297 saying 'No, learn, you don't learn nobody, you teach somebody'. In this way Beatriz is again positioning herself in the group status hierarchy as language expert. However, Simão replies by using metalanguage and reciting the past tense and past participle of the verb teach on line 300 ('Teach, thought, thought') and although he is incorrect, this is done in such a confident manner that Miguel and Madalena immediately agree, this agreement being accompanied by affiliative laughter. This is compounded by Miguel's expression 'Beautiful', on line 308 marking his admiration for Simão. Beatriz however does not join in in their laughter and this sequence could be considered as an alienating event in which Beatriz's suggestion has been summarily dismissed by the others. Beatriz's self-image as a knowledgeable student has been threatened and this could be considered a face threatening act (Yule1996: 61).

(14)

- 289 S he learned (.) [he learned] me
290 B [he learned me]
291 S [[to use]] a computer
→ 292 B [[to use]] (.) >no he teach me. <
293 S >no no< he thought (.) he thought me (.) to use a
294 computer.(.) is in the past
→ 295 B he what?
296 M ah: no.
→ 297 B >no learns.< (.) you don't learn (.) nobody (.) you teach!
298 somebody.
299 M ((laughs))
→ 300 S (Sim) ((tra.: Yes)).> teach! thought! thought!<
301 M ah: ok:! ((laughs))
302 Mi ye:s! is correct! ((laughs))
→ 303 B ok yeah
304 M [((laughs during the next 6 turns))]
→ 305 B ok (.) ok
306 Mi you are correct ((laughing))
→ 307 B ok i [understand]
→ 308 Mi [beautiful!]
309 B yes (.) how do we write that?

As mentioned above, face is both how others see us and how we perceive our own social presence, and politeness in interaction is essentially the way we acknowledge our awareness of another person's face. Unmitigated disagreement as seen on lines 292, 293, and 297 is a face threatening act and loss of face (lower social value) resulting from such acts can lead to loss of status (Ehrman & Dornyei 2004: 117) and a feeling of shame or embarrassment. In a cohesive group, face is more secure and group members can make mistakes and reveal their weaknesses without losing status (Ehrman & Dornyei 2004 121) however, during the group formation stage, group members can be open and vulnerable to such attacks. This would appear to be the case on line 300, where Beatriz's status as language expert, as expressed on line 297 has been brought into question by Simão's utterance and the agreement of others. Beatriz deals with this loss of face by accepting this situation using the rejection finaliser 'OK' on line 305 and 307, and moving on (Wong & Waring 2010: 83).

In the example shown in excerpt 15, Bernardo faces a similar loss of face. In class 2 while discussing the same error correction exercise he (wrongly) disagrees with Filomena that the past tense of fall is felt. The conflict is resolved when Bernardo confirms the form in the course book. Bernardo recognises his error and works hard to repair his loss of face on lines 85 and 87 when he excuses his difficulty by saying how confusing the situation is, and that it is a trick. Filomena also works to repair Bernardo's loss of face by agreeing with him on lines 86 and 88. Bernardo also uses laughter (Line 87) which is a mature defensive strategy for loss of face, and interestingly has been shown to be the reaction of the student in response to the interactional trouble caused when a student is identified by the teacher as 'not knowing' in the L2 classroom (Sert & Jacknick 2015: 109), in the same way that Bernardo has been identified as 'not knowing' by Filomena, while she does 'being-the-teacher'.

(15)

- | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|
| | 76 | F | but you can check |
| | 77 | B | >yes yes yes< i can see |
| | 78 | F | in the:: |
| | 79 | B | °moment° |
| | 80 | F | in the book (9) ((Sounds of pages turning)) <u>fall</u> ? <u>fell</u> . |
| | 81 | B | [yes] |
| | 82 | F | [yes] |
| | 83 | B | it's feel |
| | 84 | F | that's <u>it</u> |
| → | 85 | B | fell (.) it's a little bit confusing |
| → | 86 | F | yes yes |
| → | 87 | B | it's a (3) a <u>trick</u> ((laughs)) |
| → | 88 | F | <u>yes</u> it is.(1) absolutely. (.) so number 3 |

Excerpt 16 shows how Filomena in this task adopts the discourse of the dominant interactant who leads this task in much the same way a teacher would. Filomena is 'doing-being-an-expert' (Reichert & Liebscher 2012: 599). Walsh (2011: 4-5) suggests that teachers control interaction in the classroom by:

[...] deciding who speaks, when, to whom and for how long. Teachers are able to interrupt when they like, take the floor, hand over a turn, direct the discussion, switch topics.

This in part is what Filomena does. In excerpt 16 it is obvious how she gains control of the floor by systematically deciding when to move on to another sentence to correct. Of 10 questions, she is responsible for initiating discussion of 8 in total.

(16)

- 1 F <so (3) this is >
 2 B (1) it's the the wrong
 3 T do speak up
 4 I ah ok
 5 B the wrong tense
 6 F <the verb (.) is wrong>
- 23 F ok(3) in the second?
- 84 F yes it is.(.) absolutely.(.) so number 3
- 105 F >number 4. <
- 114 F <not use (1) to.> (5) number 5.
- 148 F <i think it's not (.)° it's not wrong. ° (6 and in number 6. (1) what do you think.>
- 290 B I think it's [correct]
 291 F >[so number 9.]<
- 316 F ((F laughs 7s)) °no, I'm kidding°. go on. ((laughter)) yeah. (1) ok.
 317 (1) number 10.

One further reason to support the notion that Filomena has assumed the role of dominant interactant/teacher in this task is the conversational style of the interaction. Cooperative overlap style, where interactants chime in to complete the sentences of others has been found to be a characteristic of the conversation style of interactants who wish to transmit 'metamessages' of involvement and alignment (Eder 1988: 225). However this conversation is notable for a lack of overlap. As mentioned above, teachers are the 'conductors' of classroom interaction and have the power to interrupt, take the floor and direct the interaction. Learners generally respect the legitimacy of teachers to behave in this way and are less likely to interrupt the teacher's discourse. Careful consideration of this interaction reveals that Irene, Ricardo and Bernardo rarely engage in overlapping talk with Filomena,

and generally avoid interruptions and completion of Filomena's turn. In this way they seem to be positioning Filomena as the language expert. Moreover Filomena interrupts, directs the interaction and takes on the role of the teacher to explain points of grammar. In excerpt 17 below Filomena orchestrates the interaction by introducing a new sentence to discuss on line 116 and on lines 129 and 134 she interrupts Bernardo. From lines 134 to 146 she holds the floor as she explains her ideas for correcting the sentence and is only interrupted on line 137 with a continuer ('hm') from Bernardo and by Irene on lines 141 and 143. This is surprising. No other student in this conversation is granted an equal amount of time to hold the floor and even though her discourse in this latter part of the extract is slow and paused, the others seem prepared to listen rather than use her pauses as opportunities to take the floor. They are aligning to her position as expert.

(17)

- 112 F you have to say <he (1) used to >
 113 B yes (.) used to
 114 F not use (1) to
 115 I (4) °°now I used to°°
 → 116 F number 5.
 117 B (3) i think it's the tense. (1) it's got up
 118 I [i used]
 119 B [now i] used to got up every day at
 120 I (2) [[but it's a]] routine
 121 F >[[NO NO NO NO NO]]< he
 122 R yes
 123 F it's a routine
 124 I °°i think°°
 125 F >YES. NOW ?<
 126 B he used to,
 127 F <now. (.) every day> (2)
 128 B he used to (.) got [up]
 → 129 F [i think] it means that (1) it's (1) something
 130 that you do daily. (2)
 131 I make getting? (6)
 132 F NO. (1)
 133 B i think it's
 → 134 F NO. i think what is wrong! is (1) the word now (3) because
 135 you you have (.) to (.) to work every day (1) so it's something
 136 that you do (.) usually do,
 → 137 B mhm:
 138 F daily. (.) every day (1) so you can't <you can't have> this

- 139 TWO words in the same sentence, now (.) every day (.) it
 140 doesn't make sense a:: and (.) used to (3)
 → 141 I °°()°°
 142 F > I think is not correct also.<
 → 143 I °°used to°°
 144 F the correct sentence is i get up (2) at 8 am (.) every day. (2)
 145 this is (2) this is an (.) something that <you do (.) you usually
 146 do> (4) isn't it.

Storch (2002b: 133) while discussing patterns of interaction in ESL pair work identified the dominant /passive pattern of interaction. Filomena appears to exhibit one feature of Storch's dominant interactant in that much of her speech appears to be self-regulating rather than communicative as can be seen in excerpt 18, where rather than interacting with Irene, she appears to be verbalising her own thought processes. This function of speech is psychological and its aim is to direct the individual's own mental activity when faced by cognitive difficulties (Anton and Dicamilla 1999: 243), although in the case of Anton and Dicamilla's research learners were at beginner level and used L1. Here learners are at B1 level (Intermediate) and Filomena uses L2 in what Swain (2010: 112) terms languaging, which occurs when the individual 'talks through' what they find cognitively complex, either to themselves or others.

On line 33 Filomena contradicts her own assertion on line 31 that the past of 'fall' is 'follow,' and the words 'Hang on I'm confused' on line 35 appear to be more addressed to herself than her partner and indicate self-evaluation of the interaction to now and a realisation that she has made a mistake. Similarly in line 41 she starts 'No, yes' which appears to reflect the cognitive processes she is going through as she tries to correct the sentence rather than being a response to the previous turn of Bernardo on line 39.

(18)

- 23 F ok (3) in the second?
 24 I (3) we ne::ed we need to change the the words (2) we felt immed
 25 immediatly(.) in love (.) ° i think°
 26 F <we immediatly felt in love. (1) felt is the past of the verb>
 27 B feel

- 28 F <feel (.) so (2) you can't.> (1) i think you don't say (.) you feel
 29 in love .(1) you say (.) you [fall in love]
 30 I [fall in love]
 → 31 F <and the past of the fall (.) is follow.>
 32 I (2) yes.
 → 33 F >no.<
 34 I >no.<
 → 35 F hang on.(.) i'm (.) i'm confused.
 36 I feel
 37 F [the past of]
 38 I [fall] é ((tra.: is)) fell
 → 39 B felt
 40 I ()
 → 41 F NO! yes but you (.) but you say (2) you fall in love
 42 I yes (.) say that.

As the interaction progresses, Filomena again appears to engage in languaging to ascertain the correct form of the verb that should be used to correct the sentence 'We immediately felt in love', seen in excerpt 19 below.

(19)

- 43 F so:?
 44 I i don't understand [your wrote]
 → 45 F [yo:u]?
 46 B (3) oh
 → 47 F no:.
 48 B it's not in the past (.) you think it's the present yeah?
 → 49 F (2) no. (.) hang on (.) hang on.
 50 B ((laughs)) we immediately fall in love
 → 51 F you feel (.) and you felt (.) ok?
 52 R yes
 → 53 F you feel is present (.) you felt is [past]
 54 I [is the past]
 55 B [[yes]] right
 → 56 F but here (.) the expression is <fall in love>
 57 I but the
 → 58 F so the past of the <fall is fell>
 59 I correct ((laughs))
 → 71 F yes (.) it's fell in love.

The discourse marker 'So' on line 43 would appear to signal that Filomena has come to some conclusion as to how to continue. She ignores Irene's comment on line 44 on not being able to read her handwriting and utters 'You', a continuation

of 'So' on line 45. However on line 47 she utters 'No' which again seems to be self-directed as it makes little sense in the interaction, and repeats 'Hang on, hang on' (line 49), where she appears to be asking the others to give her time to resolve this cognitively difficult task. As the sequence unfolds it can be seen that Filomena is not interacting with the others (lines 49, 51, 53, 56 and 58) although they are engaging with her. On line 46 Bernardo's exclamation 'Oh' shows he realises that Filomena could be thinking about using the verb in the present tense which he verbalises on line 48. He then provides the present tense of the verb on line 50 'We immediately fall in love' which is ignored by Filomena. On lines 52, 54 and 55 the other 3 interactants agree with Filomena's utterances but she fails to acknowledge these and continues her 'thinking aloud', confirming her conclusion on line 71.

Irene's interventions towards the end of the interaction seen on lines 141 and 143 in excerpt 17 are interesting as they seem to suggest Irene's use of private speech. Ohta (2001: 14) notes how private speech is often expressed as 'the self-directed mutterings of adult language learners' (2001: 12). Here it would appear that denied the interactional space in which to engage in interactive work with her fellow learners, Irene retreats to her own private space where she works individually to try to resolve the problem. According to Ohta (2001: 66) private speech is more common in the teacher fronted setting and is rare in peer interaction. The fact that it is present here further strengthens the argument that Filomena has taken the place of the teacher in this interaction.

Excerpt 20 (recording 4), shows the second group of Class 2 students (Carolina, Liliana, David and Rute) performing the same error correction exercise. They jointly focus attention on the sentence 'You must remember me to get some milk' which provokes disagreement between Rute who believes 'You must remember me' is correct and Carolina and Liliana who believe the correct form is 'You must remind me'. This produces a disagreement sequence which lasts for 8 turns (lines 171-178) where all interactants involved repeat their version of the correction. Repetition plays many discursive roles in interaction. Repeating the words and phrases of others serves to show acceptance of others, their utterances, and their participation (Tannen, 1998, cited by Skehan 1998:34). Here repetition

serves to emphasise the opposite, i.e. that neither Liliana, Carolina nor Rute are willing to be influenced by the others, nor do they attempt to explain or reason through examples, consult the coursebook or the teacher, thereby missing out on a valuable learning opportunity. For the task to move on, one of the intervenients must back down, and suffer losing face. At this point Liliana sighs (line 177), perhaps showing frustration or irritation at the inability of the group to resolve the issue. Carolina and Liliana keep up their insistence that the correct resolution of the problem is ‘remind’ (lines 178-182) with Rute attempting to intervene on line 180, but being cut off by Carolina. Rute eventually accepts the correction of the others on lines 183, 185 and 187. This acceptance on Rute’s part is accompanied by her (possibly defensive) laughter, which is followed on line 189 by Carolina repeating the word ‘remind,’ elongating the second syllable and showing exaggerated pitch contours (remi↑:::nd↓). Carolina was not questioned as to what her intention was here. It could be that she is emphasising the fact that her version of the correction was accepted, or she may simply be engaging in language play. Rute ignores this and on line 190 attempts to correct the next sentence ‘He learned me to use a computer,’ but this is interrupted by Liliana’s laughter. Rute again orients to the sentence correction activity on line 192, but this time is interrupted by David’s utterance and Liliana’s laughter. This sequence of interactions leads to Rute’s apparent irritation (line 196) and although the group collectively orient to the task again in line 198, this marks the stage at which Rute starts to ‘disengage’ from group interaction, and this type of withdrawal is a sign of an avoidance-focused emotion regulation strategy (Op’t Eynde, Corte & Verschaffel 2007).

(20)

159	C	[you must remember me] to get some milk
160	R	[yeah yeah yeah it’s correct]
161	L	((laughs))
162	R	°i get up°.
163	D	°°you must remember°°
164	C	[you must remember]
165	R	[you must remember]
166	C	me
167	R	<u>to</u> me.
168	L	hm:? no
169	C	<u>no no!</u> it’s

170 L you must remind me.
 → 171 R <you you (.) you must(.) you must remember.>
 172 L remind
 173 C you must remind me.
 → 174 R [you must remember.]
 175 L [you must remind me]
 → 176 R you must remember.
 → 177 L ((sighs))
 178 C é ((tra.: it's) remind me
 179 L i think that is remind.
 → 180 R you
 181 C remind me
 182 L you must remind me
 → 183 R remind me ((laughs))
 184 D ()
 185 R °remind°
 186 L °we we did this exercise°
 → 187 R (2) () ok
 188 L he remind me (1) reminds me
 → 189 C [remi↑:::nd↓. me]. ((silly voice))
 → 190 R [remind]. he learned
 → 191 L ((laughter))
 → 192 R °he learned, he learned me to use a computer°
 193 D (1) this is a ()
 194 R [but you can]
 195 L [((laughter))]
 → 196 R please let me hear ((sounds irritated))
 197 D ()
 198 C °° É assim, não faz mal °° ((tra.: It's like this , it's not a
 199 problem))
 200 R he learned me.
 201 C to use a computer.
 202 R he learned

During the discussion of the phrase 'He learned me to use a computer' in excerpt 21 these learners again have trouble reaching a consensus of opinion. Previously on line 212 Liliana suggests the addition of the word 'how' to the sentence 'He teach me to use a computer' as a possible correction and further asks about this possibility on lines 214 ('Not how to use?') and 220 ('We say how to use?'). However Carolina, Liliana and David eventually reach a consensus of opinion on line 237 that the correction is 'He teach me to use a computer'. On line 238 Rute reconsiders the possibility of using the word 'how' in the correction, but although her intonation suggests she finds this correction unlikely, this causes Carolina to repeat the sentence again emphasising the word 'How' using the same

markedly exaggerated pitch contours as used on line 189 in excerpt 20. Carolina then cuts off Rute's utterance in line 246 'No I think' and translates the sentence into Portuguese, at a much faster pace than the surrounding interaction, implying impatience.

(21)

- 232 C [° he teach me (.) to use °]
- 233 R [° he teach me likes °]
- 234 C a computer [he teach me to use a computer]
- 235 R [he teach me (.) he teach me]
- 236 C you think that sounds,
- 237 D correct.
- 238 R <he teach [[ma]] he teach me HO:W? (2) how to use a
- 239 compu:ter. ((disbelieving tone)) ° he teach me (2) ho:w °>
- 240 C °he teach me°
- 241 R °how to use °
- 242 C >he teach me to use a computer (.) < it's not how.
- 243 L [[laughter]]
- 244 C he teach me HO::W? to use (1) a compu::ter. ((silly voice))
- 245 (2) HO::W.
- 246 R no! [i think] ((indignant tone))
- 247 C >[em Portuguese]. *ele ensinou me* < ((tra.: in portuguese.
- 248 he taught me))
- 249 R [[he teach me]]
- 250 C >[[*usar um computador*]].< ((tra.: to use a computer.))
- 252 L don't say in po:rtuguese!
- 253 C i know (.) sorry
- 254 L [[laughter]]
- 255 D he teach me how to use
- 256 R how i i i put how.

Lack of patience with students who are slower can be a feature of second language classrooms (Ehrman & Dornyei 2004: 128). Cutting (2002: 51) suggests that Leech could add a patience maxim to his Politeness Principle which would state 'Minimise the urgency for others' and 'Maximise the lack of urgency for others'. By showing impatience with Rute, Caroline is violating this hypothetical maxim. One possible reason for Carolina's impatience could be Rute's style of discourse, which involves considerable repetition, some examples of which can be seen in excerpt 22. I would suggest that repetition here has a cognitive function for Rute as

it gives her more time to process information. Other learners could however see it as an impediment to task fulfilment.

(22)

- 45 R °fall.° (.) fall. (.) fall in love. (.) fall in love.
- 51 R i met. (.) 9 years ago. (.) 9 years ago. (.) i met.
- 58 R we immediately (.) we immediately (.)
- 62 R no no no failed. (.) no failed. (.) (2) to to to to fall, fallen,
- 122 R I use.(.) I use.(.) I use (.) I use my,(1) I use my coat, (2) I use my coat, (.) all days.
- 206 R he teach. (.) he teach.(.) he teach. (.) he teach me

It is also true that Rute's intonation patterns could at times lead to others believing she is unwilling to enter into collaborative work as she often uses a falling intonation at the end of sentences thus signalling her certainty to the others, i.e. she is sure of her correction and is unwilling to entertain other suggestions, and this can be seen on lines 171 and 174 and 176 in excerpt 20.

These two incidences in excerpts 20 and 21 lead to Rute largely withdrawing from the interaction from this point on and engaging in stretches of private speech where she ignores the conversation between the other 3 participants, which can be seen below in excerpt 23. Having stated on line 264 that she believes 'I'm interested in' is the correct form, Rute moves on to consider the next correction ('Eat fish keeps you healthy') on line 266. On lines 269, 271, 273 and 275 she engages in private speech repeating the words 'Eat fish' while Liliana continues to discuss if the correction is 'I'm interested in' or simply 'I want to learn'. From lines 266 to 275 Rute's discourse lacks any cohesion with that of her fellow participants until on line 281 she responds to Carolina's previous utterance by again stating that she disagrees and that the correction should be 'I'm interested in'.

(23)

- 260 R i'm interested in (.) lea, i'm interested in (2) in (.) learning
more english vocabulary.
261 C in learning ?((unconvinced))
262 R >i'm interested in, in.<
263 L i think [that]
→ 264 R [it's correct].
265 L hm:: because of ing form.
→ 266 R eat fish
267 L it doesn't mean that we must use ing form. (3) we can
268 change.
→ 269 R °eat eat (1) eat eat fish keeps you healthy°
270 L we can say (1) is what i think
→ 271 R °eat fi (.) eat°
272 L i want to learn more,
→ 273 R [°eat eat°]
274 L [english vocabulary].
→ 275 R °eat eat fi:sh°
276 C what do you say?
277 L i want to learn
278 C <i want to learn>
279 L m: hm: to learn [more english vocabulary]
280 C [more english vocabulary]. i want to learn
→ 281 R eat.(.) no (1) not correct (.) i'm interested in (.) in in learn
282 learn mo more english vocabulary. i'm interested, in!.

Again in excerpt 24 it can be seen that Rute continues to work on her own and engage in private speech regarding the sentence 'Eat fish makes you healthy'. Only on line 316 do the others consider correction of this sentence, by which time Rute (line 305) has already started considering correction of the last sentence 'My dad gave me a lift because it was rain hard'.

(24)

- 292 C >i'm interest (.) to learning(.) to more (1) english
293 vocabulary<
294 L <i'm interest (1) to learn (1) to?>
295 C (3) <to learning (1) to>
→ 296 L double to?
297 R (3) °eat fish°
298 L i don't think so. ((laughs)) (2) if you talk me [without e:]
→ 299 R [keeps you keeps you]
300 L the last to (.)

- 301 D (2) °°()°°
 302 L perhaps I can agree.
 → 303 R °°keeps you keeps you°°
 304 L i'm interest to learn (1) more (.) english vocabulary.
 → 305 R °°gave me a lift because°°
 306 D °°i want eh°°
 307 C (4)°i () i'm right.°
 → 308 R my dad gave me a lift because [it was]
 309 C [°i don't know°]
 310 L i'm interest
 311 R i don't know.
 312 D (1) just want. (1) i want to learn.
 313 C i want to learn.
 314 R because it
 315 D more english vocabulary
 → 316 L eating. (2) eating fish,

According to Smith and Berg (1987, cited by Ehrman and Dornyei 2004: 78) the group scapegoat is a learner who is out of step with the rest of the group, who is irritating. Others believe that if the scapegoat were to leave, all conflictual behaviour and deviance from the norm would cease. It could be that here Rute is being cast in this role, which eventually leads to her self-imposed distancing from group interaction to continue the task largely on her own.

Further consideration of the discourse of this group shows that on 3 separate occasions decisions are made on corrections without the consensus of all the members of the group. Indeed their consensus is not sought and this seems to be unimportant for group members. For example, in the resolution of the sentence 'We immediately felt in love' the only comment David makes over 27 turns is repetition of Rute's turn 'To fall, fell, fallen' and the comment 'All of them has a mistake'. David is once more left out of the correction of the sentence 'You must remember me to get some milk'. Here he contributes nothing and his opinion is not sought by the others. And lastly, in the correction of the sentence 'Eat fish keeps you healthy' Carolina, Liliana and David resolve the problem in 6 turns without consulting Rute. Ignoring the opinions of some group members shows that not all members are treated as equals and such socio-emotional problems have been found to lead to an inability on the part of groups to successfully complete a task (Ayoko, Callan & Hartel 2008).

5.3 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Encourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 2.

The aim of sections 5.3 and 5.4 is to highlight interactions which encourage or discourage a positive social dimension in term 2 tasks either by giving further examples of interactions mentioned in sections, 5.1 and 5.2, or by giving examples of interactions not previously mentioned

The first task, carried out in week 3 of term 2 consisted of a writing task using a timeline to practise present perfect tense and time expressions. The second, carried out in week 6 was a group discussion task using questions on social networking and the last oral task in term 2, carried out in week 9, was a group discussion task on national stereotypes which used images and questions to encourage contributions.

Excerpt 25 shows Mariana and Bernardo discussing the writing task in week 3. These two learners start by establishing a joint understanding of how to engage with the task (line 4) and thereafter acknowledge each other's contributions through phatic utterances and repetition. The widely distributed use of phatic utterances, for example, 'OK', 'Yes' 'Yeah' show how the interactants mutually help and support each other by agreeing and acknowledging each other's utterances (lines 7, 9, 10, 15, 22, 24, 25, 28, and 30) . Other-repetition is also used to engage with and legitimise each other's contributions (lines 12 and 13, 23 and 24, 27, 29 and 31, 32 and 33, 34 and 35, 37 and 38). According to Tannen (1987: 584) repetition 'ties participants to the discourse and to each other, linking individual speakers in a conversation'. She further claims that repetition 'shows acceptance of others' utterances and their participation'. In this way repetition can show the affective bonds between the participants in this dyad, and could serve to strengthen them.

They also listen actively to each other, and engage with each other's suggestions, which results in a high degree of topic continuity and a discourse structure reminiscent of that of a single speaker. This is realised in part through the use of repetition providing discursive cohesion and topical coherence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

(25)

- 1 M ok (2)^o so^o
2 B you want to start?
3 M yes
→ 4 B you can eh: eh: (2) i tell one you tell another one.
5 M OK
6 B it's a good ((laughs))
→ 7 M ((laughs)) >[ok ok]<
8 B [good principle]
→ 9 M yes
→ 10 B yes
11 M <^oso^o eh: bill eh:>
→ 12 B (3) was born,
→ 13 M was born in (.) 1918
14 B 80,(.) in london,
→ 15 M yes.
16 B (2) five years later,(.) he went to school,(1) to the primary
17 school
18 M (2) ^oeh:^o
19 B ^{oo}and^{oo}
20 M he start started to play guitar when he was (.) eh ninety years
21 old
→ 22 B ^oyes (2) and^o
→ 23 M and he started
→ 24 B eh: yes he started because it's in the past
→ 25 M yeah guitar and he was yes? (.) ok.
26 B nineteen years old, and em: six years later (.) he went to the
→ 27 uni university (3) studying (.) german.
→ 28 M ^ook.^o (2) eh: he knew her her wife in (.) first year on the
→ 29 university,
→ 30 B [yes]
→ 31 M [i don't know] (.) if on the university
→ 32 B we can say that he:: he got engaged,
→ 33 M (3) he got engaged in this ? ((points to picture))
→ 34 B yes and this[is married]
→ 35 M [they married]
36 B the
→ 37 M so he go:t [engaged]
→ 38 B [engaged] in 1988

Excerpt 26 below shows how Miguel, Francisca and Silvia, performing the same task involve humour and praise of others (lines 75-77 and line 80).

(26)

- 73 F he had the twins.
74 Mi maybe? >non-identicals or identical, i don't know<
75 F well it's no identicals [because] it's
76 Mi [ah because is]
77 F a girl and a [[boy]] ((laughs))
78 S [[a girl]] and a boy ((laughs))
79 F ((laughs))
→ 80 Mi you're right, absolutely right. (2) very good.

The triad Fatima, Portuguese, Neema (Ne) who is Turkish, and Neusa (Nu), who is Moroccan, employ a number of strategies which could be considered to be attending to affective states while discussing social networking in week 6 of term 2. Excerpt 27 below illustrates how they show interest in each other's contributions by asking further questions (216, 236 and 244), by sharing personal information (lines 206,210,212,220,223,229,245,247) and by using first names to invite others into the conversation (lines 200 and 224). This active participation in the interaction seen here, and the interactants' willingness to share personal information are characteristics of cohesive groups

(27)

- 200 Nu >do you prepare the food? neema. <
201 Ne >yes!< (.) yes i prepare
202 F ((inhales)) not really!
203 Nu (((laughs)))
204 F [i'm not really] a good COO:ker ((LAUGHS)) ((inhales))
205 Nu °no I°
→ 206 F >but my husband is <((LAUGHS)) [°and you?°]
207 Ne [ah you are] a lucky woman!
208 F yes yeah yes ((smiley voice))
209 Nu your husband e:h,
→ 210 F yes yes he (.) he like:(.) a lo:t (.) coo:king (.) and: (.) i
211 Ne °you are a lucky woman.°
→ 212 F i say to to they to he (.) ok (.) you cook(.) whatever you want
213 ((laughs))
214 Ne °very good!°
→ 215 F I taste. (.) [I taste].((smiley voice))
→ 216 Ne <[what kind of] what kind of di:shes(.) that he
217 prefe:rs (.) to cook °yeah°>
218 F [[A::]]
219 Ne [[prefers cooking]] (.) cooking.
→ 220 F yes. normally he prefers eh: eh: italian food. i think (.) is

221 because is more easy to cook ((laughs))
 222 Ne yes. and delicious!
 → 223 Nu yes yes (.) and i enjoy enjoy a lot. (1) ((inhales)) and you
 → 224 neuza?
 225 L1 ()
 226 F sorry.
 227 Ne <i: prepara:re al:ways fo:od: >
 228 F you?
 → 229 Nu <because because my friend like to to to (.) eat (.) a:
 230 moroccan dishes (.) and i prepare.>
 231 F [AH:]
 232 Ne [and i]
 233 F [[i]]
 234 L1 [[()]]
 235 F sorry
 → 236 Ne <which kind of food is more (.) famous in: (.) mar:
 237 marroco?>
 238 F yeah morocco.
 239 Nu is couscous. is
 240 F yes .and tagides
 241 Nu and tagines.
 242 F tagide.
 243 Nu but i: i:
 → 244 F (2) how you prepare your couscous (1) because my couscous
 → 245 is very eh: ugly. it's very eugh. ((general laughter)) i DON'T
 246 KNOW! how to prepare. is to put (.) o:nly (.) water?
 → 247 Nu <no (.)you have to (.) to cook the (1) °semola°.>
 248 F yes. (.) is the couscous?

In excerpt 28 Neuza is explaining how her intention was to change group (line 93), but then reveals on line 96 that she came back as she feels 'The people in my classroom are linked, already established'. In this way she shows how she feels the class group is already cohesive, and expresses her sense of attraction, belonging and possible commitment to this group over other groups at the same level. Such public declaration of her investment in the class and satisfaction with the class group experience is again a feature of cohesive groups. Fatima on line 99 takes this opportunity to proclaim that their class is the best, in this way referring to a group identity which she sees as being positive and better than other groups. Members of cohesive groups are more likely to refer to 'we' rather than 'I', and take pride in belonging to their group, as does Fatima.

(28)

- 88 Nu <the last new person (.) i me:et: (1) wa:s(.) you! here
89 ((laughter)) and [i am very] >
90 F [that's right.] that's right
91 Nu < very happy to know (1) to have (.) this class>
92 F yes.
→ 93 Nu you know(.) i ha:ve decided to change the the the
94 F (1)the the schedule. the [the]
95 Nu [yes the] schedule but (.) after that (.)
→ 96 i i i (.) i think no(.)
97 F °yes°
98 Nu the classroom and the people in my classroom (.) its
→ 99 F are the BEST. we are the BEST. ((laughs))
→ 100 Nu no! they are [[linkid]]. already establish :ed
101 F yeah. yes
→ 102 Nu are great.i return, here.

These learners also listen and produce a cohesive style of discourse through the use of repetition of the words *parties*, *time*, *home* and *book*, as can be seen in excerpt 29.

(29)

- 135 → Nu how often do you go to parties neema.(3) OH!
136 F ((laughs))
137 Ne a:ctually(.) not very often that (.) sometimes(.) it's all often
138 → (.) i often got to parties but sometimes. (3) i () i go to parties
139 (.)
140 Nu °yes°
141 → Ne sometimes. (.) it depends the: (1) time.
142 → Nu the time.
143 F °ye:s°
144 Nu very very few times.
145 F ((laughs))
146 → Nu i haven't time.
147 → F i enjoy. very much. to go to a pa:rtie:s,((smiley voice))
148 Nu a::h.
149 F ((laughs)) yes!
150 → Nu even when i was younger (.) i i didn't enjoy to go party. i
151 → like (3) more stay in the home (.) in home,
152 → F >in home. in house. yes<
153 → Nu or watching tv, or reading a book,
154 → F a book. i think (.) the best of the parties (.) is that (.) they are
155 a di:fferent. they are different of a night out.

Excerpt 30 shows how Bernardo (Class 2), in recording 16 indirectly encourages Otilia to continue interacting during the same task by using a question (line 162) and encouraging her to try again (line 164) when she admits on lines 158-159 that she is having difficulty in achieving the task in English. By encouraging Otilia to contribute, Bernardo shows he values her continued contribution to groupwork and considers it important in achieving the task.

(30)

- 151 B [and you].
 152 C [what about you] otilia?
 153 O well em: (.) not often (1) ((smiley voice)) but: sometimes we:
 154 we (.) i and my husband (.) we go (.) to (.) a party and have
 155 a party in: our home. for example the birthday of my son
 156 B [m:hm:]
 157 O [last november] you have we have (1) a part. a party. em:
 → 158 (2) and the last em:. ai chega, não estou a conseguir isto
 → 159 ((laughs))((tra.: Ah, enough, I can't manage this))
 160 B ((laughs))
 161 C Ah:
 → 162 B ((laughs)) have you ever had a party in your house? you have
 163 O yes, like a:
 → 164 B like you said (.) it was before
 165 O <is my last party (2) i: (2) i had is the (3) new year (.) party>

Finally in excerpt 31, further examples of humour can be seen as Bernardo, Carlos and Eva in Class 2 complete the national stereotype discussion task (recording 19). The students have been asked to provide a typical name for the stereotypic Englishman today. A number of suggestions are made by all members of the group (lines 109, 112, 117 and 119) culminating in Carlos suggesting Sherlock Holmes on line 126, a fictional character well known to the Portuguese through television. The group then continue the task by describing the typical Portuguese woman today. This leads Carlos to suggest (line 198) that one difference between Portuguese women now and in the past is that in the past they had 'moustaches' i.e. facial hair, but that now women are more concerned about their appearance, and this provokes laughter amongst all three members of the triad. Laughter coupled with a productive group experience makes the learning process

more enjoyable and the more positive the group experience, the more likely students are to be attracted to the group as a whole, leading to a more cohesive group.

(31)

- 107 E what's [his name] ((laughs))
 108 C °[what's his] name°
 → 109 B john, ((laughs))
 110 E john,
 111 B john [is]
 → 112 E [william], ((laughs))
 113 B william.
 → 114 C journey pipes.
 115 E journey pipes. ((laughs))
 116 B ((laughs)) john or,
 → 117 C (2) trevor ((laughs))
 118 B trevor ((laughs))
 → 119 C trevor sinclair ((B and M laugh))
 120 B Sinclair it was the name of the: (.) the computer(.) no? °this
 121 is the: person who invent the the [first computer]°
 122 C °[somebody make] a move°
 123 B °I don't know.°
 124 C °()°
 125 B do you ?
 → 126 C °sherlock holmes°
 127 B °think of°
 128 E °sherlock °((laughs))
- 187 C womens are more beautiful, ((laughs))
 188 B they dress (.) i think they dress better and
 189 C they dress better
 190 B and take care (.) take care of
 191 C take care
 192 B their theirselves
 193 E yes
 194 C of their appearance,
 195 E yes
 196 B theirselves (.) more, (.) because in the past (2) eh: portuguese
 → 197 womens are known (2)
 198 C °basically they have ((laughs)) (1) a moustache° ((laughs))
 199 B for having a mou:stache ((all 3 laugh)) and nowadays
 200 ((laughter)) (2) with spas and ((laughter)) (4) and (2)
 201 esthetical centres, (.) they can have

Again use of humour here, as in other contexts could create a positive social dimension and encourage participation amongst learners.

5.4 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Discourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 2.

Excerpt 32 below shows Anna, Vanessa and Anabella (Ab) from Class 1 engaging in the writing task where students were asked to discuss a timeline, then write Bill's biography. In contrast to extract 10 where the participants engaged in phatic communion after completing the dictogloss task, Anna, Vanessa and Anabella sit for 22 seconds in silence (line 120), interspersed by occasional inaudible whispering in Portuguese and their silence is only broken when the teacher asks if they have finished.

Such zones of interactional transition, as mentioned before, are problematic for native and non-native speakers alike. Silence can be thought of as a sign of opting out of social engagement and it is this need to avoid silence that accounts for phatic communion, when speakers 'extend the common ground of agreement and experience shared by the participants' (Leech 1983: 142). The fact that these participants prefer to sit in silence suggests they do not feel sufficiently at ease to engage the others in 'real' conversation, and as a lack of communication is a major obstacle to the development of a cohesive group, this behaviour discourages a positive social group dimension. It also signals a lack of willingness to communicate.

(32)

106	A	°two thousand and ten.°
107	V	SO! (2) AI! ((sighs))
108	A	(2)° <i>acho que já dizemos os verbs todos</i> ° ((tra.: I think
109		we've used all the verbs)) (4) ((sounds of fingers or pen
110		drumming on desk))
111	V	>change, sell, become, < (.) yes. em:
112	Ab	(3) yes
113	V	°em:°
114	Ab	leave and not sell
115	V	(2) he <u>leave(.)</u> the the <u>teacher</u> job,
116	A	°yes, and became°
117	V	and became (.) a:
118	Ab	a <u>writer</u> .

→ 119 V a WRITER and start to (.) no became a writer, ((sounds of
 → 120 whispering)) (22) *podemos dizer agora* ((tra.: we can say
 121 now))
 122 T do you think you have you finished?
 123 V yes

5.5 Qualitative analysis of Interactions which Encourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 3.

Term 3 begins with an error correction/discussion task based on personal hypothetical questions. In excerpt 33 below, we can see the dyad Bernardo and Rute in Class 2 (recording 24), taking part in this task. In comparison to excerpts 20-21 and 23-24 in section 5.2, and excerpts 40-41 in section 5.6, where other students react negatively to Rute's halting, hesitant manner, Bernardo shows patience and encouragement in this task. On line 78 he asks for Rute's opinion which she haltingly provides on line 79, asking for confirmation ('Say, say?'). Bernardo provides this confirmation on line 81 and further encourages Rute using the acknowledgment token 'Yes' on lines 81, 85 and 87 to signal acknowledgement and agreement. He uses reformulation on line 89 in an effort to better understand her intended meaning, and offers help on line 92, all of which are strategies which attend to affect in this dyad while simultaneously scaffolding learning.

(33)

72 B <so: i will (.) i would eat,(.) and (3) after, (.) after,(.) for the
 73 next time, (.) probably,(.) i would(.) tell, (.) him, (.) to do
 74 another thing.(.) to other (.) other dish (.) other >
 75 R yes
 76 B other kind (1) of food.
 77 R yes
 → 78 B and you.
 → 79 R <me, (.) me, (.) i i (.) i would (.) i would say? say? say?
 80 say?>
 → 81 B yes
 82 R <i would say m: (.) m: (.) i'm sorry, (.) but: but i'd>
 83 B i don't like
 84 R <i i i want i want (.) know,(1) i want>
 → 85 B yes

86 R <wouldn't want (1) °would° no! i wouldn't,>
→ 87 B yes
88 R your (.) your tasties.
→ 89 B ah (.) you don't like. (.) you:
90 R (1),i'd i want °*eu não* (.)*eu nao sabia* (.)*eu nao sabia*° ((tra.:i
91 didn't i didn't know i didn't know)) i(.) i want:, (1)
→ 92 B what do you want.(.) what do you want to say.
93 R eh
94 B that eh:
95 R i want your like or your tastes.(.) i don't know your tastes.

Excerpt 34 and 35 show the dyad Deolinda and Eva taking part in the second task of term 3, and illustrates how these learners produce a collaborative overlap style indicative of their alignment to the task, characterised by one speaker chiming in to complete the other's utterances. This can be seen in lines 58-62 and 65 to 69 in excerpt 34 and throughout excerpt 35. This is thought to indicate involvement by 'giving the impression of shared views, opinions, attitudes and knowledge' (Eder 1988: 225), and a sense of rapport between speakers (Tannen 1990: 196), showing the cohesive ties which already exist between these two speakers, and further strengthening them.

(34)

55 D but (4) but the neighbours, can °get° (.) can be (.) can stay
56 angry with her
57 E yes yes (2)< usually: the first thing: you should do (.) it's to
→ 58 go (.) to [talk:]>
→ 59 D [and talk] and explain
→ 60 E <with nei: ghbours.>
→ 61 D and ask to (.) play the sound
→ 62 E yes (.) louder? no (5) down?
63 D down? I already
64 E <uh: (2) and [the:n]>
→ 65 D [down] ° but I don't°
→ 66 E <[[if: they]] don't: agree: you should: >
→ 67 D talk
→ 68 E talk:
→ 69 D to the police
70 E yes (.) from the police

(35)

116 E i don't know (4) the fi:rst: is no:t ve:ry
117 D complicated
118 E complicated to (.) yes(.) its not very complicated to: yourself
119 D but
120 E yes to to others
121 D to other per persons and it:s
122 E °complicated°
123 D complicated but: the second (.) and third one (.) are:
124 E worse
125 D and the se:cond are: violent

Finally the following excerpts from recording 23 where João and Carlos discuss the 'What if' correction and discussion task show how João in particular uses humour in this conversation.

(36)

27 C you could give your friend an advice, (.) yes and you would
28 tell him (2) a:h (.) i think the food (2)
29 J °wasn't, isn't?°
30 C is , (.) or you can be polite and tell him that the food is e:h
(2)
→ 31 J horrible ((laughter))

(37)

137 C if your friend eh
138 J has. (2) had. (1) had.
139 C had,
140 J had a horrible (1)
141 C a horrible haircut, would you tell him
→ 142 J of course!
143 C really! ((laughs))
144 J yes! ((smiley voice)) oh about the the the look, the the
→ 145 style, that I'm honest.(.) oh you are ugly (1) or oh °you are
146 hot° ((laughter)) >yes! it's true. no. no. < <if i'm really
147 close with that person> but a strange oh (.) you are so hot
148 ((laughs)) no. (laughs) no. <I can't can't use this kind of
149 expressions and socialising, socialising>
150 C and if it was a girl. would you tell her.
151 J yes!
152 C really?
153 J yes! yes!

154 C and if she was a beautiful woman, with a horrible hair.
 155 would you tell her
 156 J yes I I [askid] to a::h (2) to go to my home
 157 C and if she was a beautiful woman?
 → 158 J and I cut his, he, her hair. (.) I'mself ((laughter)) (2) > well
 159 if I cut my, I could<
 160 C >you cut your hair<?
 161 J yes !
 162 C >with a machine<?
 163 J yes! and the the the (1)
 164 C scissors.
 165 J scissors. yes ()
 166 C well in my case i think i would (.) tell her only(.) if it would
 167 be ((laughs)) only if it would be a:: close person
 168 J like your mother, your father, your brothers?
 169 C my mother my sister, my brother my
 → 170 J >you have a sister<?
 171 C °no°
 172 J ah! ((laughter))
 173 C eh [my cousin]
 174 J [but you'd like?]
 175 C if i like to have a sister? yes i would like (1) now it's not
 176 possible but i would like to have (smiley voice)
 → 177 J well maybe your parents right now, (2) having,
 178 C no it's not possible. ((laughter)) they are too old.
 179 ((laughter))

Bell (2011:134) notes that little empirical research has been carried out on the use and comprehension of L2 humour, but notes that theories of verbal humour have traditionally been based on the notion of incongruity. She adds that types of humour include 'jokes narratives or anecdotes, one-liners, puns, riddles, irony, banter, hyperbole, teases, pranks, wordplay, mockery and parody'. However, scholars often use canned jokes to understand humour mechanisms and these typologies may not accurately reflect conversational humour (Bell, 2011: 143). Recently more interest has been shown in episodes of humour shared by the teacher and learners in the classroom (Reddington & Waring 2015). These researchers mention repetition, style shifts, role reversal and understatement as additional humour typologies (2015: 2) and identify three ways in which learners in the L2 classroom initiate humour through what they term disaligning extensions, by 'using a syntactically fitted extension to accomplish pragmatic subversion' through sequence pivots by 'producing talk that pivots to a new course of action' and

sequence misfits, by ‘producing a turn not projected by prior talk’ (2015: 17). Excerpt 36 line 31 shows João taking part in a disaligning extension by completing Carlos’s expression on the previous line. The preferred completion would have been ‘Tell him that the food is good’. By extending Carlos’s expression using ‘Horrible’, João is being playful and this is treated by both as such.

Episodes of humour in the data have already been presented in this study. Excerpt 10 for example shows Filomena being playful while ‘doing-the-teacher’. Here on lines 78 and 80 Filomena overtly embodies the role of the teacher by shifting her style of delivery to that of the disapproving teacher, thereby invoking laughter in the others. Incongruity could be the explanation for the laughter which greets Fatima’s admission on lines 202, 204 and 206 in excerpt 27 that she isn’t a good cook, but that her husband is, and she encourages him to cook whatever he likes as she is willing to taste it, the incongruity here being reversal of the traditional roles of husband and wife in Portuguese society. Excerpt 31, and the mention of the moustachioed women is an example of hyperbole or an anecdotal reminiscence of life in Portugal in the past and excerpt 37 shows how João and Carlos together construct a humorous imaginary scenario. From lines 144-149, João initially discusses how he would tell someone if they were hot or ugly, then, from lines 150-159 they discuss how João would invite a beautiful woman to his house to cut her hair as he cuts his hair himself. Lastly, on line 170, João is involved in a sequence misfit (Reddington and Waring 2015: 13) by attending to Carlos’s comment on his sister rather than attending to the topic under discussion – if someone had a horrible haircut would they tell him/her. As noted by Reddington and Waring this type of extension often has a subversive overtone, in this case unmasking Carlos as telling lies for the purpose of the task. On line 177 João continues in a similar view teasing Carlos by suggesting that perhaps at that moment his parents are having sex and that he might still have a sister in the future. Again both treat these sequences as humorous as can be seen through their mutual laughter.

It would therefore seem that some of the learners in this study are adept at ‘being playful’ in the language learning classroom, and can bring their real world ‘playful’ personas to bear in peer interaction. Their humorous talk serves to make

the language learning experience more enjoyable and motivating, could lower the affective filter, broadens the range of interactional patterns amongst peers, offers learning opportunities and allows them to explore different identities.

5.6 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions which Discourage a Positive Social Dimension, Term 3.

In excerpt 38 the dyad Neema and Iris (Class 1), while completing the first task in term 3 fail to sustain or develop the interaction. Neema seems to have little interest in the answers of her partner (lines 27, 40, 42 & 47). Their discussion is also characterised by frequent pauses and due to their lack of interaction they finish the task more than 3 minutes earlier than other groups, and spend most of this time sitting silently waiting for the others to complete. On line 20 Neema asks Iris the first question and Iris replies on lines 23 to 26. This is received on line 27 by the news receipt response ‘Uh’ which discourages elaboration (Wong & Waring 2010: 71), and is followed by Neema’s instruction, ‘Now you can ask me’. Iris on line 28 asks the question which Neema answers on the following line. This is followed by affiliative laughter on the part of Iris on line 31 which allows Neema to continue and expand on her reply on line 32. Again on line 33 Iris encourages expansion on the part of Neema on lines 34-36, which allows for a learning opportunity in the form of a request for confirmation on the part of Neema related to the word ‘continent’, which Iris gives on line 37. On line 39 Iris picks up on Neema’s topic of conversation (Asia) and shares the fact that she has never been there which is received on the following line by ‘Yes’, another news receipt response discouraging elaboration. When Iris tries to further expand in the following line Neema, after a 2 second pause, moves on to the next question. Pauses generally signal some problem in the interaction, although it is unclear why Neema might regard Iris’s attempt to personalise the conversation a problem. Finally on line 47, after Iris’s response to Neema’s question on line 42, Neema’s reply is another news receipt response ‘Mhm’.

We have no way of knowing why Neema shows little interest in Iris's responses. It could be she doesn't understand and feels embarrassed about asking, or it could be that she simply isn't interested. Whatever the reason, there is a distinct lack of a social dimension to the task which negatively impacts on the provision of learning opportunities, given that the interactive work which provides such opportunities is curtailed here.

(38)

- 20 N if you friend had a (.) horrible haircut. (.) would you tell him or
 21 (.) or her. yes. ok. (.) now question.(3) em: if you won.(.) a lot
 22 of money. (.) you would move house?
 23 I (1) no, i think if i had,(.) first of all(.) i will pay (.) everything i
 24 need, (.) for example (.) my (2) m: my () bank, (.) or (.) or my
 25 (.)my job, and (.) in (.) in final (.) i (.) °i will buy a house°. but
 26 i have credit.
 → 27 N uh:. (.) now (.) you can ask me.
 → 28 I yes.((smiley voice))> if you won a lot of money you would
 29 move house?<
 → 30 N >i i'd absolutely move house.<
 → 31 I (laughs)
 → 32 N <ah: in: a (.) in a:sia. asia.>
 → 33 I yes ah. [move house and country].
 34 N <[i i] yes(.) yes my house. i (.) love e: asia,(1) i love asia,
 35 a: very interesting country(1) exciting (1) country(2)
 → 36 continent?>
 → 37 I continent
 38 N continent
 → 39 I i never stayed in asia.
 → 40 N yes.
 → 41 I i never (.) but i want to visit(.) some day.
 → 42 N (2) what would you do, if you didn't like the food your friend
 43 cooked for you.
 44 I it depends(.) of the (1) the (.) my friendship with her. if I know
 45 her for a long of time, (.) i didn't liked the food. but if i know
 46 her (.) for a few of days.(.) i eat. ((laughs))
 → 47 N mhm:
 48 I what would you do if you didn't like the food your friend
 49 cooked for you.

Excerpt 39 shows Neema, Anabela, Iris and Silvia taking part in the second task in term 3. This group seem to have difficulty starting the activity and sit for 1 minute 6 seconds in silence, while the other groups can be heard discussing the

topics in the background. In contrast to the other group in this class who were recorded doing the same activity, they sit silently reading the questions rather than reading aloud. This results in an additional 23 second silence before they start discussing situation 1, 24 seconds of silence between situation 1 and 2, and a 39 second silence between questions 2 and 3. The significance of silence in conversation has already been discussed. Here it would seem that there is little rapport between these learners, who limit their interaction to the task at hand.

(39)

- 1 T (66) if you can share anabela
- 2 A ok
- 3 T with neema and just exchange ideas about what
- 4 A yes (3) when you(.) finish. (4) you want to read first? (3) read
- 5 and (2) decide what the people should °have done° ((reads
- 6 from the tasksheet))
- 7 Ne (23) °ah yeah° in my opinion she should've eh sh should've
- 8 (2) left(.) him () immediately.

Excerpts 40 and 41 show Rute, Olivia and Marta taking part in the final dictogloss activity (Class 2). In excerpt 40 Rute starts retelling the story which continues for 11 lines with only two interruptions (lines 2 and 10) from Marta, when she echoes Rute, and which ends when Rute is contradicted by Olivia on line 12. This virtual monologue by Rute is unusual as discourse in other conversations has been characterised by learners interacting with each other, asking, helping, disagreeing and turn taking. The fact that neither Marta nor Olivia are keen on taking part in the interaction can be seen on lines 27 and 28 when Rute urges both to continue telling the story which is met with Marta's 'Continue' (line 28). Rute then takes up the story on the following line and continues for a further 2 turns (lines 29 and 31) until she is vehemently contradicted by Olivia then by both Olivia and Marta on 3 separate occasions (lines 33-37). It could be that Olivia and Marta intend this disagreement to be taken lightheartedly. However if this is their intention, it seems to be misunderstood by Rute who responds negatively.

(40)

- 1 R in august eh: (1) 2000,
→ 2 M °°2000°°,
3 R < a couple (.) a young couple em: (3) started em: (4) started
4 (1) to get on well. ((clears throat))°i think yes°((clears throat))
5 em: (4) he wa:s, a student, science science student, (3) jennif
6 jennifer his(.) his girl girlfriend, (3) eh: get on well with him,
7 (2) but (1) eh: she thought (3) eh: she thought (1) this
8 relationshi:p wasn't very good (2) wasn't very good (1) and
9 broke broke (1) this relationship >
→ 10 M relationship,
11 R again. (3) eh: so (.) she (.) she had a bad accident,
→ 12 O no, a car accident
13 R she had a (.) she had a(.) bad car accident, (2) and
14 M james
15 R she she she
16 M james?
17 R jennifer (1) jennifer
18 M yes.
19 R and she (1) she went (2) she went to the hospital.
20 M and james?
21 R james,
22 M go to the
23 R james vis:it:ed: her (2) in the hospital.
24 O °later°
25 M and got back (.) together.
26 O then two years later,
→ 27 R (1) >tell tell tell.< °tell you° tell!
→ 28 O continue.
→ 29 R (2) two years later,
30 M yes yes
→ 31 R (1) they(.) they broke again I
32 M no
→ 33 O >NO::!?!<
34 R >they(.) they start<
→ 35 O >NO::!?!<
36 R >they got on well<
→ 37 O& M >NO::!?!<
38 M have a thing. (1) one children,

We could say that the first 38 lines of this task are composed of Rute singlehandedly retelling the dictogloss due to Marta and Olivia's unwillingness to do so, even when encouraged to contribute, with the only contributions from Marta and Olivia being short interventions, mostly repetitions on the part of Marta, or

disagreement. There is very little collaboration in this story telling activity which can only serve to discourage cohesion between group members.

Excerpt 41 picks up on this same conversation at a later stage. By this stage all 3 interactants are contributing to the discussion. However, there continues to be disagreement between Rute and the others as can be seen on lines 72, 74, 76, 82, 97, 100, 101 and 104. Here there appears to be a lack of compromise on the part of the interactants, and a sense of impatience with each other (line 82). Rute and Olivia in particular have their own point of view and seem unwilling or incapable of working together to come to some consensus of opinion, which again hinders the formation of a cohesive group.

(41)

- 69 R <and james, (1) started, or had or (.) have had (1) have had,
70 (.) have, had. (.) have, had.(.) have, (1) had, (.) one (.) a
71 relationshi:p: (1) yes.>
→ 72 O NO! have got.
73 M (1) °°have got°°
→ 74 R >no, no. (.) have got, no!.<
75 M °ok.°
→ 76 R have got, no!. (3) rela:tion.(2) *o que está escrita (.) como e*
77 *que escreve* relation ((tra.: what's written there? how do you
- 78 spell relation?))
79 O re:la: (.) i (.) o (.) *tires este e (.) i -o- n* ((tra.: i o take out
80 this e, i-o-n))
81 R relati (.) *e um x?* ((tra.: is it an x?))
→ 82 O NÃO! (3) ((tra.: No!)) *r-e-l-a-t-i-o-n* ((spells out word in
83 Portuguese))
84 R ah (2) relationship. (2) rela
85 O °why you use have had. (1) *e não* ((tra.: and not)) [don't
86 have]°
87 R >[*é é]porque a relação mantenha se ate hoje*.< ((tra.:
88 because the relationship continues till today))
89 M °sim mas termine,° ((tra.: yes but it finishes))
90 O I use this
91 R (2) they broke. (.) they broke it.
92 O (3) *tenho tido?* ((tra.: have got?)) have got.
93 R *portanto eles têm* ((tra.: so they have))
94 M (1) in english.
95 O °in english.°
96 R have had.
→ 97 O why! have had. (.) *é* not (tra.: and not)) (.) have got.
98 M °°I don't (.) I don't°°

- 99 R go:t its possession. it's possession (.) have got is possession!
 → 100 O no, (1) no only.
 → 101 R >no no.i don't agree with you.<
 102 M she (.) in august of 2 (.) 2000 jenni,(.) jennifer and james
 103 have got.(.) have had,
 → 104 R no (.) for me, (.) no.

In excerpt 42 Diana, Carolina and Anna (Class 1) are taking part in the final dictogloss activity. They finish their work and sit in silence for 10 seconds. This is remarked upon by Carolina (line 162), but the group then sit in silence for a further 24 seconds before Carolina attempts to start a conversation about the weather, a popular theme for phatic communion, with ‘God, I’m so hot’, on line 164. However, this is ignored by the others and Diana goes back to discussing a sentence from their text. The rest of the interaction is characterised by short utterances and pauses until the teacher brings the activity to a close on line 172. This is a further example of the situation previously discussed in excerpt 32.

(42)

- 160 A °ok°
 161 L1 (6) ((Sigh, sounds of pages turning))
 → 162 C (4) °° silence! °°
 → 163 D (24) °mhm:°
 → 164 C god i'm so hot
 165 D ° they got back.°
 166 C °yes.°
 167 D (2)° porque () foi uma coisa que mesmo aconteceu° <
 168 ((tra.: because () it was something that really happened))
 169 C yes.
 170 D (9) little! ((calling out to other group)) (.) a little baby girl.
 171 C (4) so she broke,
 172 T (5) How're you doing.

5.7 Summary

This work presented in this chapter qualitatively analysed the interactions of small groups in Classes 1 and 2 throughout the academic year as they performed various oral tasks. Table 5.1 summarises features of the interaction which could discourage a positive social dimension and Table 5.2 summarises features which could encourage a positive social dimension. It is interesting to note that examples of both types of interactions were found in Class 1 and Class 2. This suggests that interaction which promotes a positive social dimension is not exclusively a feature of Class 1, the self-selecting cohesive group, but could be more closely related to the affective climate between the learners in their small groups as they interact. If learning is indeed rooted in the learner's participation in social practice and if this is continuously changing and adapting according to circumstances during talk-in-interaction, then it is the social interaction with the members of the group who are taking part in the interaction and not the group as a whole which would give rise to the social dimension of interaction.

Table 5.1 Features of the Interaction which could Discourage a Positive Social Dimension

Features of interaction	Description/Example
Unmitigated outright disagreement	No
Self-repetition	To assert the speakers own point of view
Dominant participant	When one participant dominates the interaction
Disengagement of one or more participants from the interaction	One participant stops contributing and the others do not ask for his/her opinion
Impatience	Interrupting
Extended silences	Especially at zones of interactional transition e.g. at beginning or end of task

Table 5.2 Features of the Interaction which could Promote a Positive Social Dimension.

Features of interaction	Description/Example
Declaring a consensus of opinion	'We all agree on that'
Asking for the opinions of others /encouraging others to contribute	'It's correct, no?'/ 'Tell you!'
Suggesting leaving a controversial point till later	'We can make later'
Sympathising with the point of view of others	'I understand what you're saying'
Compromising own opinion in favour of group consensus	'You can say that'
Light heartedness/humour	References to Sherlock Holmes, moustachioed ladies etc.
Phatic utterances /affective markers	'OK', 'Yeah', 'Mhmm' to signal agreement.
Praise	'Good Bernardo'. 'Outstanding!'
Using first names	'I think it's correct Liliana'
Attending to the feelings of others	'Don't worry, please'
Other repetition	To engage with and legitimise contributions
Collaborative overlap discourse style	Where one speaker completes the other's utterances
Waiting/ showing patience	Giving a hesitant partner time to express themselves
Use of mitigating expressions and hedges to minimise disagreement	'Five or twenty five?' 'I think it's that'
Sharing personal information	Holiday destinations (excerpt 10), home cooking (excerpt 27).
Asking further questions/ showing interest	Extending the discourse e.g. 'Which kind of food is more famous in Morocco?'
Referring to the positive nature of the class group	'We are the best'

Having qualitatively described features of the interaction which attend to affective states. I will now turn my attention to a qualitative examination of features which lead to learning opportunities.

CHAPTER 6 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF PEER INTERACTION FOR BEHAVIOURS WHICH LEAD TO LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES

This chapter analyses transcripts of the oral tasks Classes 1 and 2 took part in over the academic year for behaviour which could lead to learning opportunities. The sociocognitive framework used here to study L2 interaction examines moves beyond the level of the individual learner and instead analyses how learners work in their ZPDs to collaborate and achieve their goals. This allows a better understanding of how learners share understandings and how language learning is advanced.

Here learning behaviours have been organised according to type and examples are given from across the academic year. Transcripts of the oral tasks were read and re-read while simultaneously listening to the recordings, as only by determining intonation patterns could utterances be accurately coded. For example, what on paper could appear to be a statement, could in actual fact be a request for clarification. Learning behaviours were then identified and are organised into sections below. These are 6.1 which relates to languaging and private speech, 6.2 which relates to error correction, known as repair practices in CA, 6.3 which explores episodes of collective scaffolding, 6.4 which refers to classroom affordances and 6.5 which considers how learners individually grapple with language. This chapter finishes with a summary in 6.6.

6.1 Languaging and Private speech

Excerpt 19, where participants are discussing how to correct the phrase ‘We immediately felt in love’ has already been discussed in Chapter 5 as an example of an interaction which discourages a positive social dimension, due to the fact that throughout the task Filomena (F) is ‘doing-being-the-teacher’ and appears to be

verbalising her own thought processes rather than engaging with the discourse of the other participants. This can be seen when we consider Filomena's turns, especially lines 47, 49, 51, 53, 56 and 58 which appear to be self-directed and used to organise her own thoughts. In fact, if these utterances are strung together it can be seen that they form coherent discourse, 'No, no. Hang on. Hang on. You feel and you felt, OK? You feel is present, you felt is past. But here the expression is fall in love so the past of the fall is fell'. Filomena is speaking to organise her own thoughts and these verbalised thoughts are interspersed by the contributions of the others. It is a monologue disguised as peer interaction but there is no real interaction amongst the interactants during considerable stretches of the task.

Although possibly detrimental in terms of promoting a positive affective dimension amongst group members, this 'talking-it-through' or languaging has been posited as a source of learning (Swain 2010: 112). Swain believes that one aspect of languaging, similar to the idea of 'self-explanation' described in the cognitive physiological literature, is 'explaining to oneself or to others, that which is cognitively complex for the speaker', which then allows 'further elaboration and shaping of the now realized idea'. (Swain 2010: 115) Through languaging, ideas are crystallised. Through using language to resolve the error correction problem, Filomena transforms her cognitive processes into words, which in turn makes these processes more accessible to herself and perhaps the others in the group, affording a learning opportunity which allows them to reach new meanings and understandings.

Closely related to the concept of languaging is that of private speech, which includes repetition, imitation and solitary language play, that is, self-addressed language when the learner is alone, and social context language play, when private speech is produced in the presence of others. Ohta believes that private speech in second language learning serves to develop oral skills by allowing learners to engage in oral manipulation of the language and actively engage in resolving difficulties, whether these be problems of pronunciation or grammar (Ohta 2001: 68). This same researcher found that in the Japanese learning classroom, L2 private speech was a feature of lock-step, teacher fronted settings and was rare in peer

interactions, as learners lacked the private space necessary to work on their own private interactive activity. It is therefore interesting to note that in extracts 23 and 24, this is precisely what Rute does. Various interactions in excerpts 20-22 lead to Rute largely disengaging from the group task and in this way she creates her own private space in which she interacts with herself orally through private speech.

In her studies on Japanese language learners, Ohta found that private speech most commonly involved repetition which is also the case here, and multiple instances of repetition can be seen in excerpts 23 and 24. Rute starts on line 269 in excerpt 23 whispering the phrase to be corrected, 'Eat fish keeps you healthy'. This continues intermittently until line 308, when Rute embarks on the last sentence for correction 'My dad gave me a lift because it was rain hard', considerably ahead of the other learners in the group. The most frequent type of repetition recorded in the literature involves repetition of the teacher's utterances, repetition of new language, repeating corrections of errors and manipulation of grammatical and morphological structures (Ohta 2001: 54-64). Here Rute repeats sections of the sentences for correction which may help focus her attention on these phrases, and demonstrates her agency in working towards a solution. It is a private space she has created in the context of group interaction where she works to puzzle over language. In this way it is similar to the private speech Irene engages in in recording 3, and which has already been discussed in relation to excerpt 17 where confronted with Filomena's languaging, Irene also withdraws to a private space to grapple with the problem by herself.

6.2 Repair Practices

Oral interaction provides learners with the opportunity to produce more complex language and to modify or correct their output. In this section the different ways peer oral interaction provides opportunities for learners to address non-target-like use of the language is considered. It shows how flexible and adaptable repair moves are in different classrooms and with different learners. Episodes of repair

practices have been divided into two sections: 6.2.1 relates to other repair, also known as peer correction, and 6.2.2 refers to self-repair.

6.2.1 Other repair

Excerpts 43 and 44 below show examples of other repair, given in response to episodes of non-target like pronunciation in Class 2 Term 2 where Carlos, Deolinda and Rute are discussing Task 1, the timeline writing activity. Both involve pronunciation of irregular past tense verbs. In the first extract Carlos is involved in other-initiated other-repair of Rute's pronunciation of 'won' and in the second, Rute similarly corrects Deolinda's pronunciation of 'bought'.

(43)

- | | | | |
|---|-----|---|---|
| | 150 | D | a: nd (1) five years later |
| | 151 | R | ° 5 years later ° ? |
| | 152 | D | he (.) he won a best <u>novel</u> |
| → | 153 | R | <he (.) he he he he [o:wn] (.) ? he [o:wn]?> |
| → | 154 | C | (1) no. (1) won. |
| → | 155 | R | no? |
| | 156 | D | he >won won won< |
| | 157 | R | wo:n? |
| | 158 | D | a best novel? |
| → | 159 | R | <won (.) won (.) won (.) an <u>awarded</u> ? award award> |

(44)

- | | | | |
|---|-----|---|--|
| → | 209 | D | and one year later he (.) [bo:th] (.) his first house till now. |
| → | 210 | R | he bought |
| → | 211 | D | he bought. |

Excerpt 43 exemplifies explicit correction, also known as exposed correction in CA (Wong & Waring 2010: 238). On line 153 Rute signals the trouble source (pronunciation of the verb 'own') through repetition and rising intonation. Carlos's correction on the following line is mitigated by a one second pause, perhaps to allow Rute time to self-repair. His correction is initially queried by Rute on line 155 but is then accepted on line 159, which can be seen through Rute's repetition of the corrected form. On line 210 in excerpt 44 Rute uses a recast, also

known as an embedded correction in CA to correct Deolinda. That is, she does not explicitly mention Deolinda's incorrect pronunciation, but simply provides positive evidence of what is acceptable (Philp, Adams & Iwashita 2014: 38). Both examples show uptake of the correction, that is, both Rute and Deolinda repeat the corrected statement, indicating recognition of the modification (Philp, Adams & Iwashita 2014: 40).

Excerpt 45 shows another example of Carlos explicitly correcting a colleague, this time in the discussion task on social networks (Term 2 task 2) with Bernardo and Otilia. Here the correction relates to an item of vocabulary. On line 39 Otilia talks about her build although she is in fact referring to her building. However her frequent hesitations and repetition signal a trouble source and give Carlos the opportunity to offer a correction on line 40, where he suggests the word is flat rather than build. Otilia's swift reply in Portuguese on line 41, combined with her falling intonation show she does not readily accept this correction, and her comment on the following line that the correct translation for flat is apartamento seem more like a statement of fact, an affirmation of the truth, than a personal opinion. In this way she makes it clear that she disagrees with Carlos's suggestion. He however reaffirms his previous statement on the following line with the single word 'Prédio' which translates as 'building' in Portuguese, (although Carlos is wrong as the translation of flat is 'apartamento', not 'prédio'). This could be a moment of tension, as two members of the group are in disagreement with each other and neither seems disposed to negotiate the issue with the other. Here Bernardo intervenes on line 43 to tentatively offer an alternative, 'block', which he presumably hopes will diffuse the tension and allow the conversation to move forward. After a 2 second pause, Otilia utters 'whatever' perhaps in an effort to trivialise the disagreement, then laughs. Laughter is one way speakers have of ameliorating confrontations (Arminem and Haloren 2007 cited by Glenn & Holt, 2013), which would appear to be its function here. She continues to use her choice of vocabulary on line 44, although on this occasion the word 'build' is used with tentative rising intonation, in contrast to her previous assertive tone. This therefore is an example of explicit correction with no modification of output, and could shed

some light as to why students in both classes stated that error correction was the behaviour they were least likely to engage in during oral tasks.

(45)

- 33 C so it's not a nice place to: (1) to meet new people? do you
 34 think [it's not]
 35 O [[yes!]]
 36 C >yes it can be.<
 37 O >yes. yes.< [it is it is]
 38 B [[perhaps there']]
 → 39 O because (2) in my build for example (.) in my build (3) in
 → 40 C i think it's not a build (.) it's flat. *predio*. ((tra.:building))flat.
 → 41 O >flat é *apartamento*. <((tra.:is flat))
 → 42 C (1) *predio*. ((tra.:building))
 → 43 B in my block *se calhar* (.) *não?*((tra.:maybe (1) no?))
 → 44 O (2) >whatever.< ((laughs)) in my (.) in my build? (2) in 5
 45 years i have (2) 2 or 3 (.) new neighbours

Excerpts 46 and 47 show examples of peer correction related to morpho-syntax. In excerpt 46 Class 2 students Rute, Carlos and Deolinda discuss the timeline writing task (Term 2 task 1). Rute produces the erroneous form 'get engaged' on line 109 which is recast as 'got engaged' by Carlos on line 112 and repeated by Deolinda on line 113. Although this is not taken up immediately, Rute later repeats her initial erroneous form 'He get ...' on line 121, followed by a short pause and her same turn repair 'He got'. Here the correction successfully leads to modified output on the part of Rute.

(46)

- 109 R <he he was engaged, (.) he get engaged,>
 110 D he fell in love,
 111 R in (1) yes
 → 112 C got. (.) got engaged.
 → 113 D got
 114 R he fell in love.(.) he fell in love.
 115 C yes
 116 D hmm,
 117 C and he married [marion]
 118 R [and one] one one year later,(.) one year
 119 later, (.) he he married,
 120 D yes with marion

- 121 R he get married (.) he got married,
 (47)
- 12 A reached to the::
 13 An high school,
 → 14 A the high school, (3) to Germany.
 → 15 V in Germany
 16 An the main subject it's the:

Extract 47 shows Anna, Anabella (An) and Vanessa in Class 1 also discussing the same time line writing task and shows another example of a recast or implicit correction, with Vanessa substituting Anna's use of the preposition 'to' (line 14), with 'in' (line 15). Here there is no evidence that Anna has noticed the correction or that there has been any uptake, as there is no repetition of the corrected phrase. Most teachers would believe that repetition of a correction makes it more salient and in teacher-student interaction, the teacher would generally invite the student to repeat the phrase with the correction. In the teacher's absence, this opportunity to consolidate the correction is lost. However, studies have found that even in the absence of an overt response, corrective feedback, whether it be explicit or implicit, can have a positive effect (Mackey & Philp 1998).

The efficacy of the two types of error correction mentioned above, explicit error correction and recasts, has been the subject of much discussion in the literature with some researchers believing that explicit correction is more effective than recasts (Lyster 2004), some that they are equally effective (Lyster & Izquierdo 2009) and others that recasts are more effective than explicit correction (Ayoun 2001). The effectiveness of recasts could be due to the juxtaposition of target-like and non-target like utterances which makes the error more salient and so draws the learner's attention to the mismatch, thus providing an opportunity for interlanguage development (Mackey 2012: 125).

The above examples, with the exception of excerpt 45, discussed episodes where peers correctly rectified the morpho syntax, pronunciation, or lexis of others. Extracts 48 and 49 show examples of peer's non-target like correction of others. Extract 48 shows Fatima (Fa), Miguel and Francisca (Class 1) discussing the

timeline writing task in Term1 and extract 49 shows Miguel and Beatriz (Class 1) discussing the dictogloss activity (Term 1, task 2).

(48)

- 15 F he got (1) <the main subject> in German.
 → 16 Fa in 1998, (1) so when he was (.) 18 years old, <he fa:ll he
 → 17 fe:ll>
 → 18 Mi he felt in love,
 → 19 Fa he felt in love, (.) he felt in love, (1) with

In excerpt 48, we see Fatima successfully self-correcting the present tense of the verb ‘fall’, to the past, ‘fell’ on lines 16-17. However this is peer corrected on the following line by Miguel to the past of the verb feel rather than the past of fall, which leads Fatima to repeat the erroneous form ‘felt in love’ on line 19. This example is interesting as we saw Miguel take part in a lengthy repair segment on this very error ‘felt in love’ which he and his group successfully corrected in the error correction task in Term 1. However this correction appears not to have been taken up by Miguel as he again produces the erroneous form in Term 2.

In excerpt 49, Miguel notices the difference between his correct form, ‘I didn’t know’ and Beatriz’s erroneous form ‘I didn’t knew’ on line 87, but his hesitation suggests he is unsure. Challenged by Beatriz on line 89 he accepts her correction on line 90.

(49)

- 87 Mi i put because i didn’t kno:w (1) but(2) ° I didn’t know (.)
 88 that television was invented in (2) by a scottish.°
 → 89 B I didn’t kne::w? not I didn’t know.
 → 90 Mi yes I didn’t knew (.) yes (.) it’s past.
 → 91 B °i didn’t knew that television was invented in 1925 (.) by
 92 a scottish.°

This raises the question as to whether feedback from learners is reliable, a question which has led both teachers and students to suggest that learners may receive non-target like input or correction from others who subsequently may not be able to correct each other. It also echoes the words of Olivia, who when

interviewed stated she didn't like talking to her peers as she didn't understand them because 'they don't speak well', and those of Neema who said she didn't believe oral activities with classmates were helpful as she could 'learn some words' that weren't correct. However, Ohta has found that peer interaction provides a better setting for students to apply what they have learned from recasts and that corrective feedback episodes are more common in peer interaction than in teacher-fronted settings (2001: 175-177). Studies have been carried out in an attempt to ascertain if peers pick up each other's errors but results have been inconclusive. Ohta (2001: 117) suggests that errors produced during oral interaction actually promote language learning as they promote noticing and any misunderstandings can be clarified during the teacher-led post task language focus. She further suggests that peer interaction increases accuracy as it provides the opportunity for learners to attend to their own errors and those of their peers (2001: 124). It is my belief that although students may provide non-target like feedback to peers in oral interaction, any such disadvantages of interaction are far outweighed by the many opportunities for learning created. In addition, results in Chapter 7 show that learners produce many more target-like peer and self-repair sequences than non-target like.

6.2.2 Self Repair

In excerpts 50 and 51 we can see two examples of self-repair amongst learners in Class 2. The first involves Deolinda (line 191) and João (line 285) self-correcting when discussing social networks in Term 2, while the second shows Otilia, (line 64) and then Bernardo (line 140) while discussing the same theme with Carlos.

(50)

- 191 D it's my best party i ever (1) i have been to.
- 280 J well it's interesting because when I went to Conimbriga, (.)
- 281 D mhmm,
- 282 J was in a programme (1) *Ciencias no Verão*, ((tra.:Science
- 283 in the summer,))
- 284 D mhmm,
- 285 J and (.) I have a (1) and I had a tour,
- 286 D Ok,
- 287 J (.) a free tour,

(51)

- 63 O i usually(.) i usually ask about (.) the childrens or about the
64 the: (1) the (.) his wo (.) their work
- 140 B how often you go to parties. do you go to parties.

These four episodes of self-repair above all relate to errors of syntax, namely verb tenses or forms, and pronouns, and are all examples of successful correction. Research on peer interaction in a Thai university found that 83% of learners modified output was self-initiated rather than peer initiated (McDonough 2004: 221) so it may be that the space peer interaction provides for the individual to correct their own output is more important than the opportunity it provides for other correction. The ability to self-correct is indicative of noticing on the part of the learner and it is the learner's output during peer interaction which affords this noticing opportunity.

As there are examples of erroneous peer correction, there are also examples of non-target-like self-correction in the corpus. In excerpt 52, Deolinda in discussion with João over socialising (Class 2, term 2) produces a non-target like self-correction.

(52)

- 117 D and that party was the best party you ever had (.) ever been?

6.3 Collective Scaffolding

In socio-cultural theory, language learning is seen as being based in interactions, where learners manifest new language while interacting with others. Scaffolding is the name given to the supportive dialogue a learner receives from a more able peer or the teacher and which allows the learner to work through the successive steps of a problem he or she cannot solve alone. Collective scaffolding

occurs when learners collectively construct a scaffold for each other's performance securing correct knowledge for their individual incomplete and incorrect knowledge (Donato 1994: 45).

These students have constructed for each other a *collective scaffold* (original italics). During this interaction, the speakers are at the same time individually novices and collectively experts, sources of new orientations for each other, and guides through this complex linguistic problem solving. What is most striking is that although marked individual linguistic differences exist at the onset of the interaction, the co-construction of the collective scaffold progressively reduces the distance between the task and individual abilities. (Donato 1994: 46)

This scaffolding may provide an opportunity for language learning by collectively allowing learners to produce and comprehend utterances which are beyond their individual current level of ability. Studies in L1 have shown that the collaborative participation caregivers provide when engaging with children learning their L1 'is a precursor of independent performance' (Moerk 1992 cited by Ohta 2001: 92).

What can be seen in excerpts 53 and 54 are examples of collective scaffolding where learners from Class 2 and Class 1 respectively work collaboratively to reconstruct the sentence 'If she hadn't had an accident, they might never have seen one another again' from the dictogloss activity at the end of term 3. They realise this through a variety of strategies: by chiming in with the next word or phrase, termed co-construction (Ohta 2001: 91), by peer correcting, by testing various grammatical or lexical hypotheses, by suggesting, by requesting and receiving help, through translation and use of L1. Learners also use technical metalanguage, defined by Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2002: 5) as:

Metalinguistic [...] terms used to indicate the explicit consideration of language [...]. Technical terms (e.g. 'tag questions') are items likely to be found in a grammar book.

What both excerpts have in common is collaborative talk serving to resolve a linguistic problem which no individual speaker is capable of initially.

Both excerpts are similar in that they show how both groups struggle with this sentence on two occasions throughout the task. In excerpt 53 Carlos, Mariana and Bernardo in Class 2 initially discuss the sentence over 16 lines (lines 374-390) but fail to reach a consensus of opinion. They break this sentence down into its component clauses, as do the Class 1 students, and attempt to reconstruct each clause separately. Carlos starts on line 376 by suggesting ‘If she wouldn’t have had the accident’ which is corrected by Mariana on line 377 to ‘she hadn’t had’. This correction however seems to go unheeded by Carlos and Bernardo while Bernardo uses repetition (lines 379, 380 & 382) perhaps to provide thinking time. This section culminates in Carlos’s attempt to correct the sentence as ‘if she wouldn’t have the accident they wouldn’t be together (line 386)’. However after deciding that this is incorrect, the group move on and only return to the sentences after an additional 35 turns, on lines 428-448

(53)

- 374 C *ponto*.((tra.: full stop.)) they had a child,(.)> *não escrevem*.
 375 ((tra.: don’t write)) they had a child,< (.) and,(.) she realised
 → 376 she (.) if she wouldn’t have (.) had (.) the accident,
 → 377 M she hadn’t had
 378 C they wouldn’t be together
 → 379 B she wouldn’t have,(.) she wouldn’t have,(.) ((C laughs)) she
 → 380 wouldn’t have, (3)
 381 C [she realised she wouldn’t have]
 → 382 B [[she wouldn’t have,]] (.) she wouldn’t have,
 383 C she wouldn’t have had
 384 B get back together
 485 M they couldn’t
 → 386 C if she wouldn’t have (1) if she wouldn’t have (2) the
 387 accident they wouldn’t be together. *isto soa bem?* ((tra.:
 388 does that sound right?))
 → 389 M no
 390 ((laughter))
- 428 T is this your last sentence?
 429 M yes.
 → 430 B she wouldn’t,(4)*é terceiro*. ((tra.: it’s third)) (.) *o terceiro é*
 431 *o* ((tra.: the third is the)) past participle ()
 → 432 C finally she realised if she hadn’t (.) had an accident
 433 M past participle, >*isto é o terceiro*< ((tra. this is the third))
 434 B >have mais ((tra.: plus)) past participle.<
 435 M have mais, ((tra.: plus))

436 B °>então está certo °((tra.: so that's correct)) escreve get get
 → 437 back together.< (.) get (.)back,
 438 M no get back
 439 B >she get back together.<
 → 440 M >get got<
 441 B >no no<
 → 442 C >they wouldn't have<
 443 B >past participle<
 444 C got together
 445 M >got got<
 → 446 B >got back together.<
 447 C they wouldn't have got
 448 B back together.

In comparison to their first attempt, this time the group use metalanguage and L1 to resolve the problem. On line 430 Bernardo, using Portuguese, identifies that the sentence is an example of the 3rd conditional and on line 432 Carlos correctly supplies the first clause of the sentence 'Finally she realised if she hadn't had an accident'. On line 437 Bernardo suggests 'get back together' as a possible continuation, however Mariana (line 440) corrects the present get to the past tense got, and on lines 442 and 446 Carlos, then Bernardo supply the conclusion of the sentence 'they wouldn't have got back together'.

Excerpt 54 shows a different initial situation. Here Anna, Carolina and Diana are discussing the same sentence (lines 36-52). However they show a lack of engagement with the task and seem content with the resolution they achieve after only 5 turns 'If she didn't had the accident probably they would never met'. Individuals attend to tasks differently, however for learning to take place, learners must be involved in the language learning activity, engage with tasks and make maximum use of the target language. These learners re-engage with the task when it is made clear that to successfully complete the task they need to write a version of the dictogloss. This added pressure to produce a written version pushes them to improve accuracy and the triad restart on line 104 to discuss this same sentence. These learners resort to translation (line 108), metatalk and L1 (line 111), suggestions (line 114) and corrections (line 123) to produce the target-like sentence 'If she hadn't had the accident they probably wouldn't have seen each other again'. This they achieve in 18 turns. Lines 127 to 159 consist of Diana and Carolina

helping their classmate Anna to understand how the phrase was formed using a combination of L1 (11 turns), grammatical explanations (lines 130,138, 146,147, 157, 158), questions and answers (lines 127-128, 132-133,144-145), correction (lines 135-136,154-155) and consultation of written notes (lines 141-142). Increased engagement with the task leads to pushed outcome and the correct collaborative resolution of the problem.

(54)

- 36 A if she (.) if she hasn't got
 37 C didn't had the [accident]
 38 A [[accident,]]
 39 C probably they
 40 D they would never yes (6) they would never(.) met (.) met
 41 C yes (2) that things
 42 () ((laughter)) (17)
 43 A a baby girl?
 44 C baby girl
 45 D baby girl yes (9)
 46 A °if she has got° (25)
 47 C we need to (.) write?
 48 D ah yes in the the the
 49 C ah ok
 → 50 D mary do we, (.) do we have to write the whole story?
 51 T yes.
 52 D >ok ok<
- 104 C °if she didn't had (2) didn't had the car°
 105 LL (2)didn't had
 106 A she
 107 C didn't had
 → 108 D didn't have had, *se ela não tivesse tido* (tra.: if she hadn't
 109 had))
 110 C didn't have had?
 → 111 D *o terceiro condicional.*((tra.: the third conditional))
 112 C yes! if she
 113 A (2) didn't
 → 114 D or if she hadn't had
 115 C (6) <hadn't had (2) if she hadn't had>
 116 D °eu acho que sim°
 117 C do you have a (.) yes (.) a rubber please,
 118 D if she did
 119 LL if she hadn't
 120 C <had (coughing in background) accident (.) probably>
 121 D they would probably (2) they wouldn't probably (13) they

- 122 wouldn't probably saw each other again?
- 123 C (18) they probably wouldn't have (1) seen each other again?
- 124
- 125 D *Foi o que eu pus. exactamente* ((tra.: that's what I put. exactly)) (laughter)
- 126
- 127 A (4) it's more correct i put if she had not an accident
- 128 D (2) °hadn't had the accident°
- 129 A hadn't
- 130 D °*porque isto terá obrigtoriamente de por had mais o past participle*° ((tra.: because you must use had plus the))
- 131
- 132 A °*então falta o que* ((tra.: so what's missing)) if she°
- 133 D °hadn't had(2) hadn't *aqui*, ((tra.: here)) had(1) the accident°
- 134
- 135 C if she had
- 136 D hadn't
- 137 C hadn't
- 138 D °had not (1) *porque há dois acontecimentos, é uma coisa que*°
- 139
- 140 A had not past
- 141 D °*é isto aqui queres ver?*° ((tra.: it's this here do you want to see))
- 142
- 143 C had is past. had,(.) had.
- 144 A *dois hads.* ((tra.: two hads))
- 145 C yes because
- 146 D *é porque é obrigatorio de por mais o past participle* ((tra.: it's because you must put it plus the)). *tens que por o modal* ((tra.: you have to write the modal))
- 147
- 148
- 149 C if she hadn't
- 150 D *o verbo é* ((tra.: the verb is)) have I have you have she had.
- 151 A if she
- 152 C hadn't (1) had not
- 153 D *se ela não tivesse tido* ((tra.: if she hadn't had)) (1) hadn't have
- 154
- 155 C hadn't had
- 156 D exacto (4) *é assim* ((tra.:it's like this)) if she hadn't had the accident (8) the accident the (4) *aqui não é um accident é o accident* ((tra.: here it isn't an accident it's the accident))
- 157
- 158
- 159 A Ok (2) the accident (.) probably

6.4 Classroom Affordances

The idea of affordances in language learning has been previously mentioned in Chapter 2. The language learning classroom offers many affordances to the learner: the teacher, other learners, the shared L1 in monolingual classes, coursebooks, dictionaries, the students' own notes, grammar books, classroom posters etc. In a broader sense languaging, error correction and collective scaffolding could also be included under the general heading of classroom affordances as all involve learning with and through interaction with others. However in this section I would like to restrict the notion of classroom affordances to situations in which learners actively seek or give help. This includes referring to textbooks and notebooks, using translation, asking colleagues for help (including clarification requests, confirmation and comprehension checks), explaining, and providing language. Mention will also be made of missed opportunities, when students clearly needed help but failed to take action, and occasions when students learned indirectly from others through overhearing.

In excerpt 55 (Term 1, class 1, Task 1), Simão, Miguel (Mi), Madalena (M) and Beatriz are involved in an error correction exercise. This extract shows how the learners use overheard utterances (O) and their textbook as a learning resource and ask and answer each other's questions.

(55)

	38	B	>felt it's <u>feel</u> (1) it's the past of [<u>feel</u>]<
	39	M	[you <u>feel</u>] (.) I feel in love
	40	B	(1) °no°
	41	M	oh
	42	B	no falling in love
→	43	Mi	(3) i can understand [what you're saying]
→	44	O	no <u>fall</u> , <u>fall</u>
→	45	M	[ah ok ok ok]
	46	B	we immediately fall in love
	47	M	so it's fell fall
→	48	S	feel so how do you spell it(.) F?
	49	Mi	sorry.
→	50	B	e::m (.) let me check ((turns over pages of book))

On line 38 Beatriz states that the phrase ‘We immediately felt in love’ is wrong because it employs the verb feel when in fact it should be the verb fall. On line 39 Madalena disagrees with her but after overhearing another group coming to the conclusion that the verb is in fact the verb fall (line 44), both Madalena and Miguel agree. Although students work together in small groups in the language learning classroom, they do so simultaneously with other groups and their roles in the classroom involve not only those of speaker and listener but also as overhearer of the interaction of others (Bell 1984: 145) and this corpus contains other such examples. Ohta similarly reports overhearing others as a source of ‘linguistic support’ (Ohta 2001: 104).

On line 48 Simão requests help with spelling whereupon Beatriz consults the verb lists at the back of her coursebook. Consulting these materials in class is yet another learning opportunity afforded to students. Later in this same task (excerpt 56 below), we find an example of a request for help, a translation and explanation of the meaning of the word ‘lift’, a clarification request and a comprehension check. This shows how learning behaviours are often used in combination, rather than in isolation.

(56)

- | | | | |
|---|-----|----|---|
| | 410 | S | my dad gave me a lift (.) because it was rain hard |
| → | 411 | M | (3) ah? gave me what? my dad gave me a lift, |
| → | 412 | S | [lift é boleia] lift é |
| | 413 | M | [[because it was raining <u>hard</u> ?]] |
| | 414 | S | yes (.) a lift is, |
| → | 415 | B | do you know what is lift, |
| | 416 | Mi | [is a (.) is a] |
| | 417 | S | [[is like a]] |
| → | 418 | M | like a like an elevator (1) no? |
| | 419 | S | >no no no no< ((laughter)) |
| | 420 | B | [lift like] |
| | 421 | S | [[you are]] |
| → | 422 | B | you needed to go to somewhere |
| | 423 | M | AH! ok ok [ok ok ok!]((laughs)) |
| → | 424 | B | [[and I pass through]] so I <u>lift</u> you (.) somewhere |

On line 411 Madalena makes it clear she does not understand the term lift by using the phrase ‘Ah? Gave me what’. This is an example of a clarification request where the listener asks for clarification of a previous utterance. Repetition of the phrase ‘My dad gave me a lift because it was raining hard’ (lines 411 and 413) with rising intonation and a questioning tone make this even clearer. On line 412 Simão gives a translation into Portuguese but Madalena doesn’t appear to hear as she is speaking at the same time. On line 415 Simão uses a comprehension check by asking, ‘Do you know what is lift?’ and on line 418 Madalena confirms her understanding of the word lift ‘like a like an elevator, no?’ On lines 422 and 424 Beatriz explains the meaning of the word, ‘You needed to go to somewhere and I pass through so I lift you somewhere’. In this short sequence, Madalena uses multiple classroom affordances (including fellow learners Simão and Beatriz) to help her understand an item of lexis which was causing a breakdown in communication on her part. Comprehension checks, along with confirmation checks and clarification requests were posited by Long (1996) as the basis for language learning and occurred when learners negotiated for meaning following a breakdown in communication. Long suggested that this negotiation allowed the learner to receive comprehensible input and incorporate new language into their discourse. However, NfM is now considered only one of many ways in which language development is advanced through interaction (Foster & Ohta 2005) to which this chapter is testament.

Excerpt 57 details a sequence of 31 turns where Beatriz and Miguel (Class 1 term 3 task 1) show a high level of engagement while discussing the use of the word ‘borrow’ in the sentence ‘If you needed to borrow some money, who would you ask?’, with Miguel believing the correct expression is lend rather than borrow. As they cannot resolve the problem alone, Miguel asks the teacher for help (line 147), thereby creating another learning opportunity.

(57)

142	B	but I think borrow (.) it works on the both sides. so I can
143		borrow you money, (2) i can borrow you my(.)
144		my pencil,
145	Mi	Hmm no i

146 B or i can lend you (.) my pencil.
 → 147 Mi °i don't know if you can say that°. Mary we have a doubt.
 148 ((laughs))
 149 T OK
 150 Mi in this (.) in this sentences (.) you can say if you want to
 151 borrow some money or (1) or if you needed to lending
 152 some money
 153 T borrow!
 154 Mi you can say borrow?
 155 T it refers to money, yeah yeah. the person who is taking the
 156 money is borrowing, (.) the person who is giving it (.) is
 157 lending
 158 Mi ah OK
 159 B oh! lending is giving (.) yes.
 160 Mi i understand. (.) ok.

On the other hand, Deolinda and João while discussing social networking in Class 2, term 2. miss 2 opportunities to learn lexis they need to express their meaning, seen below in excerpt 58.

(58)

54 D what dinner.(.) what was the dinner.
 55 J <was (.) salmon' °salmon°, (.) *salmão*,>
 56 D ah ok ((laughs))
 57 J <in the:: (2) in the cook (.) it's not a cook bu:t (1) in the:
 58 (2) insi:de: (1) you cook >
 59 D OK
 60 J inside::
 61 D a bimby.
 62 J >it's not a bimby<.
 63 D ((laughs))
 → 64 J inside (4) i i i don't don't know the name (1) *forno*. (1)
 65 *no forno*. ((tra.: oven in the oven))
 → 66 D i don't know
 → 67 J ok inside the (1) cooker (.) cooker

 263 D of course in Portugal are beautiful (.) >*agora não sei*
 → 264 *dizer obras de arte está bem*,< ((tra.: now I don't know
 265 how to say works of art ok))bu:t
 → 266 J galleries.
 → 267 D the [akidoot] (1) the [akidoot] in Portugal (1) that was
 268 the most I appreciate but museums (1) are very quiet (2)
 269 and not (.) passion (.) me.

On lines 54 to 63 João is discussing a dinner he cooked for friends on his birthday. On line 57 he initiates a word search for the word ‘oven’ using repetition and pausing to signal the trouble source. These are features which are commonly recognised by others as an invitation to help with the search, but as his partner Deolinda is unable to supply the necessary form, he uses a translation on line 64. Here neither use classroom affordances to resolve the problem and a learning opportunity is missed. Similarly on lines 263-264 Deolinda while discussing museums has trouble producing the expression ‘works of art’ and again uses the translation in Portuguese to convey her meaning. João on the next line supplies ‘galleries’ as a possible translation. However Deolinda fails to acknowledge João’s contribution and on the following line abruptly changes the topic to aqueducts. In this way Deolinda closes down the question of ‘works of art’ and the problem remains unresolved.

In this corpus learners ask many questions, some of which are examples of Long’s comprehension checks, confirmation checks or clarification checks. Others are simply requests for help, often lexical in nature. Excerpt 59 shows Bernardo and Mariana (Class 2) discussing the dictogloss task in Term 2.

(59)

- | | | | |
|---|-----|---|---|
| | 38 | B | when he was 20, |
| | 39 | M | 20 he became a teacher |
| | 40 | B | yes he became a teacher, (1) yes, |
| → | 41 | M | he was (1) °20 years° (4) became. yes? became (.) became |
| | 42 | B | yes |
| | 43 | M | teacher |
| → | 129 | M | and now (5) < now he > (2) <i>como é que se diz reformado</i> |
| | 130 | | ((tra.: how do you say retired)) |
| | 131 | B | retired |

In this excerpt we can see an example of a confirmation check (line 41) and an explicit word search marker (‘How do you say retired?’) on line 129. On line 41 Mariana asks for confirmation that the correct form of the verb is became. Confirmation checks and clarification requests have been criticised by some researchers (Foster and Ohta 2005: 411-413) because although Long described

their form, utterances with these shapes often have different functions to those described in the NfM interaction research, as noted above. Examples of a clarification request and a comprehension check have been discussed in relation to excerpt 56.

Lastly episodes of co-construction are common in the corpus, defined by Ohta as an occasion when a partner contributes a word, syllable or phrase that either completes or furthers completion of an utterance when another learner stops speaking or produces false starts, in the absence of an error (2001: 89). Excerpt 60 below shows examples taken from Fatima, Neema and Neusa's conversation in Class 1 term 2 on national stereotypes. Interactants step in to supply words when colleagues hesitate, which can be seen in lines 168, 186 and 273.

(60)

- | | | | |
|---|-----|----|---|
| | 167 | F | yes yes (.) but the the house (.) was ve:ry |
| → | 168 | Nu | (2) crowded ((laughter)) |
| | 169 | F | yes (2) with no space ((laughs)) |
| | 184 | Ne | it's only (4) cr (.) crowded (1) people who don't speak(1) |
| | 185 | | don't understand, (1) there are lot ofs (2) there are lot ofs |
| → | 186 | F | (2) <u>noise</u> ? |
| | 187 | Ne | noise. noise. |
| | 272 | Nu | in the house of my friend, (1) and we dance, (.) we eat, (.) we |
| → | 273 | F | (2) celebrate |
| | 274 | Nu | we <u>celebrate</u> (.) yeah. |

On occasions, learners are so adept at listening carefully to their partners and initiating anticipatory completion of turns when their partner hesitates that two voices can become one as they interweave their contributions to produce coherent, albeit hesitant, discourse. An example of this has already been given in excerpt 35. This provides an opportunity for learning as it allows learners to collaboratively extend their discourse, producing more language than either interactant would be able to individually. A high level of involvement is necessary for learners to project what they believe is likely to come next and this co-construction serves as a non-invasive way of helping partners to complete their utterances. It also shows that learners are able to obtain assistance even when this is not explicitly requested, as

partners are sensitive to the difficulties their peers are facing and proactively offer assistance.

Ohta (2001: 89) mentions how learners of Japanese, while interacting with their peers prompt each other by repeating ‘the syllable or word just uttered, helping the interlocutor to continue’. She also describes how ubiquitous waiting was amongst learners as a way to assist performance, however neither of these were particularly common in this data which may be due to the characteristics of the tasks used, or cultural differences between Japanese and Portuguese learners.

6.5 How Learners Individually Struggle with Language

Due to its more symmetrical nature, learners have more opportunities to explore language use and to try out and manipulate language during peer interaction than they would in teacher-led interaction. This leads them to experiment with language, test hypotheses and polish their language, as they strive to improve their oral skills, and even when learners do not discuss linguistic problems, the very act of trying to resolve how to transmit the message may promote learning (Philp, Adams & Iwashita 2014: 35). Philp and Iwashita (2013) found that learners who were part of an interactive exercise were more focused on language forms than learners who simply observed the interaction and these findings are consistent with Swain’s output hypothesis mentioned previously in Chapter 2. As van Lier (1998: 142) states, ‘It seems that teaching and learning go on continually in our interactions with others’.

Producing language for some students can be a very difficult process and there are a number of instances in the corpus which show just how difficult some students find the process. The case of Otilia almost giving up and reverting to Portuguese, only to be encouraged by Bernardo to continue to make an effort in English has already been exemplified in excerpt 30. An example of a learner struggling to try to express themselves can be seen in excerpt 61 taken from Class 2, term 3, as Bernardo and Rute discuss personal hypothetical questions.

(61)

- 88 R your (.) your tasties.
89 B ah (.) you don't like. (.) you:
90 R (1),i'd i want °*eu não* (.)*eu nao sabia* (.)*eu nao sabia*^o
91 ((tra.:I didn't i didn't know i didn't know)) i (.) i want, (1)
→ 92 B what do you want.(.) what do you want to say.
93 R eh
94 B that eh:
→ 95 R i want your like or your tastes.(.) i don't know your tastes.

It is clear on line 92 that Bernardo is offering Rute help when he says 'What do you want to say?' However it is also clear than Rute cannot formulate what she wants to say in English and this most likely is an offer to translate Rute's intended meaning into English. Rute however, continues her interior struggle with language and eventually, given time, communicates her intended meaning on line 95 'I don't know your tastes'. It is unclear the route Rute takes to produce this language but it is without a doubt a consequence of her interaction with Bernardo, although Bernardo himself has taken no part in supplying language. It shows how language mediates thought and ultimately learning. It is also clear that waiting for a weaker partner to resolve a problem is both an affective strategy and a learning behaviour. In this sequence, peer interaction between Rute and Bernardo allows Rute to experiment with and refine her own language until she can accurately express her intended meaning. Here both learners benefit from working within their ZPDs. Bernardo obtains comprehensible input and Rute produces more accurate, fluent language.

6.6. Summary

In this chapter we have seen how interaction in both pairs and small groups provides plentiful opportunities for learning, as learners engage with tasks. These opportunities are at times realised collaboratively, other times individually and occur both during focus on form and oral discussion tasks. Learners test out hypotheses, grapple with language in public and private spaces, use classroom

affordances, attend to form noticing mismatches between their output and those of others and generally struggle to convey their meanings, with or without a breakdown in communication. Table 6.1 summarises the learning behaviours exemplified in this chapter. The following chapter examines the frequency of learning opportunities in Class 1 and Class 2 over the academic year.

Table 6.1 Examples of Learning Behaviours in the Interaction

Learning Behaviours	Description/Example
Languaging	Talking through what is cognitively challenging for the speaker.
Private Speech	Self-addressed language produced either when the learner is alone or in the presence of others
Peer Correction	Explicit correction or implicit correction through recasts
Self-repair	Learners self-initiated correction
Co-construction	‘[...] they played with the some, not the calf skin but the, ‘ Oh, leather’ ‘The leather, yes [....]’
Using metalanguage	‘[...] <i>por acaso não punha o</i> ((tra.: in fact I wouldn’t put the)) past perfect’
Asking others (students and teacher)	‘By a Scottish. How do I write?’ ‘Mary, we have a doubt’
Explaining (students)	‘So if you won a lot of money you would move house? I think this is incorrect [...] because when you do the question you put would first, would you.’
Translation	‘Learning it’s <i>aprender</i> ’
Testing hypotheses/suggesting	‘Can be I have met?’ ‘No, <i>é só</i> (tra.: no it’s only) I met’
Use of coursebooks/notes	‘Interesting in, was one of the workbook exercises, interesting in, page 35’
Overhearing	Overhearing the interaction of others
Individual struggling with language	‘i want your <u>like</u> or your <u>tastes</u> . (.) i don’t know your <u>tastes</u> .’

CHAPTER 7 ANALYSIS OF PEER INTERACTIONS FOR LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES AND QUALITY AND QUANTITY OF LANGUAGE PRODUCED

This chapter reports the results of quantitative and qualitative analysis of transcripts of peer interaction for learning behaviours which lead to learning opportunities. Section 7.1 deals with quantitative analysis of the results relating to repair and section 7.2 deals with quantitative analysis of other learning behaviours identified in the interaction. Section 7.3 relates to quantitative analysis of peer interaction for quality and quantity of language and section 7.4 deals with qualitative analysis of interactions for learning opportunities. Section 7.5 is a case study of Rute and shows how her learning opportunities are shaped by the social dimension. This chapter ends with a summary in section 7.6.

7.1 Error Correction

Unfortunately studies of error correction in the language learning classroom rarely refer to peers correcting peers and so comparison of these results with those in the literature is problematic. Table 7.1 provides information on the total number of peer corrections and self-repair, both target-like and non-target-like for both classes. Here peer repair refers to both explicit correction, as exemplified in excerpt 43 and implicit correction through a recast, as shown in excerpt 44, both in Chapter 6. Recasts have been variously described by researchers as ‘reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error’ (Lyster & Ranta 1997), which corresponds to Frohlich, Spada and Allen’s definition of ‘paraphrase’ as ‘reformulation of a previous [incorrect] utterance’ (1985: 56), or Chaudron’s ‘repetition with change’, which he defines as a response to learner error when the teacher ‘simply adds correction and continues to other topics’ (Chaudron 1977: 39). This also corresponds to the definition of ‘embedded correction’ in CA. These

definitions however refer to corrective feedback from the teacher in contrast to this study, where they refer to peer corrective feedback. Recasts however can be difficult to identify, as not all perform a corrective function. Take for example the following sequence in excerpt 62. In line 243 Madalena poses the non-target-like question ‘Why is a mistake?’ This is followed on line 246 by Simão asking the same question but this time substituting the erroneous ‘Why’ with ‘What’. It is difficult to tell however if Simão is using his turn to correct Madalena or to ask a question. Only by listening to the recording can it be determined that in fact Simão appears to be asking a question rather than correcting, and so although his utterance has the form of a recast, this does not appear to be its function. For this reason recordings were used to verify the function of recasts and only those which serve to correct are included in the data. In addition, to be considered a recast in this study, the utterance must occur in the two lines following the non-target-like utterance.

(62)

	241	B	yes but there is a mistake here so ((laughs))
	242	S	°you might remember me°
→	243	M	what > [WHY is a mistake.]<
	244	L1	[()]
	245	B	[[because each sentence]]
→	246	S	[[so what’s the mistake]]
	247	B	has a mistake

On other occasions it may appear from consulting transcripts that learners are correcting each other but once more, after listening to the interaction it would appear that learners are simply ‘playing’ with language and making successive suggestions, rather than correcting, as can be seen in excerpt 63, where Anabella and Vanessa in class 1 are completing the first task, term 1.

(63)

	22	A	in 1998
	23	V	[he fall]
	24	A	[he fall] in love.
	25	V	he fa:llen in love
	26	A	he <u>have</u> fall in love
	27	V	or he had.

28	A	he <u>has</u>
29	V	he has <u>start</u>
30	A	in love with a girl
31	V	yes

In addition recasts which refer to the correction of factual information rather than form have not been included. For example, this sequence taken from the timeline writing task.

(64)

	1	A	so (.) bill was born in 1980(.) in london.
	2	V	yes. (.) <u>four</u> years later,
→	3	A	<u>five</u> years.
	4	V	<u>five</u> years la:ter (.) he went to <u>school</u> .

Self-repair, also known as self-initiated self-repair refers to occasions when a learner corrects themselves and is defined by Ohta as ‘self-correction [...] that occurs in the absence of other-initiated repair or of a contrasting utterance by another speaker’ (2001: 136). Examples are given in excerpts 50 to 52 (Chapter 6). In this study, reformulation of false starts are not considered self-repair e.g. ‘Usually you find in that place all kinds of people but they all have the same (pause) the same, they all like to , they all enjoy traditional dances’

Target like repair refers to instances when all or part of the utterance is successfully corrected. For example, although Miguel fails to correct both errors in the phrase ‘When you met someone?’ he does manage to supply the necessary auxiliary verb ‘did’ in his correction, ‘ When did you met ?’, and in this study, such an utterance would be scored as an example of a successful self-repair.

Table 7.1 shows that overall, the total number of corrections for both groups is very similar. The first important thing to notice is that almost three quarters of corrections (72%) are target like in Class 1 and almost two thirds (63%) in Class 2. Peer and self-repair are different from teacher correction in that the learners have to become more aware of the language both they and their partner produce and to do so they need to internally monitor their own language and externally monitor the

speech of others. This ‘noticing’ activity is thought to lead to language learning and it would seem that learners in this study can and do notice errors in the interaction and are able to successfully correct both others and themselves.

Table 7.1 Episodes of Peer and Self -repair (target like and non-target-like) expressed as a Total and Percentage of the total for Classes 1 and 2.

	Class 1	Class 2
Total corrections	126	120
Total target-like (% of total)	91 (72%)	76 (63%)
Total peer repair (% of total)	86 (68%)	65 (54%)
Peer repair target-like/non target-like (% of total peer repair)	56/30 (65%/35%)	35/30 (54%/46%)
Total self-repair (% of total)	40 (32%)	55 (46%)
Self-repair target-like /non-target-like (% of total self -repair)	35/5 (87%/13%)	41/14 (74%/26%)

Overall, Class 1 students were more accurate, producing 11% more target-like peer corrections and 13% more target-like self-corrections than Class 2. In addition, self -repair was more accurate than peer repair in both classes, with 87% of self- corrections versus 65% of peer corrections being target-like in Class 1, and 74% of self- corrections versus 54% of peer corrections in Class 2. Ohta (2001: 174) found 83% of self-corrections in peer interaction to be target-like, a value similar to that found for Class 1.

Just over two thirds (68%) of Class 1 corrections were peer corrections, however for Class 2 this value was just over half (54%). There could be a number of reasons for this. Firstly, to peer correct, learners have to be confident of their own proficiency. As Class 1 provided more target-like corrections it could be

argued that as a class they were stronger than Class 2 and therefore more confident of their ability to correct others. It is also true that peer correction could be considered face-threatening, especially if learners feel uncomfortable with each other, or if there is little mutual trust. This has already been discussed earlier and questionnaire results clearly showed that Class 2 students were more critical of their fellow classmate's classroom behaviour than students in Class 1, and excerpt 45 illustrates how learners (in this case in Class 2) can reject peer correction. This could explain why a higher proportion of Class 2 students' corrections were self-repair. Just under half (46%) their corrections were self-repair whereas this value was slightly less than one third (32%) for Class 1 students. Interestingly it is not always true that the learner doing the correcting necessarily has to be the stronger student. Rute, a weaker student in Class 2, can be seen to correct her classmate Bernardo, a stronger student in the following excerpt (excerpt 65). This sequence starts with both Rute and Bernardo verbalising the first clause of the sentence for correction on lines 46 and 47. Rute reads her corrected form, Bernardo the uncorrected form. On line 50 Rute confirms the sentence is wrong which is contradicted by Bernardo on line 51. However as a result of Rute's explanation that this is a question form on lines 52-53, and her use of translation into L1 on line 57, Bernardo accepts her suggestion on line 58. This example also shows that the roles of more and less knowledgeable peer are not set in stone but are fluid in nature and change according to the differing expertise the participants bring to the interaction.

(65)

	46	R	[what would you do]
	47	B	[what you do]
	48	R	yeah.
	49	B	if you didn't like the food you friend cooked for you
→	50	R	yes (.) it's <u>wro:ng</u> .
→	51	B	(1) no i don't think it's,
→	52	R	wha:t' <u>would</u> .(1) wha:t,(.) what (.) >would would you <u>do</u> .<
→	53		> <u>what</u> would you, <u>do</u> <. but if <u>ask</u> ?
	54	B	>yes. yes.<
	55	R	would. (.) would.
	56	B	>yes. yes.<
→	57	R	°faria° (.) the second it's <u>wrong</u> .
→	58	B	yes it's [wrong] (.) yes yes
	59	R	[ye::s?] (1) yes.

Table 7.2 shows quantitative analysis of error correction by recording and task. Firstly it can be seen that the amount of repair varies with task, rather than time. The first task, a consciousness raising error correction task where the focus of the task is language itself, results in a high number of target-like peer error correction moves in both classes. This is unsurprising as Task 1 is an example of a closed task, where learners need to reach a consensus of opinion. However, it also results in the highest number of peer, non-target corrections, and no self-repair whatsoever. The final dictogloss reconstruction activity, again an example of a closed task, likewise produces a high number of target and non-target-like peer corrections as learners work hard to resolve the final sentence 'If she hadn't had an accident, they might never have seen one another again'. However, task 2 in Term 1 is also a dictogloss activity and yet the total number of error correction moves here is the lowest of all tasks for both groups. The most likely reason for this seems to be the level of challenge offered by the task, as learners resolved the reconstruction task quickly and with little disagreement.

How the amount of repair varies from task to task is further explored using qualitative analysis in section 7.4 of this chapter

Table 7.2 Quantitative Analysis of Error Correction by Recording and Task.

		Class 1						Class 2						
		Peer repair		Self-repair		Total/recording (target-like)		Total/task (target-like)	Recording	Peer repair		Self-repair		Total/recording (target-like)
Task	Recording	Target-like	Non-target-like	Target-like	Non-Target-like		Recording			Target-like	Non-target-like	Target-like	Non-Target-like	
Term 1 Task 1 Error correction	1	10	8	0	0	10	28	3	6	2	0	0	6	13
	2	18	11	0	0	18		4	7	14	0	0	7	
Term1 Task 2 Dictogloss 1	5	2	3	0	0	2	2	7	0	0	1	0	1	1
	6	-	-	-	-	-		8	-	-	-	-	-	
Term 2 Task 2 Socialising discussion task	13	1	0	7	0	8	17	15	0	0	4	4	4	13
	14	2	0	7	2	9		16	3	2	6	0	9	
Term2 Task 3 National stereotypes	17	3	0	5	0	8	15	19	2	1	2	2	4	6
	18	1	0	6	0	7		20	1	0	1	0	2	
Term 3 Task 1 'What if?'	21	0	1	1	0	1	9	23	1	0	7	2	8	16
	22	3	2	5	2	8		24	1	0	7	2	8	
Term3 Task 2 Tricky situations	25	1	0	3	1	4	4	27	1	0	5	2	6	6
	26	-	-	-	-	-		28	-	-	-	-	-	
Term 3 Task 3 Dictogloss 2	29	6	3	0	0	6	16	31	8	7	2	0	10	18
	30	9	2	1	0	10		32	4	4	4	2	8	

7.2 Other Learning Behaviours

Table 6.1 summarised the learning behaviours identified in the interaction and described in Chapter 6. Not all of these are scored for quantitatively due either to technical difficulties or difficulties in operationalisation. Due to the fact that recordings were made in real classrooms where all learners were taking part in the oral tasks simultaneously, it is impossible to determine if all episodes of private speech and overhearing have been picked up and so these were not determined. In addition, the concept of languaging or learners talking through what they find cognitively challenging is difficult to determine as it often involves other behaviours such as correction, explaining and asking. For this reason languaging as a category is not included, however the sub-skills such as explaining and asking are. In addition, suggesting and hypothesising are also omitted due to problems of accurately scoring for this feature. This leaves the following behaviours which were quantified in the data.

- Co-construction. Stepping in to supply words when colleagues hesitate or produce a false start in the absence of an error.
- Using metalanguage. Here the use of a metalinguistic term (in L1 or L2) is counted only once if it occurs in the same language related episode (LRE). However if different metalinguistic terms are used within the same LRE, each occurrence is counted.
- Explaining. In L1 or L2, but not to translate. Not involving metalanguage. If the same explanation is given on more than one occasion in a LRE it is recorded as one occurrence
- Translation. Can be either from L1 to L2 or vice versa.
- Referring to coursebook/notes/remembering previous work in class
- Asking. In either L1 or L2. Here when the same question is asked on more than one occasion in a LRE it is recorded as one occurrence. Types of questions identified were
 - a) Offering and requesting help e.g. ‘What you want to say?’, ‘Help me’, ‘How do you spell...?’

b) Confirmation checks. Confirmation checks which matched Long's definition of a confirmation check were found (Long's definition of confirmation and comprehension checks and clarification requests were defined in Chapter 2). For example,

A: No, because it's we immediately fall in love.

B: Fall?

However, utterances with the same form as confirmation checks were used to question what the interlocutor said when there was no breakdown in communication, e.g.

A: I think only the verb.

B: Only the verb?

c) Clarification requests. Clarification requests which matched Long's definition were found, e.g.

A: No, no he thought, he thought me to use a computer, is in the past.

B: He what?

d) Comprehension check. Comprehension checks which matched Long's definition were found, e.g.

A: Yes, a lift. Do you know what is lift?

B: It's like an elevator, no?

In addition, examples of utterances which had the form of a comprehension check were found which checked not comprehension but agreement, e.g.

A: I think it's a regular. Teached, no?

B: No teach, taught, taught.

Table 7.3 shows results of the quantitative analysis of recordings for the learning behaviours noted above. As mentioned previously, results for Task 1 term 2 have been excluded for both classes as the teacher asked the groups to perform this task differently.

Table 7.3 Quantitative Analysis of Learning Behaviours by Recording and Task.

Key			
A	Translation	D	Metalinguage
B	Explaining	E	Consulting books, notes etc
C	Asking	F	Co-construction

Task	Recording	Class 1								Recording	Class 2							
		A	B	C	D	E	F	Total/ recording	Total/t ask		A	B	C	D	E	F	Total/ recording	Total/t ask
Term 1 Task 1 Error correction	1	9	13	15	11	4	0	52	98	3	1	8	12	16	3	0	40	65
	2	1	9	22	13	1	0	46		4	1	8	9	5	2	0	25	
Term1 Task 2 Dictogloss 1	5	1	0	14	1	0	0	16	16	7	0	0	11	0	0	8	19	19
	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Term 2 Task 2 Socialising discussion task	13	1	0	10	0	0	4	15	36	15	4	1	16	0	0	8	29	60
	14	0	1	12	0	0	8	21		16	7	0	13	0	0	11	31	
Term2 Task 3 National stereotypes	17	1	1	12	0	0	3	17	45	19	2	0	6	0	1	20	29	49
	18	3	2	12	0	0	11	28		20	4	0	10	0	0	6	20	
Term 3 Task 1 'What if?'	21	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	21	23	1	1	22	0	0	6	30	58
	22	1	5	4	6	0	2	18		24	3	2	8	1	0	14	28	
Term3 Task 2 Tricky situations	25	1	2	1	0	0	2	6	6	27	0	0	4	0	0	23	27	27
	26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Term 3 Task 3 Dictogloss 2	29	2	2	7	4	2	13	30	65	31	1	6	22	8	3	20	60	101
	30	0	2	18	2	0	13	35		32	7	5	19	1	0	9	41	

This table shows that the two tasks which generated most learning opportunities were the first error correction activity and the final dictogloss reconstruction activity, the tasks which also generated most error correction. This is unsurprising as learners in these tasks had to work collaboratively, focusing on form, asking and answering questions, explaining and using metalanguage to achieve the task. In contrast to the final dictogloss activity where learners both focused on form and worked together to reconstruct the story, using co-construction as they did so, the error correction task involved no examples of co-construction. Again the two tasks which generated fewest learning opportunities, the first dictogloss activity and the second task in Term 3, the discussion activity which focused on the 3rd conditional, were also the two tasks which produced fewest error corrections. The possibility that the first dictogloss activity was not sufficiently challenging has already been considered in section 7.1.

It is true that some of these tasks were carried out in dyads, others in triads and others in groups of 4 and this could hypothetically affect the number of learning opportunities created. Dobao (2012) reported that groups of learners involved in a collaborative task produced more LRE than pairs. Edstrom however (2015) working with triads failed to show that triads produced more language or LREs than pairs, but stressed the importance of collaborative behaviour. I would agree with Edstrom that collaboration is more important than the number of interactants as can be seen if the results of the interactions in recordings 21 and 23, 25 and 27, or 29 and 31, for example, are compared (Table 7.3). In each of these, the number of peers interacting was equal but one pair or group produced considerably more learning opportunities than the other.

Table 7.3 shows that the self-declared non-cohesive group, Class 2, scores significantly higher for the creation of learning opportunities in 4 of the 7 tasks analysed (Term 2, task 2, and all tasks in Term 3) and the only task for which Class 1 clearly score more highly is Term1 task 1. In addition, there are distinct variations within groups in the same class. For example recordings 3 and 4 show considerable differences in the number of learning opportunities created by the two groups

recorded in Class 2. Similarly the groups involved in recordings 17, 18 and 21, 22 in Class 1 again show considerable differences in scores. These differences will be explained in detail using qualitative analysis in section 7.4. Results in Table 7.3 in general appear to be corroborated by the results in the following section which shows the results of quantitative analysis of peer interactions for quality and quantity of language produced.

7.3 Quantitative Analysis of Interaction for Quality and Quantity of Language.

Table 7.4 shows quantitative analysis of peer interaction for quality and quantity of language produced. Quantity of language is expressed as the average number of AS-units per participant per task and the quality, that is, the complexity of language, as the average percentage of AS-units of 9 or more words per task. Results for complexity of language are comparable between Class 1 and Class 2 for all tasks except the dictogloss activity in Term1 where the language produced by students in Class 2 is considerably more complex than that of students in Class 1. Unsurprisingly the least complex language is produced in the first and last task. Here as can be seen in excerpts 4, 6, 8, 41 and 42 in Chapter 5, learners in these tasks work collaboratively, correcting each other, suggesting, explaining, asking and answering questions. Turns are generally short and longer turns are rare. The task which produced the most complex language was the ‘Tricky situations’ discussion task in Term 3. As mentioned above, this task will be further described in section 7.4.

Table 7.4 Quantitative Analysis of Peer Interaction for Quality and Quantity of Language Produced

Task	Class 1					Class 2				
	Recording	AS unit /participant	Average AS units/participant/task	% AS units≥9	Average % AS units≥9/task	Recording	AS units /participant	Average AS units/participant/task	% AS units≥9	Average % AS units≥9/task
Term 1 Task 1 Error correction	1	50	63	6%	7%	3	65	65	11%	7%
	2	76		9%		4	65		4%	
Term 1 Task 2 Dictogloss 1	5	33	33	6%	6%	7	72	72	22%	22%
	6	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-
Term 2 Task 2 Socialising discussion task	13	68	66	23%	27%	15	125	101	27%	27%
	14	65		32%		16	78		28%	
Term 2 Task 3 National Stereotypes	17	65	68	16%	20%	19	61	58	19%	19%
	18	72		24%		20	56		19%	
Term 3 Task 1 'What if?'	21	26	49	36%	28%	23	74	78	25%	23%
	22	73		20%		24	83		21%	
Term 3 Task 2 Tricky situations	25	16	16	41%	41%	27	60	60	40%	40%
	26	-		-		28	-		-	
Term 3 Task 3 Dictogloss 2	29	28	35	12%	12%	31	80	64	12%	8%
	30	42		13%		32	49		4%	

Results for the amount of language produced per class per task show that more language is produced by the students in Class 2 with results corresponding broadly to those found for learning opportunities created. To better understand these results it is necessary to study the tasks in greater detail. For this reason I will follow Dornyei's advice (2009: 242) and adopt a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach to show that the learning behaviours students demonstrate in the tasks are the unique outcome of the intersection of the learners, their individual differences, the affective environment, and how they approach the task. In this way I hope to show in section 7.4 that the scaffolding which attends to affective states identified in Chapter 5, that is, the interaction that talks cohesion into being, is indeed important in creating learning opportunities, not however at the whole group level but at the level of the group of students who are undertaking the task. In other words, it is the cohesion created at the micro level of the dyad, triad etc. rather than perceived cohesion across the whole group which is important in the provision of learning opportunities and quantity of language produced. I also hope to show that the identities the learners assume in their small groups, and how they tackle the tasks, also influence the provision of learning opportunities.

7.4 Qualitative Analysis of Peer Interactions for Learning Behaviours, Quality and Quantity of Language.

This section qualitatively examines a number of tasks in greater detail to better understand the quantitative analysis of interaction for learning behaviours, quality and quantity of language. I would first like to turn my attention to Task 1, the error correction exercise. As the question of quality and quantity of language in this task has been addressed in the previous section, I will focus here on learning opportunities in the interaction.

Table 7.3 shows that the total number of learning opportunities created by both groups of students in Class 1 (recordings 1 and 2), and the students in Class 2

(recording 3), is considerably higher than the number of opportunities created by learners in Class 2, recording 4. What the interactions in recordings 1, 2 and 3 have in common is the approach the learners in these groups take to task management, as all groups show one of the interactants taking on the role of language expert. Excerpt 66 shows the three learners in the first recording, Anna, Silvia and Rita (Class 1, task 1), discussing the sentence ‘We didn’t knew that the train was late’

(66)

- 55 S we didn’t knew, (.) that the train was late.
 → 56 R °ok°.
 → 57 S the mi:stake here (.) is (1) two past. didn’t, and knew!
 58 A °knew°
 → 59 S >we didn’t know<.
 → 60 R (5) sorry say that
 → 61 S i think we have [two of the time past.]
 62 A [°°in the , the°°]
 63 S yes! we have () .
 64 R knew in the present
 → 65 S you alr...you still have the past in didn’t
 → 66 R so it’s correct.
 → 67 S knew is (1) is not correct
 68 R (2) ah ok
 → 69 S we didn’t know.
 → 70 R it’s in the present .
 71 A that the train [was late.]
 → 72 R [°ok°]

Here Silvia assumes the role of language expert. Anna and Rita’s turns are rarely more than 2 or 3 words, whereas Silvia’s turns are more extended throughout the whole of the task. On line 55 Silvia reads the sentence to be corrected from the tasksheet which Rita acknowledges with the acknowledgment token ‘OK’ on line 56. On line 57 Silvia defines the problem and resolves it on line 59. On line 60 Rita asks for clarification and on lines 61 and 65 Silvia assumes position as a language expert by providing an explanation of her correction. On line 66 Rita misunderstands, but this is resolved on lines 67 and 69, when Silvia clarifies the correction. Rita signals her understanding on line 70 and again on line 72 with the acknowledgement token OK.

15% of all turns in this task contain at least one word of Portuguese, and this is the second highest score for use of Portuguese in the data. This is surprising as

Silvia is not a native Portuguese speaker and at one point early in the interaction she asks the others to speak English, ‘We have to speak English’. However confronted by Anna and Rita’s difficulties in understanding she compromises her position and as the task progresses she uses a mixture of English and Portuguese to help the others understand, as can be seen below in excerpt 67. In this way she is attending to the needs of others, a strategy to promote positive affect. In excerpt 67 we can see Anna, Silvia and Rita discussing how to correct the sentence, ‘My dad gave me a lift because it was rain hard’.

(67)

- 237 A °give gave,(1) given.°
 → 238 S °naõ. (.) é ° ((tra.: no it’s)) gave me because it was. (3) the
 239 tense is good. (1) no, give. (.) why.
 → 240 R °é give *porque é o passivo*° ((tra.: it’s give because it’s
 241 passive))
 242 S give gave give? °naõ.° >give *é presente* (.) *não pode ser*
 243 *porque* <((tra.: give is present it can’t be because)) it was rain
 244 R has given. (1) no?
 → 245 S no. (.) *deu-me* (2) >*porque estava a chover muito*.< (2) *deu-*
 246 *me porque* ((tra.: gave me because it was raining a lot gave me
 → 247 because)) it was rain. (3) ah! it was raining (2) no? (2)
 248 <because it was>. lift (1) what mean?
 249 A my dad
 250 R raining hard
 → 251 S it was ra:ining
 252 R raining?
 → 253 S (5) ra:ining (.) it was ra:ining.(2) yes.
 554 R >*acho que é com dois ns mas não é importante*< ((tra.: I think
 255 it’s with two ns but it isn’t important))
 → 256 S ra:ining
 → 257 A °(*eu pus assim*) ((tra.: I put it like this)) my dad had given (2)
 258 *meu pai tinha dado* (.) uma um° ((tra.: my dad had given a a
 259))
 → 260 S *isso não acontece muito no passado necessariamente*.((tra.:
 261 this doesn’t necessarily happen far back in the past))
 262 A *não?* ((tra.: no))
 263 S *acho que não*. ((tra.: I don’t think so)) gave me, *deu-me*, (.)
 264 *porque estava a chover*. ((tra.: gave me because it was
 265 raining))

On line 238 Silvia challenges the previous suggestion that the verb ‘gave’ in the sentence is incorrect and asks the others why they think it might be ‘give’ in the present. In this way she is pooling their resources to reach a mutually acceptable

resolution of the problem. On line 240 Rita suggests that the passive is involved but Silvia once more establishes herself as the language expert by explaining why this is not possible using translation of the phrase into Portuguese on line 245. Her discourse marker ‘Ah’ on line 247 shows that her translation of the phrase has contributed to her resolution of the problem, which she follows with a question tag ‘No?’, seeking confirmation from the others. This is followed by a short sequence where Silvia reaffirms the correction on 3 occasions for the others (lines 251, 253 and 256). The correction is unchallenged by the others but on line 257 Anna, her quiet voice signalling uncertainty, asks for confirmation of an alternative correction, again positioning Silvia as a language expert. Silvia once more assumes this position and using a mixture of both L1 and L2 establishes a joint understanding of the problem. So through asking and answering, explaining, involving all the interactants in decisions and compromising her own beliefs on the use of L2 in the task in an effort to help a weaker colleague, Silvia and the others encourage a positive social dimension during the course of this task and create learning opportunities.

In recording 2 (Class 1) Simão, Miguel, Madalena and Beatriz are involved in resolving the same error correction task. Again one student, Beatriz, takes on the role of language expert, a role she habitually assumes in oral tasks, which can be seen in excerpt 2, Chapter 5. By involving all the interactants in decisions, and through learners asking, answering and explaining, learning opportunities are created by all involved.

Recording 3 has already been discussed in considerable detail in chapter 5 (see excerpts 16-19). In this task Filomena takes part in ‘doing-being-an-expert.’ As such, she interrupts the others, orchestrates the interaction by introducing new sentences to discuss and takes part in languaging, i.e. verbalising to herself and others what she finds cognitively difficult, thereby making this explanatory process more accessible to the others in the group. But as the others also position Filomena as the language expert by avoiding interruptions or completions of Filomena’s turns, they are more reticent to correct her, as indeed most students would be. In

addition, as Filomena's turns seem to be more self-directed, she herself engages less with her peers, resulting in a lower level of peer correction in this group's task than in the interactions seen in recordings 1 and 2.

Although it has been suggested in Chapter 5 that recordings 2 and 3 may exhibit certain features which could discourage a positive social dimension, the fact that both Beatriz and Filomena position themselves as language experts means they manage the task, achieve joint focus on the problem and ensure deliberation over the problems to be resolved, thus promoting learning opportunities for all interactants. These tasks also display features which could encourage a positive social dimension, such as consulting others in decision making, the use of phatic utterances, compromising personal opinions in favour of group consensus and the use of humour, laughter and praise.

Recording 4 however is different as no one student assumes the role of expert. This demonstrates that tasks cannot be understood as stable predefined entities with predictable learning outcomes. Instead they are configured by the learners themselves and their own interpretation processes. Although a more symmetrical learner alignment to the task might seem to be a more democratic solution, it appears to be one of the reasons which lead to the problems already discussed in excerpts 20-24 and which result in Rute disengaging from the interaction and resorting to private speech to try to accomplish the task on her own. One marked difference between this interaction and the others described above is the lack of one learner who can explain and justify decisions, which in the other tasks has been the prerogative of the group leader or language expert i.e. Silvia, Beatriz and Filomena. This leads to a certain inability on the part of Liliana, Carolina, David and Rute to effectively resolve some of the items on the task sheet, as exemplified in excerpt 68.

(68)

- 85 L&C we didn't knew that the
86 C train was late. ((read from the tasksheet))
87 R <°we didn't knew° >
→ 88 D °doesn't°
→ 89 L we didn't KNOW
→ 90 R >yes (.) we didn't know. yes (.) it's correct<
91 C&L we didn't know,
92 R mmm'
93 C kno:w (.) we didn't know
94 L [° when we write ()°]
95 R [no it's correct.] (2) his life
96 C his life use to be (1) simpler ((reads from tasksheet))
→ 97 R use:d use:d
98 L °his life°
99 C use:d
100 R use:d to be
101 C used
102 R >used to be simpler. <
103 L mmhmm'

On line 88 David suggests 'doesn't' as a way of correcting this sentence. This is David's only participation in this sequence. Here his suggestion is ignored and his opinion is not sought in the resolution of these two problem sentences. On line 89 Liliana suggests 'didn't know' and this is accepted unconditionally by Carolina and Rute on lines 90 and 91. No explanation is offered and none is sought. The same happens in the next sentence 'His life use to be simpler.' On line 97 Rute suggests substituting 'use' for 'used' which is accepted by the others although once more David is not consulted. This lack of explanation leads to situations such as the one shown in excerpt 20 where interactants try to resolve the correction of 'You must remember me to get some milk'. This attitude leads to conflict as interactants simply repeat their version of the correction, and once more there is no attempt made to explain or accommodate the views of others, all of which contributes to a negative affective environment. This lack of interest in the opinions of peers could also explain the lower level of peer correction in this task when compared to that in recordings 1 and 2. It is my belief that this group's approach to task management, coupled with negative affect leads to this task being less successful in terms of the creation of learning opportunities.

Recordings 5 and 7 involve Class 1 and 2 respectively taking part in the first dictogloss task. The number of learning opportunities recorded in Table 7.3 is similar for both classes however Table 7.4 shows that the Class 2 conversation produces more language and more complex language. Excerpts 69 and 70 show Beatriz, Manuela and Miguel in Class 1 and Filomena, Lourenço and Bernardo in Class 2 carrying out this task.

(69)

- 1 B so (1) i saw a re:ally interesting programme, programme,
 2 M programme [last night,
 3 Mi [she said]
 → 4 B i saw,
 5 Mi i saw [a programme last night]
 → 6 B < [a really] >interesting ((writing))
 7 Mi a [very interesting]
 8 M [very interesting] programme
 → 9 B <°interesting°> ((said as she writes))
 10 Mi programme TV'
 → 11 B °programme° ((writing))
 12 M about documents.
 13 Mi documentary,
 → 14 B last night,
 15 M about inventions,
 → 16 B (2) e:h it wa:s (2) a do:cume:ntary ok,
 17 Mi about,
 18 M about events,
 → 19 B °about°
 20 Mi inventions
 → 21 B (3)< inventions>, ((writing)) (2) I was astonished,
 22 M yes, I was
 23 Mi she didn't know
 → 24 B °asto::nished° ((writing))
 25 Mi >that TV was invented by a Sco:ttish,<
 → 26 B [I didn't know]
 27 Mi [in nineteen]five (2) ninety [five]?
 28 M [ninety five]. (.) ninety five.
 29 Mi °yes' (.) ninety five,°

(70)

- 34 F I saw a really
 → 35 B interesting
 → 36 F <interesting>
 → 37 B programme TV last night (16) °° it was °° ((writing))
 38 L it was about (2) a:
 39 F about a (3)

- 40 B inventions
 41 F it was a [documentary]
 42 B [documentary] about [[inventions]]
 43 F [[about]] inventions (8) a::nd she didn't kno:w, (3) that TV were
 → 44 invented °by a scotch°
 → 45 B in (.) 19 (1)[25]
 46 F [25] isn't it
 47 B yes
 48 F yes 25.
 49 L TV (.) was invented, (2)
 50 B in 1925
 51 F by a sco::tch? (3) in 1925.
 52 B (1) °°in 1925.°°
 53 F (7) i'm i'm dou.btful about what here (3) i was asto:nished to
 54 learn,
 55 B I think it's that
 → 56 F that
 → 57 B that football
 → 58 F yes(.) I guess (.) also (.) that football,
 → 59 B was played
 → 60 F was played by Aztecs.(.) yeah.
 → 61 B yes.
 → 62 L with an iron ball.

Although both groups achieve the task, both approach it in different ways, again demonstrating that the manner in which learners engage with a task creates different conditions for learning. In Class 1 (excerpt 69), only Beatriz writes the text and she starts writing immediately. As neither Miguel nor Manuela write, they are free to provide Beatriz with information. Most turns are very short and there is a lot of repetition as Miguel and Manuela wait for Beatriz to complete writing the phrases of the text. For this reason the language produced is not complex and as there is so much repetition, the quantity of language is reduced (as repetitions are not counted as AS-units). There is also a great deal of overlapping talk and for this reason there is no true co-construction. Beatriz listens as she writes and incorporates the ideas she hears into her text, which is clear if we follow her turns on lines 4, 6, 9, 11, 14, 16, 19, 21, 24 and 26. In her habitual role as group leader she listens but does not necessarily always incorporate the suggestions of others. This group limit themselves to the discussion of this task. The excerpt starts on line 1 with the discourse marker 'So' used by Beatriz to orient the group to the task and focus attention on the problem to be resolved. She also introduces the first sentence of the

dictogloss. This is repeated and extended on line 2 by Manuela. On line 4 Beatriz again manages the task by providing the start of the next sentence 'I saw', which is followed by Miguel's extension on line 5, again followed by Beatriz's continuation of the sentence on line 6, which disregards Miguel's previous contribution. On lines 7 and 8 both Manuela and Miguel substitute Beatriz's formulation 'really interesting' from line 6 for 'very interesting'. However this is not acknowledged by Beatriz, who incorporates the form 'really interesting' in her final version of the text. Manuela's contribution on line 12 'about documents' is repaired by Miguel on line 13 to 'documentary' which is incorporated into the text by Beatriz on line 16, followed by the acknowledgment token 'OK'. Miguel again repairs Manuela's contribution 'events' on line 18 to 'inventions' on line 20, which is incorporated by Beatriz on line 21. Beatriz again manages the task by starting the next sentence 'I was astonished' on line 21. In this way the triad jointly manage the task but Beatriz positions herself as the expert and the others align themselves to this positioning.

In the Class 2 group however, excerpt 70, all the participants write and they initially take the first 33 lines to reconstruct the story orally. There are pauses between turns which give the interactants the possibility to collaboratively co-construct the story with their partners, leading to more complex sentences. Examples of co-construction can be seen on lines 34-35, 36-37, 44-45, 56-57, 58-59, 59-60 and 60-62. Filomena suggests the initial sentence of the text on line 34 which is continued by Bernardo and Lourenço on lines 35, 37 and 38. Filomena supplies a continuation on line 39 but reformulates this on line 41 which is taken up and extended by Bernardo and herself on lines 42 and 43. On line 46 Filomena seeks confirmation from the others using the question tag 'Isn't it?' and the text is completed by contributions from all three on lines 49, 50 and 51. In this way the interactants in this group mutually orient to the task and jointly resolve the problem.

In addition, this group go on to discuss Aztecs and football, as has been detailed in excerpt 10. This opportunity for additional output cannot be quantified as a learning opportunity, but if learning takes place through interaction then more opportunities for interaction could lead to more learning opportunities. This is also an example of phatic communication and serves to share the experience of the

participants and strengthen interpersonal bonds thereby creating more positive affect amongst the individuals of this triad. For this reason, and because of the more collaborative fashion in which this group achieve the task, this triad produce more language, and more complex language than the Class 1 group.

Consideration of Task 3, term 2 illustrates how the individual learner can impact the nature of peer interaction. In Class 1 (recordings 17 and 18), the total number of target-like corrections for this task is 15, as can be seen in Table 7.2, but for Class 2 (recordings 19 and 20), it is 6. Why? Inspection of the interaction patterns in recording 20 reveals a number of reasons for this. In recording 20 there are only 2 target-like corrections, one a peer correction, the other self-repair, both of which appear in the first 7 turns of the task, and neither of which are attributed to Deolinda. In this task it is clear that Deolinda dominates the interaction. She is responsible for almost half the turns, with Mariana being responsible for 35% and Sofia a mere 17%. 12 of her turns involve Portuguese, in stark contrast to the others who use no L1 at all. Generally she uses Portuguese to implicitly request help with a word search, although she often ignores the suggestions of her classmates. This apparent lack of interest in her classmates, leading to a lack of attention to what they say could explain why she refrains from peer repair. In addition, her turns are longer than those of the others and as she speaks more quickly and gives them little time to interact, there is less private space for self- correction. This type of behaviour from this learner has already been exemplified in excerpt 58, lines 263-269, where she interacts with João in the socialising discussion (recording 15) an example of interaction with no peer correction. In this way one individual learner can alter the nature of the interaction. Sato and Ballinger (2012: 169-170) also note the importance of the individual in the success of error correction activities.

Recordings 21 and 22 involve students in Class 1 taking part in the ‘What if’ discussion task where students were asked to correct 5 second conditional sentences (in the form of questions) where necessary, then ask and answer the questions themselves. Here the students involved in recording 21 scored much lower than the students in the other 3 recordings for learning opportunities and quality and quantity of language, and although this task has already been briefly

described in section 5.6, I would like to take the opportunity to revisit it in greater detail here. Excerpts 71 and 72 show the interaction in recording 21 and 22 respectively. In excerpt 71 it can be seen how Neema and Iris, both students in class 1, fail to engage in interactional work to complete the error correction task. There is no metalanguage, no explaining, no collective scaffolding, and a lack of engagement or agency on the part of the learners with the task. On line 1 Neema reads the sentence for correction thereby positioning herself as the task manager, and affirms that she thinks the sentence is correct. This is followed immediately by Iris who agrees on line 3 but fails to expand her turn to elaborate why she believes the sentence is correct. This is followed by both Neema and Iris again agreeing on lines 4 and 5, but again with no further expansion on the part of either. On lines 6 to 24 the learners take turns to read the sentences. The only other language Neema produces is ‘Yes’ (lines 10, 15 and 20), ‘I think yes’ and ‘Yes OK’ (lines 17 and 24), ‘It’s correct’ and ‘Now question’ on lines 17 and 24 respectively. Similarly, apart from repetition of the sentences for correction, Iris’s only expansion is limited to, ‘and this part is correct’ (line 11), and she fails to comment on the correction of the 3rd, 4th and 5th sentences. Neither learner comments on the opinions of their partner nor expands on their reasons for corrections. There is a noticeable lack of continuers or other signs of phatic communication. Due to the fact that there is no discussion, no opinions sought, no real interaction, these two learners correct the sentences (although sentence 1 remains incorrect) in a total of 24 lines. There is no real engagement with each other or the task and a total lack of any social dimension in the interaction, and this has negative consequences for the amount of error correction and other learning opportunities seen here.

(71)

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| → | 1 | N | °the first one I think it’s correct’° if you won a lot of money (.) |
| | 2 | | you would <u>move</u> house. |
| | 3 | I | yes |
| → | 4 | N | i think it’s correct. (.) |
| | 5 | I | °° correct. ok°° |
| → | 6 | N | second one, (.) what’ would you do, if you didn’t like the food |
| | 7 | | your friend (.) cooked for you. ((reads question)) would. what |
| | 8 | | would you do |

9 I what would
 → 10 N would. (.) yes.
 → 11 I you do (.) and this part is correct (.) the food your friend
 12 cooked
 13 N <yo:ur frie:nd>
 → 14 I yes.
 → 15 N yes. (1) °°<what country would you vi:sit (1) if you co:uld>°°
 16 I °°travel°° (5) °°<if you could travel>°°
 → 17 N (3) °°if you could travel°° (3) i think yes. (1) it's correct
 → 18 I (5) °°if you needed to borrow some money (.) who would you
 19 ask°°
 → 20 N (2) yes
 → 21 I (4) if your friend have a (.) a [horrible haircut]
 → 22 N [horrible haircut] would you tell
 23 him/her (2) no:(5) if you friend had a (.) horrible haircut. (.)
 24 would you tell him or (.) or her. yes. ok. (.) now question

In addition, there is a distinct lack of interest shown by Neema in her partner's subsequent answers to the questions, which has been previously discussed in excerpt 38. Due to this lack of a social dimension to their interaction, and an unwillingness to communicate reasons and explanations for corrections, this task between these learners provides very few learning opportunities.

(72)

1 B so (2) if you won a lot (.) a lot of money' (1) you would
 2 move house? i think this is incorrect?
 → 3 Mi why?
 → 4 B <because (.) when you do: the question you put would first>
 5 would you
 → 6 Mi why not (.) is a conditional (.) is a conditional
 → 7 B yes it's a conditional. (.) but when you make a (.) a question I
 8 think it's
 9 Mi [yeah this is a]
 10 B [would you] move house
 → 11 Mi it's (.) i think it's correct. you put(.) > if you won
 12 B if you won
 → 13 Mi is past simple
 14 B yes it's correct '
 15 Mi a lot of money'
 16 B yes'
 → 17 Mi you would move?<
 → 18 B no would! you move house.(.) would you?
 → 19 Mi (2) ah question (you're correct)
 20 B if you put this

- 21 Mi if you won if you won a lot of money' (.) would you move
 22 house' yes.
 23 B because if (1) if you put this (3) backwards
 24 Mi ok
 → 25 B you didn't said would you ah(.) you would move house if you
 26 won a lot of money?
 → 27 Mi ok I'm understanding

In contrast excerpt 72 shows how Miguel and Beatriz take 27 turns to discuss the first sentence and they continue in this way during the rest of the task, taking just over 3 mins 30 sec longer to complete the task than Neema and Iris. On line 3 Miguel raises a doubt rather than accepting Beatriz's assertion that the first sentence is incorrect. In this way he is questioning her position as language expert. He continues to challenge her expertise on lines 6, 11, 13, and 17. On line 18 Beatriz asserts her authority by repeating the corrected sentence with special emphasis on the word 'would'. Miguel then pauses for 2 seconds, possible thinking time, before he accepts the correction on line 19 using the discourse marker 'Ah' which may reflect a change of state for the speaker and an observable feature of psychological conditions encouraging learning. They have, through the use of metalanguage (lines 4, 6 and 13), explanation (line 7) and examples (line 25) engaged with the sentence and resolved the problem. Their disagreement has played a crucial role in learning as it provided for further learning opportunities through increased attention to the object of negotiation and subsequent increased noticing for learners.

Excerpt 73 shows part of recording 25 where students in Class 1 are taking part in the 'Tricky situations' discussion task. Students in both class 1 and 2 produce complex language due to the nature of the task. As they are answering questions about hypothetical situations using 3rd conditional, the tendency in both groups is to reply using 3rd conditional sentences i.e. complex language seen in lines 8-9, 10-12, 16-18 and 20-23 below. Also due to the nature of the task, a discussion task, there is no metalanguage used and little necessity for explaining. The reason the second group has a much higher score for learning opportunities is due to the way the interactants co-construct the discourse which has already been mentioned in excerpts 34 and 35.

(73)

- A 6 when you finish (4) you want to read first (3) read and (.)
7 decide what the people should have done ((reads from the
tasksheet)) (29)
- N 8 °ah yeah° (.) in my opinion <she:: should've eh she should've
9 (3) >left him (.) tout ah ah immediately.
- A 10 mhhh. °°yes°° i think (1) he should (.) talk with her firstly (.)
→ 11 because (1) when I see (.) something i i probably see wrong
12 because I invented. (1) it happens (.)
- N 13 uhh,
A 14 but in the case is true
N 15 yes
A 16 >because she discovered he have a secret love< (.) so I think
→ 17 he have should talk (.) with her (1) should have talk firstly with
18 her so,
N 19 uh huh.
→ I 20 (4) so I think (.) first of all (.) she(.) should (.) talk with Harry
21 after ()
A 22 yes
→ I 23 a::nd (.) they should decide what to do.

Lastly I will contrast two groups' work for the final dictogloss activity. One is recording 29 involving Diana, Carolina and Anna from Class 1 and the second, recording 31, involving Mariana, Bernardo and Carlos, all students in Class 2. Learners from Class 1 produce much less language, and their interaction results in half the learning opportunities produced by the Class 2 students. These two groups' attempts to successfully reconstruct the final sentence of the dictogloss have already been shown in excerpts 53 and 54. Here excerpts 74 and 75 show how both attempt to start writing their story, starting with Class 1.

(74)

- 42 (17)
43 A a baby girl?
44 C baby girl.
→ 45 D baby girl yes. (9)
→ 46 A °°if she has got °° (25)
47 C °we need to (.) write?°
48 D ah yes the the the
49 C ah ok (2)
50 D mary do w,' (.) do we have to write the whole story?
51 T yes
52 D >ok ok< (2)
→ 53 C so! in August 2000,

- 54 D <Au:gust 2000 Je:nnifer and [James]
→ 55 A [James] (5) (writing)
56 C met, (2)
→ 57 D i don't remember if they met (.) or if they were together in 2.
58 (2) they broke.
59 A °they went a computer science study.°
60 D (2) computer science student.
61 C so:: in August 2000, (.) Je:nnifer and James
62 D went on a computer °science° (writing) (2)
63 A went
→ 64 C went?
65 D °yeah°
66 A eles estiveram, sim
→ 67 C and () computer?
68 D on a science student, >°acho que é°<, I guess
69 A °science °° (writing)
→ 70 D computer °science student°° (writing). (9) she didn't want a
71 serious relationship (.) so she broke.

Firstly it is interesting to note that this excerpt starts at a zone of interactional transition (ZIT). The learners have already reconstructed the text orally and as they are unaware of the fact that they need to write it, they opt for silence. Their reaction to the ZIT formed when they finish the task has already been discussed in excerpt 42 where they sit in silence, and even though this is remarked upon by Carolina, who tries to start a conversation about the weather, they continue to sit without conversing until the teacher asks them if they have finished. As has been mentioned, silence is dispreferred and participants in oral interaction strive to avoid it. Having been engaged in interaction during the task, this lack of a willingness to communicate indicates that the interactants are now opting out of interaction. Carolina's first pair part referring to the weather calls for a second pair part acknowledging this comment, and its absence is notable. Ending oral interaction politely is difficult for native speakers and non-native speakers alike and it is often on such occasions that speakers take part in phatic communion to avoid this silence (Leech 1983: 141), which on many occasions revolves around the weather. Silence however, is a sign of opting out of social interaction, and is a form of impoliteness. Outside the classroom this type of silence would be interpreted as a lack of social engagement between interactants, and I would suggest that it also implies a lack of a positive social dimension between these learners. By failing to acknowledge Carolina's comment about the weather Diana and Anna show that they perceive

their relationship as one limited to task completion, and that even at this point, at the end of the academic year (this task was carried out in the last few weeks of classes), they are uninterested in further strengthening personal ties with Carolina or each other.

Lines 53 to 71 in excerpt 74 show how these learners work to once more reconstruct the first part of the dictogloss story, having realised they now need to provide a written version. On line 53 Carolina solicits participation of the others and achieves a joint focus on the task through the discourse marker 'So'. She then starts the reconstruction of the first sentence which is continued by Diana and Anna on lines 54 and 55. On line 57 Diana seeks confirmation as to whether Jennifer and James met or if they were already a couple in 2000. However as no confirmation is given the conversation moves on with Anna suggesting the continuation. Use of the verb 'went' is challenged by Carolina on line 64, but is confirmed by Diana on the following line and accepted by Carolina. Again on line 67 Carolina asks for confirmation and this is once more provided by Diana and accepted by Carolina. On line 70 Diana then suggests how to complete this part of the reconstruction.

This sequence is characterised by a lack of phatic communication, e.g. invite continuers such as OK, yeah, etc. and a lack of question sequences. Carolina twice asks for confirmation (lines 64 and 67) and accepts the confirmation given. Diana once asks for confirmation but receives no reply. Anna asks no questions. There seems to be little real engagement with the task and this is reflected in the fact that it takes this group a mere 11 turns to reconstruct this part of the story.

Excerpt 75 shows Mariana, Bernardo and Carlos in Class 2 reconstructing the same part of the story. Because they ask and answer many more questions and engage more with the task, it takes them a total of 43 turns. The sequence once more starts with the discourse marker 'So' which serves to achieve joint focus of attention on the task. On line 79 Bernardo provides the beginning of the first sentence followed by the confirmation token 'Isn't it?', although Bernardo uses L1 here. He repeats this token on a number of occasions throughout the conversation (lines 85, 101 and 118) in this way soliciting participation of the others. There are also a number of acknowledgment tokens on lines 99, 105, 106, and 110 which serve to

show engagement with each other's contributions. In addition, this conversation also shows learners formulating questions related to morphosyntax on lines 101, 111 and 118 which allows learners to collaboratively reach a consensus of opinion. This confirms the work of Naughton who has shown that asking questions can help establish social and affective relations amongst L2 language learners (Naughton 2006).

(75)

- 78 M so (4)
 → 79 B in august 2000' ^{oo} *não é* ^{oo} ((tra.: isn't it))
 80 M yes (2) 2000 (writing)
 81 B 2000 (writing) (4)
 82 M jennifer'
 83 B jennifer and james'
 84 C james'
 → 85 B a computer science student *naõ é ?* ((tra.: isn't it?)) jennifer'
 86 M and james
 87 B and james
 88 M a compu::ter (writing)
 89 B a computer
 90 M science
 91 C >jennifer and james< (.) met ?
 92 B science student (2) start to
 93 M we can say that after this
 94 B start to start to go
 95 C going out?
 96 B start to go out
 97 M but we can write computer science student between eh (2)
 98 B yes. between (2) commas.
 → 99 M yeah
 100 C °and james°
 → 101 B started in the past *não é?* ((tra.: isn't it))
 102 M sta:rted >going out<
 103 B ^{oo}<started going out>^{oo} (writing)
 104 C °student (2) started going out° (writing)
 → 105 M yeah.(3) after a while
 → 106 B yes after a while (.) she realised (1) she
 107 C she realised [she didn't want]
 108 B [she didn't want] a
 109 C a serious relationship'
 → 110 B yes
 → 111 M realised é with z or
 112 C sometime'
 113 B after a while'

- 114 M s s realised.
 115 C after a while
 116 B <she re::alised’>
 117 M that she didn’t want? (2)
 118 B she realise *não é* ((tra.: isn’t it))
 → 119 M realised_u
 120 C realised_u

Excerpt 76 shows a section towards the end of the second group’s task where they are discussing what linking devices to use to start their final sentence.

(76)

- 404 C finally
 405 B *ainda não é* (2) *ainda falta um pouco* ((tra.: not yet, there’s
 406 still a little left)) (laughter)
 407 C she
 408 B she had if she had at the end no
 409 C finally she realised (2)
 410 B no(.) no (.) [at the end]
 411 C [if she wouldn’t have had] the accident
 412 B at the end’
 → 413 M why we need to put a (.)
 → 414 B in the end
 → 415 M a word if (.) why we need to put
 → 416 C&B if she hadn’t had an accident
 417 M >*não não estou a falar deste palavra* ((tra.: no no, i’m
 418 talking about this word)) finally<
 → 419 B >*é por causa disto* < ((tra.: is it because of that)) (smiley
 → 420 voice, laughter) in the end if she
 → 421 M in the end (smiley voice, laughter)
 422 B if she wouldn’t (laughter)
 → 423 C *se calhar* ((tra.: maybe)) finally (smiley voice, laughter)
 → 424 B *está bem* ((tra.: OK))finally if she hadn’t (laughter)
 425 C *vamos la pensar aqui um bocadinho* ((tra.: let’s think
 426 about this a bit))(smiley voice, laughter)

On line 404 Carlos suggests ‘Finally’ as the best way to start the last sentence, which the learners have already tried to reconstruct, unsuccessfully. Bernardo on the following line jokes that they still have some way to go which provokes laughter amongst the others. Bernardo suggests ‘at the end’ which he refines to ‘in the end’ on line 414. Bernardo and Carlos then proceed to reconstruct the final sentence on line 416. Mariana however is unhappy about the use of a linker

and asks on lines 413 and 415 why a linker is needed. Bernardo and Mariana then engage in what could be considered as banter, or mock impoliteness (Leech 1983: 144) on lines 419-421. Bernardo questions Mariana's concern and she subsequently makes fun of his choice of language, 'In the end'. Banter is a way of transmitting feelings of positive affect but can be construed as being impolite, hence the affiliative laughter here. Eventually the group agree to use the word suggested initially on lines 423-4. Laughter here indicates the rapport between these learners and in this way demonstrates these learner's affective stance in interaction. This excerpt again shows the positive social environment amongst the learners in this triad.

It could of course be argued that the Class 1 students are simply more proficient and therefore have less need to ask and answer questions. However, inspection of the final versions of these reconstructed texts in Appendix 4.1 shows that in fact the students from Class 1's text is less accurate and less cohesive.

These two excerpts again serve to show how important positive affect amongst participants is to the outcome of the interaction, which would appear to be related to engagement – not only task engagement but how learners engage with each other. By soliciting participation, acknowledging contributions, and asking and answering questions, learners more effectively focus on the task at hand and pool their resources to reach mutually acceptable resolutions. They show they are attuned to what is being said and this in turn facilitates the noticing necessary for SLA. This process is facilitated by feelings of positive affect amongst participants.

7.5 The Case of Rute

At 69, Rute is the oldest student in Class 2 and often seems unsure and hesitant about speaking. She can be heard in recordings 4, (the error correction task with Carolina, Liliana and David), 7, (the first dictogloss task with Carlos and Deolinda), recording 24 (the 'What if' discussion task with Bernardo) and the final dictogloss task with Olivia and Marta (recording 32). The first error correction task and Rute's role in it has already been detailed in Chapter 5, (excerpts 20-24), as has her part in

the final dictogloss activity (excerpts 40 and 41). In both these tasks, fewer learning opportunities were created in Rute's groups than the other Class 2 group. Here I would like to concentrate on recordings 7 and 24, where learning opportunities are similar to those created by the other Class 2 group, and greater than those created by the Class 1 groups, and show how the affective environment influences Rute's performance.

Excerpts 77 and 78 show parts of Rute's participation in the timeline writing activity in term 2 with Deolinda and Carlos. Excerpt 77 starts with Carlos suggesting the first line of the reconstructed story. In doing so he uses the wrong name which causes some laughter amongst the members of the group. On line 3 Deolinda uses the acknowledgment token 'OK' to acknowledge this contribution and continues by contributing the next section. Interestingly on line 5 Rute asks to be given a turn 'Let me answer', an example of next speaker self-selection. This is generally achieved through overlap with the previous speaker, through a turn-entry device which starts with a turn initial item such as 'Well', 'But', 'So' etc., through recycled turn beginnings when the speaker repeats part of the previous turn, or non-verbal starts e.g. through gesture (Wong & Waring 2010: 37-43). As Deolinda has reached a possible completion point, it is unnecessary for Rute to ask, and it is rather surprising that she does so. We have no way of knowing why Rute does this, but it could possibly be because she had difficulty in the past in breaking into a discussion. In this turn Rute misunderstands the visual prompts on the tasksheet and suggests that Bill went to university in Germany. This is followed by a 3 second trouble relevant pause before Carlos explicitly disagrees on line 7. This is then followed by a further 2 second pause before he provides an explanation as to why this is incorrect. This silence could serve to mitigate his disagreement and save Rute's face. On line 8 Rute hesitates for 3 seconds, possibly thinking time, before she reaffirms her claim on lines 8 and 10. Once more this is refuted by Carlos on line 11, again after a mitigating 2 second pause.

(77)

- 1 C <tom (.) tom was born in 1980 (.) in london.> sorry bill.
→ 2 ((laughter)) bill was born in 1980 (.) in london.
3 D °ok° five years later (.) he went to school, e:h four years (.)
4 later (.) he: starts to play a guitar,
→ 5 R °let me (.) let me answer,° in 1997(.) he:: he was (2) e:m to
6 university? in Germany
→ 7 C (3) no,(2) he (.) he choose his main subject German.
→ 8 R (3) he went to the university
9 D and [choose his subject German]
→ 10 R [in the in the Germany]
→ 11 C (2) no
→ 12 D no main subject
→ 13 C °disciplina?° ((tra.: subject))
→ 14 R ah, main subject (1) ah main subject
15 D choose the to study this subject
→ 16 R ah this this

This disagreement sequence is ended by Deolinda who uses an explanation on line 12 and Carlos who uses translation on line 13 to diffuse the situation. On line 14 Rute signals her understanding with the discourse marker ‘Ah’ and further confirms this through repetition on line 16. Here in contrast to the interaction in recording 4, the possible tension generated by disagreement is diffused through the use of L1 and explanation.

Excerpt 78 again begins with humour and laughter amongst the learners of this triad as in excerpt 77. Carlos on line 100 invokes laughter through the incongruity of his suggestion that Bill, the respectable individual pictured on the tasksheet, played in the school heavy metal band. This again is followed by Deolinda who contributes the next sentence of the story and realises a self-initiated self-repair, substituting ‘Your’ for ‘His,’ an example of a learning opportunity and language development. On line 109 Rute supplies the phrase ‘he was engaged’ which she self-repairs to ‘he get engaged’ although the rising intonation marks this as an implicit request for confirmation. On line 110 Deolinda suggests the alternative ‘fell in love’ and on line 112 Carlos supplies a recast of Rute’s erroneous expression suggesting ‘got engaged’ which is taken up by Deolinda on line 113 through her repetition.

(78)

- 100 C he (1) he started playing guitar in a school (2) heavy metal
101 group ((laughter))
→ 102 D ok. ((laughs)) in 1997 ah he choose your (.) eh his main
103 subject, german,
104 C and went to university
105 D yeah
106 C [°°and choose°°]
107 R <[and in 1998]>
108 D one (.) one year later,
→ 109 R <one year later he he was engaged, (1) he get engaged?>
→ 110 D >he fell in love,<
→ 111 R in (.) yes[in in]
112 C [got engaged]
→ 113 D [[got]]
114 R [[yes]] he fell in love.(.) he fell in love.
115 C yes.
116 D mm hmm,
117 C and he married[Marion]
118 R and one, one, one, year later? one year later? he he married
119 D yes with Marion
→ 120 R he get (.) he got married,

On line 120 this is correctly taken up by Rute herself in her self- repair sequence, 'got married'. Again Rute has been corrected by her peers but due to the nature of the correction and the social dimension of the interaction, Rute is able to benefit linguistically from this task in a way she was unable to in the first error correction exercise.

The last excerpt shows Bernardo and Rute interacting in the 'What if' discussion task at the beginning of term 3. Excerpt 33 in Chapter 5 also details part of this task. Excerpt 79 once more shows how through patience, humour and encouragement Bernardo manages to engage Rute in conversation and provide opportunities for learning. The excerpt starts on line 17 of the interaction with Bernardo asking Rute the first question. Her delay token, 'Eh' on line 18 is followed by Bernard's repetition of the question on line 19. On line 20 Rute attempts to continue the conversation but has problems finding the necessary vocabulary and engages in a word search at the end of line 20. On line 21 Bernardo supplies the next words Rute requires, 'to a', which allows her to continue on line 22. This is an

example of progressional overlap, which happens when one speaker's utterance begins to show evidence of disfluency, in this case hesitation, which allows the other speaker to start a new turn (Wong & Waring 2010: 39). Bernardo here however instead of developing his turn simply uses it to prompt Rute, thereby allowing her to continue her discourse. Bernardo uses this strategy again on lines 26, 34 and 49. In addition he asks questions on lines 23 and 46, encouraging Rute to extend and continue her halting contributions. This leads to two learning opportunities, one between lines 41 and 43 where she engages in self-repair of 'streets clean' which she successfully corrects to 'clean streets' and another on line 51 where he supplies the word she searches for on line 50, 'dirty'.

(79)

- 17 B if you won a lot (.) a lot of money (.) would you move house?
 18 R e:h,
 → 19 B what would you do.
 20 R e::h)1) yes. <i i i i'd (.) i'd move (1) e:h to>
 → 21 B to a
 22 R to a new house.
 → 23 B a big, or a small, [in the country or in the city] ((laughs))
 24 R [no a small a small] a small house (.) because (.) but <e::m
 25 e::h>
 → 26 B with a
 27 R put e:h a place (.) the place for me it's very important
 → 28 B yes.
 29 R e:h where e:h >with a lot of trees<
 → 30 B yes. yes.
 31 R i like.
 32 B in the in the country like.
 33 R eh, yes.
 → 34 B with e:h with some e:h
 35 R it's a (.) it's a small. a small city.
 36 B °a small city.°
 37 R and you.
 38 B yes. I would (.) I would move to a (.) to other place with e:h
 39 with a garden and ((laughs)) and and(1) like you like with
 40 trees a:nd (2)
 → 41 R and clean eh str cl streets
 → 42 B a clean yeah
 43 R yes strr strre clean streets
 44 B clean streets
 45 R yes
 → 46 B you think here it's not clean? I think in Lisbon the streets are

	47		clean no? don't you think some:
	48	R	there are some streets
→	49	B	some streets that a:re
	50	R	there are
→	51	B	dirty
	52	R	dirty yes yes yes

As mentioned above, Rute's oral interaction while carrying out task 1 and the final task were less successful in creating learning opportunities than the interactions of other groups, and reasons for this have been presented previously. However excerpts 78 and 79 show that while engaging in interaction which promotes a more positive social dimension, Rute is able to grapple with language and create learning opportunities for herself and others.

7.6 Summary

This chapter presented the results of quantitative and further qualitative analysis of peer interactions for learning opportunities, quality and quantity of language. Surprisingly this quantitative analysis revealed the provision of more learning opportunities, more language, and more complex language being produced by learners in Class 2. This then led to further qualitative analysis of interactions which revealed that the manner in which learners engage with the task had an effect on the learning outcomes. As Hellerman and Pekarek Doehler (2010: 26-27) noted, 'learners continuously co-construct the course of accomplishment of the task', which they do by adapting the task to 'local interactional contingencies,' and that this leads to different potentials for learning even when participants are engaged in achieving the same or similar tasks. In addition, analysis further showed that the affective environment amongst peers working in small groups can affect how individuals orient to the learning opportunities afforded by the task, and it is the cohesive nature of the relationship between members in small groups which influences the provision of learning opportunities.

CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarises the findings of the three research questions which guided this investigation, discusses these findings, suggests implications for further research and considers pedagogical implications. It is divided into six main sections. Section 8.1 restates the problem which led to the research being undertaken and section 8.2 deals with the results of the questionnaire and interviews which served to establish which groups were chosen to further investigate as examples of self and teacher declared cohesive and less cohesive groups. The following three sections then deal with one of the three research questions and the chapter ends with a final conclusion in section 8.6 and a discussion of the implications for pedagogy of the findings in section 8.7.

8.1 Review of the Study

This study resulted from my own experiences in the classroom as a language teacher who was very aware of the social environment and how I perceived it to help or hinder the learning process. Language teachers have a tendency to judge classes not only on the ability of students, but also on how pleasant or otherwise the social experience in the classroom is, not only for the teacher but for all concerned. The idea that some classes ‘gel’ and others do not is something quite palpable, although what the gel actually is, is difficult to define. However in general it appeared that students in such classes appeared to be more responsive, friendlier towards each other, and keener to engage with learning materials. It seemed that students in such groups were engaging more in behaviours likely to lead to language learning but I had no way to evaluate this. This study therefore was a result of this perception and my attempt to verify whether students in these more cohesive groups, were in reality creating more language learning opportunities. The research undertaken in this study is noteworthy in that cohesion, although widely studied amongst groups such

as sports teams, the armed forces or political parties (Oyster 2000), is virtually unknown in the area of language learning, although it was identified by Clément, Dornyei and Noels (1994) as a subprocess in classroom motivation more than 20 years ago. The research here took place within a sociocognitive research paradigm, a research paradigm associated with naturalistic inquiry. Consequently, research was carried out in two classrooms of adult English language learners working on oral tasks which formed part of their regular class work. In this way the study responded to calls which have been made recently in the literature for research to take the classroom context more seriously (Batstone 2012, Philp, Walter & Basturkmen 2010), as it is only through classroom based research that we can better understand what factors contribute to learning in the context in which most students learn. Equally it responded to calls made for investigation of how social factors can impact not just interaction, but also learning (Batstone 2012, Mondada & Pekarek Doehler 2004, Philp & Mackey 2010). Furthermore the study was unusual in that task based learning is more frequently studied within a cognitive framework and so little is known of the impact of the social context on task based learning and teaching (Batstone 2012: 459). A number of research tools were used to gather data including questionnaires, interviews and quantitative, but predominantly qualitative analysis of peer interactions. This qualitative analysis was carried out using Conversation Analysis, which attempts to study interaction through analysing and interpreting the interactant's utterances and takes an emic rather than an etic viewpoint of conversation. The study was longitudinal and interaction was studied over an academic year. No constraints were imposed on the participants nor the teacher of the groups and no hypotheses were posed before analysis of the data. The study developed in an ongoing manner with the unmotivated looking of CA providing examples of learning opportunities which were subsequently studied quantitatively. The main research questions which guided the research carried out were:

1 How do learners' utterances lead to or discourage group cohesion in self-reporting/teacher reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups?

2 How do peer interactions facilitate behaviour which could provide learning opportunities from a sociocognitive viewpoint in self-reporting/teacher reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups?

3 How does the quantity and quality of peer to peer interaction compare between self-reporting/teacher reporting cohesive and less cohesive groups?

8.2 Group Cohesion and Classroom Behaviour

The opinions of both teachers and students in the 6 classes initially studied were gathered through the use of a questionnaire distributed after 3 and 9 months of classes, and later through individual interviews at the end of the academic year in relation to group cohesion, their own classroom behaviour and that of their classroom peers. Two groups, taught by the same teacher and subsequently named Class 1 and Class 2, were chosen on the basis of the results of this questionnaire as representing the most and least cohesive groups. The results of interviews with individual students and teachers were also taken into account. The main findings of the questionnaire into group cohesion and classroom behaviours were the following:

a) There was a high degree of correlation for the results of student and teacher questionnaires in both term 1 and term 3, and a high degree of consistency of scores for all 6 groups from term 1 to term 3.

c) 5 of the 6 groups of students scored their class as more cohesive at the end of the academic year than after 3 months, with cohesion remaining high from the beginning to the end of the course for the other. This suggested cohesion grew over the course of the academic year as students got to know each other better, as would be expected.

d) The items with the highest scores for Class 1 for group cohesion were consistent over the academic year. This group strongly disagreed that their classmates did not seem to care about each other very much and that there were some classmates they

preferred not to work with. They agreed that the class was composed of people who got on well.

e) The items with the highest scores for Class 2 were slightly more variable over the academic year, but in both terms they strongly disagreed that their classmates did not seem to care about each other.

f) Students in Class 2 expressed more strongly the opinion that there were classmates they would prefer not to work with, and this was the item for which scores differed most significantly between Class 1 and 2 over the academic year.

g) Students in Class 1 scored their own classroom behaviour and that of their peers equally positively over the academic year. Students in Class 2 rated their own behaviour equally positively over the academic year but rated their classmates considerably less positively in term 3.

h) Both groups scored listening to what the teacher and others said highly for classroom behaviour, but only Class 1 students indicated they would happily work with others. Both groups stated that, of all the behaviours, they were least likely to correct a classmate when they made a mistake.

To my knowledge only two other studies (Chang 2007, Hinger 2006) on group cohesion in language learning classes have been undertaken. The work in this study adapted the questionnaire used by Chang. However, defining cohesion is not an easy task and Senior (1999) describes it as 'an ephemeral concept which was difficult to pin down or measure'. For this reason the fact that there was correlation between student and teacher questionnaires and consistency of scores for groups over the academic year for group cohesion led me to believe that cohesion was something that was understood in the same way by both teachers and students, even though it was something they might have difficulty defining.

The principal difference between Classes 1 and 2 lay in the fact that whereas Class 1 students were happy to work with all their classmates, there were classmates in Class 2 whom the others preferred not to work with. In addition, Class 2 students were much less positive in their evaluation of the classroom behaviour of their peers

than students in Class 1. These results were consistent with the characteristics of cohesive and less cohesive groups as discussed in Chapter 4. In addition, these results were confirmed by the interviews carried out with class members, the main findings of which can be seen below.

a) The 4 learners from Class 1 interviewed mentioned many more positive affective and sociocognitive behaviours and positive emotions, beliefs and attitudes than negative, with 25 out of a total of 29 subordinate categories reflecting positive aspects and only 4 reflecting negative aspects.

b) All 4 Class 1 learners claimed they worked well with all other students in the group and that they themselves and others participated fully in oral tasks. In addition they all believed that they learned from their mistakes and were willing to ask colleagues or the teacher when they failed to understand. Lastly they stated that they all believed the group atmosphere was positive, felt positive about lessons, considered themselves active learners and believed oral interaction helped learning. Neema however said she felt she learned mistakes from the others during oral interaction, although she also stressed how important she thought oral interaction was.

c) The teacher confirmed these views commenting on the use of humour by the group and how they often made jokes. She also noted how engaged they were with oral activities although she also mentioned there were some cliques in the class who always liked to sit in the same place.

d) In contrast to Class 1, analysis of the interviews carried out with the 3 learners in Class 2 revealed 18 subordinate categories, a third of which were negative, and this is supported by the findings of the interview with the teacher of the group.

e) As reflected in the questionnaires, interviews with the teacher and students revealed that there was a small group composed of Olivia and Marta, who were, as mentioned by João ‘in a cage,’ who were unwilling to move places and work with others, and that this created a ‘bad environment’ in the class. Students often manifest territorial behaviour in class, preferring to sit in certain seats. However these preferences can lead to private spaces which discourage proximity and contact

among group members and which may lead to the formation of ‘subgroups and cliques’ (Ehrman & Dornyei 1998: 93). Olivia herself when questioned said that she didn’t like to work with her colleagues because they didn’t ‘speak well English’, she had difficulty understanding them, and she believed that she could not learn by interacting with them orally. The teacher stated she felt Olivia believed she would pick up her colleague’s errors through interaction, although it was the teacher’s belief that Olivia was weaker than the other students in the group and this led to her inability to interact with them orally. Another reason mentioned by students as an impediment to working with peers was the differences in age highlighted by all three interviewees. However both students and the teacher mentioned that 75% of students in the group were willing to interact and contribute to the discussion while working with peers. When interviewed, the teacher Mary stated that she believed a positive environment in the class was conducive to learning, although she indicated in the questionnaire that classroom behaviours were similar for both groups. It would therefore appear that the teacher felt the lack of cohesion stated by students in Class 2 was not an impediment to their learning and this was indeed what this study revealed. As noted earlier, some researchers believe that it is not the characteristics of the context setting themselves which influence interactions but how learners perceive them. Class 1 students perceived the group as a cohesive group. However qualitative analysis of a number of peer interactions amongst group members showed that small groups did not always function as cohesive groups and at times learners seemed uninterested in their peers and only minimally engaged with the tasks. In contrast, although Class 2 students perceived the group as less cohesive, analysis of tasks showed many small groups were engaged and created a positive social environment during peer interaction

One deficiency with the research design here was the fact that, due to incompatibility of timetables of the researcher and the two classes, only 4 students from Class 1 were interviewed and only 3 from Class 2, and so the opinions expressed were not representative of the class as a whole. Both interviews and questionnaires seemed to suggest that Class 1 was a cohesive group. However, it was difficult to judge if in reality Class 2 was a truly non-cohesive group or whether it was in fact a group which functioned well except for 2 or 3 students – those who

were 'in the cage'. However, this part of the study did serve to gain a greater understanding of the emotions in the classroom. If the learner's success is more about what goes on between learners in the classroom as suggested by Stevick (1980: 4) then shedding light on the emotions peers feel for each other is clearly needed to complement the work which has already been carried out by researchers on affective factors within learners. Mainstream SLA research has prioritised the study of language anxiety over all other emotions, but interviewees here referred to feelings such as patience, a lack of respect, anger, stubbornness, enthusiasm, rudeness and appreciation. It would be profitable if such emotions and how they mediate learning or otherwise were further investigated in the language learning classroom. It is also suggested that further research should be carried out in the area of group cohesion in the SLA classroom. Although this study has shown that teachers and students alike are able to identify group cohesion, further work needs to be carried out on what factors constitute cohesion for teachers and students. Teachers in the Western European contexts where I teach highly value groups which 'gel' and which work well together (Hadfield 1992, Senior 1997) however little is known of students' opinions on group cohesion. Do they value it equally and see it as being a factor which can enhance learning, or is it simply a result of the teacher's natural desire to have students who appear to like each other and who work well together and engage with materials?

8.3 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions for Scaffolding which Attends to Affective States

As it is believed that it is through language that group cohesion is built, the language the learners used in peer interactions was examined for evidence of utterances which could encourage or discourage a positive social dimension. One previous study (Hinger 2006) examined 'group-building' communications made by peers, but as verbal behaviour here was assigned to a number of pre-formulated classifications, the range of behaviours identified as attending to affective states was low. In the present study learners were recorded taking part in a total of 8 oral

tasks in pairs, triads and groups of 4 as part of their coursework, and the interaction was analysed qualitatively for scaffolding which could attend to affective states using CA. CA proposes that researchers use ‘unmotivated looking’ to analyse data, rather than trying to allocate the data into predetermined categories. Learners exhibited multiple behaviours in interaction which could promote a positive social dimension, invaluable for learning, especially language learning, where, as Arnold (2011:11) points out, positive affect is crucial as ‘our self-image is more vulnerable when we do not have mastery of our vehicle for expression – language’.

The main findings were as follows:

- a) Learners exhibited behaviours which related to how task disagreements were dealt with e.g. sympathising with the point of view of others, compromising the speaker’s own opinion in favour of the group consensus, using mitigating expressions and hedges to minimise disagreement, declaring a consensus of opinion or suggesting leaving controversial decisions to later.
- b) Learners exhibited behaviours related to interpersonal relations/attraction e.g. sharing personal information, asking and answering questions and showing an interest in peers, actively listening to others, asking others for their opinions and encouraging others to contribute, using first names, attending to the feelings of others, praise, waiting for others, group pride, emphasising group collaboration and a positive group experience and managing anxiety.
- c) Learners also used humour and laughter to promote a positive dimension in peer interaction.
- d) Lastly, learners discourse style e.g. other repetition, collaborative overlap discourse style and use of phatic utterances, showed positive affect amongst group members.

However learners also exhibited behaviours which appeared to discourage positive affect amongst group members. These were:

- a) Behaviours related to task disagreement and its consequences e.g. unmitigated outright disagreement, self-repetition to assert the speaker’s point of view,

disengagement of one or more participants after disagreement, dominating the interaction and impatience.

b) Extended silences, especially at zones of interactional transition.

Firstly it is important to note that these behaviours were equally common in Class 1 and Class 2 and it was certainly not the case that interactions which encouraged positive affect were more common amongst students in Class 1 and behaviours which discouraged positive affect more common amongst students interacting in Class 2. However, although necessary for the provision of learning opportunities, tasks which required students to discuss factual information (e.g. error correction) and reach a consensus of opinion, led to more sequences of disagreement, and here students had more difficulty regulating the affective environment.

It was to be expected that learners would express positive affect through talk related to their interpersonal relationships and this had already been predicted in Chapter 3 where the use of humour, encouraging silent members to speak, listening to each other's opinions, reconciling disagreements, compromising one's position and expressing concern for the feelings of others were given as examples of interactions which might scaffold affective states and encourage a positive social dimension. However in reality many more behaviours to encourage a positive social dimension were recorded, as can be seen above, and many of these e.g. emphasising group collaboration and a positive group experience, praise for others in the group and sharing personal information, are characteristic of cohesive groups.

Interactions which discouraged positive affect amongst group members were seen predominantly in tasks where learners were required to reach a consensus of opinion related to language, principally the first error correction task and the final dictogloss activity. These were the tasks where learners engaged more in language related episodes as they negotiated how to reconstruct or correct sentences. Some groups managed this better than others and used mitigating expressions and hedges to minimise disagreements. In groups which handled disagreements less well, e.g. the groups in recordings 2 and 4, problems appeared to arise principally due to

matters related to status hierarchy and face. The disagreements discussed in recordings 2 and 4 (Chapter 5) could have arisen due to the nature of the task but it is also interesting to note that these were the first recordings to be made. This is significant as status hierarchy is something which group members negotiate early in the course of group formation and is dependent on others noting characteristics they believe conducive to achieving the group's goals e.g. language skills. It is therefore conceivable that a number of students were competing for high-status in the group, thus leading them to strongly defend their positions, as being positioned as less competent linguistically could lead to feelings of shame and loss of face (Ehrman and Dornyei 1998: 116). Brown and White (2010b: 347) in their study on emotions amongst learners of Russian noted that power relations in the classroom were a notable source of emotional responses amongst learners.

Another interesting finding in this part of the study is the relationship between learners' discourse style and the affective climate amongst group members. Maintaining coherence through collaborative overlap, joint production, or other repetition leads to a greater feeling of solidarity among group members and can be used to convey or strengthen solidarity amongst peers (Eder 1988: 225). As the quality of interactions is thought to influence the quality of the affect group members feel, discourse style leads to positive or negative affect. What is notable is that Eder's research refers to interaction amongst native speakers. Here we find the same strategies being used amongst non-native speakers at B1 level.

Finally it would seem that ZITs can, as Markee (2004) suggests, be problematic for students, and how they deal with them reflects levels of group cohesion. ZITs exist at the transition between one speech exchange system and another e.g. at the beginning of an oral task, when learners move from teacher fronted talk to peer to peer interaction, or in the interstice between a peer interaction task ending and teacher fronted talk beginning. Here learners are presented with a choice. At the beginning of a task they need to decide who will speak and when, and at the end they need to decide what to do if they finish before other groups. This study has shown that in the latter of these two situations some groups used this time to further their knowledge of their peers, as would be expected in more cohesive

groups, thereby maximising the amount of input they received and output they produced. Other groups preferred to sit in silence and wait, even though silence is a dispreferred action and something speakers work to minimise (Wong & Waring 2010: 15).

One possible deficiency of the research design was that a multiple case-study approach was not adopted. This would have allowed for a better understanding of how cohesion and affect changed within small groups over the academic year. However as the purpose of the study was to investigate whole class groups, this approach was rejected and instead groups to be recorded were chosen randomly by the class teacher. This had the advantage of being more naturalistic and avoided problems which could arise if students gave up their studies or failed to attend classes regularly.

Affect is a central aspect of mental and social life, and yet research has focused on cognition rather than affect, and studies on the role of affect in language learning have been scarce. As noted by Scovel (2001: 140, cited by Brown & White 2010b: 332) ‘affective variables are the area that SLA researchers understand the least’. However, there has been a growing interest in the role of emotions in learning since the mid-90s (Linnenbrink-Garcia & Pekrun, 2011: 1) and calls have been made for more research on affect in SLA. As noted by Brown and White (2010b: 347):

[...] we cannot ignore the assertion of the emotion revolution, namely that the feeling of what happens is central to consciousness, to what we notice and to how we engage with input, interaction and the features of our environment.

My own experience as a language teacher has taught me how important it is for learners to be able to deal with confusion, frustration, loss of face or a lack of self-confidence while at the same time maintaining the necessary enthusiasm to make progress. The importance of the affective environment in the classroom can be seen by the attention teachers pay to both pedagogical and social priorities in their classrooms, which they consider to be dependent and related. For example, the teacher might move a quieter student away from a dominant partner, encourage quieter members of class to participate or help to fully integrate a new student in

class. Research carried out on emotions has revolved around the role of language anxiety (Horowitz 2010, Young 1991) and has used a quantitative approach, ignoring the situated nature of emotions which can change from moment-to-moment depending on task type, interaction patterns and the attitudes of others, to name but a few. Another negative aspect of studies to date is the fact that a large number of researchers rely solely on reflective appraisal methods such as retrospective self-report questionnaires or interviews to measure learners' affective states instead of observing learners' real time emotional experiences in the classroom (Imai 2010: 280). In contrast, this study used a qualitative approach to peer interaction in the language learning classroom, believed by Brown and White (2010a: 434) to:

[...] provide opportunities to examine the meaning and significance of contingent and individual phenomena in relation to the lived experience of emotions in language learning.

This study was unique in that it demonstrated the many ways in which learners talk a positively affective environment into being in the classroom and the situated and longitudinal nature of the research made it possible to describe how affect can change during a task and how different types of tasks can influence the affective climate between the learners involved. Through this type of enquiry we can better understand the ways affective behaviours influence group cohesion and how learners engage with the classroom experience and the learning process.

Further research should focus on how learner differences, for example, differences in age, can influence the affective environment in peer interaction. More longitudinal work also needs to be carried out showing how individual students negotiate the affective climate of the classroom and how this influences their learning over a period of time. Research could profitably be carried out on task engagement and the affective environment amongst peers and how different learners negotiate zones of interactional transition.

8.4 Qualitative Analysis of Interactions leading to Learning Opportunities

Here the language the learners used in peer interactions was examined for evidence of learning opportunities. Learning opportunities refer to activities that learners engage in which may lead to an increase in language knowledge or skills, although the provision of opportunities is not synonymous with accomplishment. Peer interaction has been shown to provide more opportunities for learning (Philp & Mackey 2010, Ohta 1995, 2001) as learners are more comfortable speaking to peers and more likely to take risks than when interacting with the teacher in open classwork. Cognitive theories of language learning posit that learning opportunities come about in interaction through negotiation for meaning, the necessity to produce comprehensible output, and by receiving corrective feedback. Socially orientated theories of language learning propose that learning opportunities are mediated in interaction with others through the scaffolding provided by a more knowledgeable peer in the learner's ZPD, that is, when learners collaborate in an activity, they assist each other and learn from the contributions of others. As this research takes place in a sociocognitive framework, learning opportunities envisaged by both approaches were considered.

The main results are as follows:

- a) Learners were found to engage in episodes of languaging and private speech.
- b) Learners engaged in self and other repair
- c) There were extensive episodes of collective scaffolding
- d) Learners used metalanguage to help explain morphosyntax.
- d) Learners made use of classroom affordances by asking and answering each other's questions, asking the teacher, using their shared L1, overhearing, co-constructing language and using notes and textbooks.
- e) Learners used the opportunity interaction provided to grapple with language and polish their output.

Again it is important to note that these behaviours were found in both Class 1 and Class 2. One point of interest is that these B1 level students carried out the oral tasks in English with very little recourse to L1, which when used was employed most often to translate a phrase or word, or in metalinguistic explanations relating to problems of morphosyntax. For this reason the tasks where students used most L1 were those that involved discussions of grammatical accuracy – Task 1 (recording 1) and Task 8 (recordings 29, 31 and 32). 15% of turns contained at least one word of Portuguese in recording 1, and 11, 12 and 18 % respectively in recordings 29, 31 and 32. In all other recordings less than 2% of turns contained any Portuguese and most tasks were carried out exclusively in the target language, not only the task work but also off-task conversations and task management talk.

When asked about classroom behaviours using the questionnaire, learners in both groups declared that they would be least likely to correct their classmates' mistakes. However, the data presented in this study shows that although explicit correction is rare, learners do use the opportunity peer interaction provides to implicitly correct their peers and to self-correct. This was confirmed by João when interviewed:

I: OK. Right. What about when people make a mistake? Do you feel comfortable about correcting other people if they think, if you think they've made an error when they speak?

P: Yes, usually yes. Until now, no, no, I don't remember any, reaction, bad reaction, yes.

I: Ok, so you would correct somebody without a problem.

P: Yes.

And Beatriz:

I: And when, when you're speaking and you think that somebody, your partner or somebody in your group has made a error. Would you say anything to that person or would you just ignore it, or, what would you do?

P: If I noticed the mistake I say 'I think I guess it says like this or like that' or I call Mary to say if it's right or wrong.

However others expressed reservations, e.g. Sofia.

I: OK. Sometimes when you're talking do you ever think 'Oh', you know you listen to a classmate and you think 'That's not correct, they've made a mistake'.

P: It's not normal

I: No, you don't correct any of your classmates?

P: [laughs]. Nós também às vezes não sabemos corrigir, a forma correcta.

(Sometimes we don't know how to correct properly.)

And Neema

I: Imagine that you're in for example, you're here, in a group with four people and you're talking about, I don't know, hypothetical situations, and somebody sitting here says something and you think, 'Hmm, no, they've made a mistake in their grammar' for example this person says, 'He should has' and you think, 'That's not right, it's he should have'. Would you say, 'You've made a mistake'?

P: Oh I say, generally I say. Absolutely. But it depends on person, really.

I: OK. What does it de — can you explain?

P: If he or she doesn't like, to correct, correct their phrases, so I can understand the mean of...

I: OK, somebody who doesn't want **you** to correct **them**?

P: Can be.

I: OK

P: But in the class, we try to, we try to, to say if he do some...

I: OK, a mistake

P: A mistake.

I: OK. You try to correct.

When presented with corrective feedback learners had the choice of incorporating the correction in their discourse (uptake), rejecting the correction, or taking no action in response to the correction. All three were seen in the data and show how learners can use this feedback in their learning process, although again this is a feature which is determined by the individual learner and the learning situation. In addition, this opportunity to peer and self-correct could encourage learners to become more autonomous learners and rely more on their own resources to correct themselves and their peers.

Another interesting point raised by this research is how the learners' approach can influence the learning opportunities afforded by a task. Seedhouse's 'task as workplan', the teachers intended pedagogy, and 'task in process' the actual pedagogy, has already been mentioned. For example the teacher's intended pedagogical focus could be questions and answers in an information gap activity. However, if learners simply show each other their information the teacher's pedagogy has been subverted and the actual pedagogical focus has been changed.

The work presented here shows that differences in how learners approach tasks can be more nuanced and relates to the roles learners assume in the interaction. For example all four groups of learners carried out the same error correction task at the beginning of the academic year, but the role the learners took on influenced how learners interacted with each other and how learning opportunities were made available to the learners. For example, in the case of recording 3, where Filomena took on the role of the teacher, she may well have diminished the learning opportunities of others as her languaging denied them interactional ‘space’. However, it is also true that her stance could have benefited both her learning and that of her peers equally, and this is an area which deserves further study. Previous research has shown how learners take turns at being the language expert during oral peer interaction (Reichert & Liebscher 2012), however the case of Filomena shows that this is not always true.

Lastly the interactions here are notable for the amount of help peers give and receive. Through scaffolding, learners can provide explanations and translations, ask and answer questions, test out hypotheses and co-construct utterances. This mutual help that learners provide was also mentioned in interviews. Beatriz mentions:

I: What do you do or what do you think people do in the class to try to help their colleagues.

P: For example when we don’t know a word we try to say something, similar and we said something that, to try to guess the word and we find out the, correct word and then we continue to speak.

I: And what if somebody else has got a problem with vocabulary. Would you try to help that person?

P: Yes.

I: What would you do?

P: Sometimes I give synonyms or the opposite thing, to, give options, for some words or to say the, opposite.

And Miguel:

I: OK. Do you think that students in this class try to help each other if they have difficulties when, to say what they want to?

P: Often we help each others; we often help each others, in, in different tasks, or writing tasks or oral tasks.

I: And in an oral task what would you do if your partner was having difficulty? How would you actually try to help?

P: I, I correct them, I correct my, my colleague or give, give some words to complete the sentence or ... depends the tasks, I help.

In this way both peers benefit as they work towards independent performance. In the sociocognitive framework used in this study, learners are ‘assisted to do what they could not have done without appropriate support and [...] the language of social interaction is internalized to become a tool of thought’ (Ohta 2001: 125).

Results presented here show that learners are capable of creating a wide range of learning opportunities in peer interaction and learners are able to scaffold peers, even in the absence of a communication breakdown. The results confirm the work of Foster and Ohta (2005) who draw attention to how success in communicating and assisting a partner can facilitate second language acquisition and how the assistance learners give each other through scaffolding in the ZPD can draw attention to issues related to phonology, morphosyntax, and lexis. Foster and Ohta described learners using self and other correction, co-construction, collective scaffolding, requests for assistance and encouragements to continue as examples of learning opportunities in peer interaction. The present study shows a much greater range of opportunities created by the learners as they work collaboratively on oral tasks.

These results confirm comments made by the learners (with the exception of Olivia and Neema) when interviewed on their opinion as to whether they believe they could learn through peer interaction. As noted by Sofia,

I: Do you think you can learn English from your colleagues or, or only from the teacher? Do you think your colleagues can teach you anything? Do you think you can improve your English? Do you think they can teach you?

P: [pause] Depende mas normalmente no grupo onde eu estou, onde fico mais vezes, procuramos partilhar o que a professora está a dizer se alguém não percebe, e se tivermos dúvidas, chamamos a professora.

(It depends, but normally in the group where I usually work, we try to share what the teacher is saying if someone doesn't understand, and if we aren't sure, we call over the teacher.)

And Beatriz:

I: OK. Do you think that speaking in English in class, in pair and group work activities; do you think that helps you to learn English?

P: Yes, I think it was the , one of my biggest problems were the talk, and the fact that we have to talk, and talk to several, persons and different exercises stimulate us to talk and when we talk even more, we start to, we don't feel inhibited to talk so, yes, I think it's very good.

I: OK. And when you talk do you think you can learn things from your colleagues?

P: Yes.

I: What sort of things do you think you learn?

P: Vocabulary, some expressions, that used to say and I don't, don't say and, sometimes in, grammar.

I: What sort of things in grammar?

P: For example sometimes I, listen to them and I can say my mistakes, if I heard how to say correctly, I eventually say correctly because I'm aware of how it says.

I: A difference ... a difference between what they say...

P: ... and what I say. Yes.

Interaction has long been seen as an activity which can promote learning opportunities from a cognitive viewpoint. The interaction hypothesis of SLA was formulated in the early 1980s and much empirical research has been carried out in the intervening years which supports the link between interaction and L2 learning. However traditionally these studies have ignored the social setting which is intrinsic to any interaction in the L2 classroom and calls have been made over the years for more research which takes social factors into consideration. In addition, as sociocultural theories of learning have emerged, there has been a greater awareness of how both cognitive and socially informed approaches could help further understanding of SLA. Although a sociocultural view of learning is gaining ground

in language learning research, the majority of research still takes place against the background of a cognitive framework of learning. The research undertaken here was carried out within a sociocognitive framework and was situated in the classroom thereby responding to calls for more studies involving social and contextual factors. This research therefore adds to our knowledge of how peer interaction can provide the potential for learning, and shows how learners pool their resources to further one another's language development.

Future research could profitably focus on the role of private speech and its role, if any, in peer interaction. A longitudinal study on the uptake of peer and self-correction over the academic year could also be a useful line of study to undertake as could research on the efficacy of peer versus self-repair and if learners uptake non-target-like peer repair.

8.5 Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis: Learning Opportunities, Quality and Quantity of Language

The objective of the work carried out in Chapter 7 was to quantitatively analyse transcripts of interactions in Class 1 and Class 2, to estimate the number of learning opportunities created and to ascertain whether there were differences in the quality and quantity of language produced in these classes. To estimate the quantity of language produced, the average number of AS-units per participant per task was calculated for each class. To estimate the quality, that is, the complexity of language produced, the average percentage of AS-units with 9 or more words was calculated per task for each class. To measure the number of learning opportunities provided per task, interactions were scored for opportunities identified through qualitative analysis and expressed as the total per task per class. Section 8.5.1 summarises these results, Section 8.5.2 summarises the additional qualitative analysis carried out and Section 8.5.3 discusses these results, suggests what this work has added to our knowledge of the topic, mentions perceived deficiencies of the research method and suggests further areas for research.

8.5.1 Quantitative Analysis

The main findings of the quantitative analysis of interactions for learning opportunities and quality and quantity of language were as follows:

- a) The total number of episodes of repair, including peer and self-repair was similar for both groups, although values varied according to group and task.
- b) Over 60% of corrections were target-like for both classes, although Class 1 students produced 11% more target-like peer corrections and 13% more target-like self-repair episodes than Class 2 students.
- c) Self repair episodes were more target-like than peer repair in both groups
- d) Although there was more peer repair in both classes, the percentage of self-repair was higher in Class 2 than Class 1.
- e) The nature of the task and the interactants involved influenced the amount of peer and self-repair and the provision of other learning opportunities.
- f) In general, students in Class 2, the less cohesive group, produced more learning opportunities in peer interaction, but there was considerable variation amongst groups in the same class.
- g) The complexity of language produced by learners from both classes was very similar across tasks with the exception of Task 2, and complexity varied according to task type.
- h) The amount of language produced showed that more language was produced by students in Class 2, the less cohesive group, with results broadly corresponding to those found for the amount of learning opportunities produced. However, once more there was considerable variation amongst groups in the same class.

8.5.2 Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative analysis was carried out on interactions which produced disparate quantitative results in an effort to discover which factors were influencing the outcomes. The main results of this study were as follows:

- a) The way learners perform a task influences the amount of language and the number of learning opportunities created.
- b) The decisions learners make at ZITs influence principally the amount of language and consequently the number of learning opportunities created.
- c) The affective relationship between learners influences positively or negative the amount of language and learning opportunities produced.
- d) It is not the cohesive nature of the group as a whole which influences learning opportunities but instead the nature of the relationship between the individual members of the dyads, triads and groups of 4 who carry out the tasks.

8.5.3 Discussion and Conclusions

In this study the repair provided related to lexis, morphosyntax and phonology and results show that the majority of correction was target-like in nature, with 72% of all repair sequences in Class 1 and 63% in Class 2 being target-like. Although most of the students interviewed in this study were positive in relation to the benefits of peer interaction, one student from each group expressed a reticence to take part in peer interaction as they were concerned they would acquire their partners' errors. Although this aspect was not addressed here, it is clear that learners were able to take advantage of oral interaction to accurately correct, or be corrected, when they received non target-like input or produced non-target-like output, and although correction was not always 100% accurate, as it would be in teacher-student interaction, peer interaction allows for more time to be spent on interaction and consequently many more opportunities for correction. It could also be argued that even when inaccurate, peer and self- correction serve to draw learners' attention to language and may prompt them to grapple further with the problem to produce a reformulation. Ohta (2001: 173) in a study on corrective feedback found many

corrective sequences taking place in peer interaction and many more examples of self-correction in peer interaction than in teacher fronted setting. Studies on repair in peer interaction show learners as proactive elements in their own language learning, and error correction indicative of language development. Although some research suggests that peer interaction is not a likely context for corrective feedback (Philp, Adams & Iwashita 2014: 48) it is clear here that learners were able to provide and receive finely tuned assistance within their ZPDs which allowed them to move forward to self-regulation. One criticism of peer interaction as a forum for correction is that learners often do not recognise peer feedback as corrective (Philp, Adams & Iwashita 2014: 54). However as any teacher knows, teacher corrective feedback is equally overlooked as such by learners. Here peer interaction was effective in correcting and modifying language as shown through episodes of uptake provided in this study. Peer interaction thus maximises time for interaction and time for learning.

This study showed, in contrast to previous studies (Foster & Ohta 2005: 423), that learners engaged more in peer than self-correction. However, closer inspection of table 7.2 shows that once more tasks 1 and 8 were distinct from other tasks in this respect. In both these, peer correction was much more common than self-repair as learners collaboratively grappled with language to correct sentences and to reconstruct sentences in the final dictogloss task. In all other tasks (with the exception of Class 1 recording 5, where only 2 target-like peer corrections were recorded for the whole task) self-repair was more common than peer repair, in keeping with previous research. Another point to note was the fact that self-repair was more target-like than peer repair (87% versus 65% in Class 1 and 74% versus 54% in Class 2). One possible reason for this could be that when learners self-correct they are often repairing linguistic slips of the tongue, rather than errors and therefore they are relatively easy to correct accurately.

Research suggests that the quality and quantity of language produced by a group is a function of group cohesion (Clement, Dornyei & Noels 1994:424). The present study however showed that, with the exception of task 2, where Class 1 and 2 scored very differently, the quality, that is the complexity of language, was related

to the task type. Complexity of language was lowest for tasks 1 and 8, i.e. those which provided the most learning opportunities, and higher for discussion type activities, especially task 7, where the language of the task was focused on use of the third conditional. This supports a previous claim by Leaver and Willis (2004: 24) who suggest that open tasks could provide learners with more opportunities to produce longer turns and manage their discourse more effectively. This is precisely what can be seen to be happening in this study and is interesting in that it shows the many ways in which peer interaction can further learning. Not only does it provide occasions where learners can scaffold one another's learning through repair and other learning opportunities as described in the previous chapter, but it also allows learners, through their language production, to promote fluency and automaticity, and it provides learners with the opportunity to test out their hypotheses in relation to language, and helps them notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language (Swain 1995, Schmidt 1994), as mentioned by Beatriz in her interview and reproduced in section 8.4 in this chapter. In this way, output can help learners pay attention to form, meaning and use. Even if learners encounter difficulties producing more complex language, these difficulties could provide learning opportunities at a later date when for example the learner requests the teacher's help or notices possible solutions that arise in later interactions with peers or the teacher. Alternatively, the difficulty could encourage the learner to become more autonomous and resolve the problem by themselves through recourse to learning materials.

The quantity of language produced, as well as the amount of learning opportunities varied according to four main parameters. These were:

- The task type
- The way in which individual groups approached the task
- The relationship between small group members
- How learners coped with ZITs

This study showed that some tasks were more propitious than others in the provision of learning opportunities. There was consistency of results for task type and provision of learning opportunities, with tasks 1 and 8 scoring highest for error

correction and provision of learning opportunities and tasks 2 and 7 scoring lowest for these two parameters. Task 1 was a consciousness raising task where the focus of the task was the language itself and the only one of its kind in the research. It was an example of a written, closed convergent task where learners needed to reach a consensus of opinion and where there was only one correct answer. This type of task is thought to aid learning by involving a greater depth of processing and indeed it did produce more learning opportunities. Ellis (2003: 166) suggests their value lies in the fact that they can develop explicit language which leads to noticing while at the same time providing opportunities for communication. Task 8 on the other hand was a dictogloss, an example of a reconstruction activity once more believed to promote noticing. It is also an example of a written, closed, convergent task as learners need to work together to produce one written text together. Wajnryb (1990: 17) suggests that the value of dictogloss activities is the interactional work learners need to do and that the 'exchange, negotiation, discussion, repair and compromise' are as important for learning as the production of the final text and in this way it is similar to the interactional work learners were required to engage in while undertaking the first task. As shown previously in excerpts 1-3, 53-54 and 68 these tasks were characterised by many short turns and very little extended language and for this reason they also had lowest scores for complexity of language produced. Tasks 2 and 7 consistently scored lowest for error correction and provision of learning opportunities. These were among the shortest tasks learners undertook and the most plausible reason for results here was that these were tasks learners engaged least with, the first because it appeared to be pitched too low for learners and they accomplished it very quickly, the second perhaps due to lack of interest in the topic.

However, as explained in the previous chapter, there was also considerable variation in quantitative results between different groups, even groups from the same class. Qualitative analysis gave an insight into why this happened. It showed that both how learners carry out the task and the affective climate of the group can influence the amount of learning opportunities provided. These results corroborate the findings of Hellerman and Pekarek Doehler (2010: 27) who also showed that peer interaction allowed for different learning opportunities even when learners engaged in the same or similar tasks. Qualitative analysis showed that during task

1 the learners in Class 1 (recordings 1 and 2) and one group in Class 2 (recording 3), each had a group leader (or in the case of recording 2, two leaders) who served as language experts and who managed the task, achieved joint focus on the problem and involved others in the decision making process. However the remaining Class 2 group (recording 4) had no language expert and consequently found it difficult to manage group disagreements effectively. Moreover, they displayed a lack of inclusion in decision making and often arrived at conclusions without consulting all group members. This caused negative affect amongst learners of the group causing one of them to disengage from the task and resort to private speech in an effort to complete the task individually.

In Task 2 it could be seen that the way learners approached the task influenced the amount and complexity of language produced. In the Class 1 group, while only Beatriz wrote as the others made suggestions, involving many short turns, much repetition and overlapping speech, the Class 2 group started by orally co-constructing the story collaboratively which led to more complex sentences being produced. These learners were then faced with a ZIT as they finished the task before their fellow classmates. They took advantage of this situation to extend their conversation on one of the topics of the dictogloss activity - football - and thereby maximised their time for additional output. This conversation also served to further strengthen personal bonds amongst group members by exchanging personal information rather than sitting silently. A further example of how decisions taken at ZITs reflect the affective environment amongst peers in a task and how this can impact the number of learning opportunities provided can be seen in recording 32 (Class 1) and recording 39 (Class 2) performing the final dictogloss activity.

Once more the importance of affect in learning outcomes was shown with the qualitative analysis of recordings 21 and 22, which both involved students from group 1 performing the 'What if' discussion task. This showed that one pair's conversation (Neema and Iris) was characterised by news receipt responses which discouraged elaboration and a lack of phatic communication and continuers, all which are indicative of a lack of a positive affective climate between these interactants. Furthermore at the final ZIT these participants opted to sit silently for

more than 3 minutes rather than engage one another in phatic conversation. These factors resulted in the provision of very few learning opportunities. Conversely the Class 1 pair's conversation (Miguel and Beatriz) showed participants who engaged with each other and the task, asking and answering questions, explaining, giving examples and using metalanguage. In addition when this pair finished the task they started to discuss countries they had visited and why they enjoyed them showing a personal interest in each other and providing the possibility for further learning opportunities.

Finally the case of Rute shows how one student's performance can vary over tasks and the different affective environments found with different peers, and how this can influence the opportunities for learning provided by the task.

The work here has added to the research which has been carried out on peer interaction in the language learning classroom, which in comparison to the amount of research carried out on teacher-student interactions, or learner/native speaker interactions is small indeed. It also furthers our knowledge of the nature of peer interaction and shows how learning can take place over time, and amongst different participants. It also responds to calls for research exploring whether the potential of interaction for learning is mediated by the social relationship between peer interlocutors (Batstone 2012). It has shown that peer interaction complements the work undertaken in teacher fronted interaction, and has contributed to our knowledge of how interaction impacts language learning. It has identified the importance not only of task type, and how learners approach tasks, but also how their affective relationships colour their opportunities for learning. In this way it has drawn attention to the social dimension of learning which for many years has been in the shadow of cognitive approaches to research. It has also shown how the use of CA can be beneficial in uncovering the interactional architecture of peer interaction and how this furthers understanding of the learner's perspective of the learning process, rather than the researcher's or the teacher's.

One deficiency of this part of the research is one which has been mentioned previously and is the fact that a multiple case study approach was not adopted here, although it has been possible to adopt a case study approach in relation to one

learner, Rute, in this chapter. Another limitation of the research in general is its situated nature and therefore its lack of generalizability.

Further research could profitably focus on the additional use of stimulated recall techniques with learners to give a more comprehensive view of classroom discourse and learners' thoughts and feelings. Another possible area of research could be an emic perspective of the learning opportunities afforded by different task types. As the constitution of the groups which engage in peer interaction is of importance in the pedagogical success of oral tasks, more work needs to be carried out on the most effective ways to group students for these tasks. Storch (2002a), working with dyads found that pairs who worked collaboratively were more effective learners than those who were part of dominant/dominant pairs, but more work is needed in this area. Finally the nature of peer talk at zones of interactional transition and how they can encourage or discourage learning could be further investigated.

8.6 Final Conclusion

Hadfield (1992: 10) wrote that:

a positive group atmosphere can have a beneficial effect on the morale, motivation and self-image of its members, and thus significantly affect their learning, by developing in them a positive attitude to the language being learned, to the learning process, and to themselves as learners.

The purpose of this study was to investigate these groups with a positive atmosphere, termed cohesive groups, to determine how cohesion was talked into being, what learning opportunities were created during peer interaction and if learners in these classes were creating more learning opportunities than students in less cohesive groups. Due to the social nature of language learning, teachers realise how important groups which gel are for the creation of a successful class, where learners listen to each other, trust each other, have fun together and work collaboratively. Teachers hope their students will have a positive experience in the language classroom, but teachers also want a positive experience, with positive

feedback from students. Could this in fact be the main reason that teachers cherish cohesive groups? In reality, we know very little of the learners' point of view of the cohesive classroom. Is whole group cohesion as important for them as it is for the teacher? The main conclusion of this study is that the provision of learning opportunities in peer oral interaction was not dependent on the cohesive nature or otherwise of the whole group but instead was dependent on a number of factors, one of which was the degree to which the learners in pairs, triads and groups of 4 exhibited cohesive behaviour. The less cohesive group in this study, Class 2, appeared to be less cohesive due to the presence of 2 or 3 students who were unwilling to work with others. However, although this obviously affected whole group cohesion, learners were still able to work in cohesive small groups during peer interaction and create more learning opportunities and more language than learners in the self-declared more cohesive group, Class 1. It was the nature of the affective environment with the others with whom they interacted which was crucial to the provision of learning opportunities, not the cohesive nature of the whole group itself. Group cohesion is related to the strength of the bonds that link group members to each other and to the rest of the group. Group cohesion can therefore work on the level of the whole group or can work on the level of small groups, where the individual members feel linked to each other. As language learners in the TBL classroom generally work in pairs or small groups, it would seem that overall group cohesion is less important for the effectiveness of peer interaction for learning than the cohesion the small group members feel as they take part in oral tasks.

Apart from the importance of the affective climate between participants, other important factors were the task type, the way learners organised tasks, and how they handled zones of interactional transition. This reveals some of the complexity of language learning in the classroom and serves to draw attention to the danger of over simplistic dichotomies which can only trivialise the process. This study has taken a learner centred approach to the classroom and has shown how the learner individualises the learning space, and the way in which each individual has an important role to play. It has served to illustrate the situated nature of language learning where factors such as how individuals interact with other learners and the

task and how talk in interaction is organised change moment-by-moment, as learners react to local contingencies, thereby supporting the claim that language learning is a complex dynamic system and a ‘by product of communicative processes’ rather than the acquisition of ‘a collection of rules and target forms’ (Ellis 2007: 23). This complexity has been described within a sociocognitive framework which shows how learning occurs as the student interacts in the social context of the classroom. Conversation Analysis illustrated how learners used language to encourage and discourage a positive social dimension, to build small group cohesion, and to promote learning opportunities. A useful additional tool in further research would be the use of video which could give a greater insight into non-verbal communication e.g. gesture, eye gaze and facial expression, and how learners use these to convey meaning and build relationships. Finally, in line with Dornyei’s suggestions (2009: 241-243) on how to research dynamic complex systems, I suggest more qualitative, longitudinal research using mixed methodology is needed. I will now turn my attention to the role of the teacher in the final section by considering the pedagogical implications of the findings of this study.

8.7 Pedagogical Implications

The language learning classroom is different to other classrooms students may experience in that it is social in nature. Within a sociocognitive framework, learning takes place in a social context through interaction with others, and it is this use of the language that promotes learning. These interactions can foster a sense of belonging, or can alienate. They can encourage or discourage positive attributions and as this body of work has shown they can influence how effective language learning is, especially in the task based learning classroom where oral interaction with a peer forms the basis of classroom activity. In the language learning classroom, the social context, for so long overlooked, is a crucial factor for learning, and teachers who disregard its importance do so at their peril. As teachers, it is our responsibility to provide the best learning environment we can and although some may see their role simply as a conveyer of content, this will not lead to successful learning or teaching.

With this in mind, it is my belief that teacher training courses for language teachers should include some input on educational psychology. How can we best help groups work cohesively when we as teachers have little or no formal training on how the human psyche works? Given the importance of the composition of small groups for the successful provision of learning opportunities in peer oral interaction, consideration should be given to how teachers constitute these groups, as it is true to say that groupings in the classroom are often unplanned and simply depend on where the students happen to be seated. Training could help teachers identify which learners would work best together and thereby facilitate the formation of groups to support learning. Training should also be given on how teachers could monitor and adjust group composition if the desired outcome is not being achieved.

One factor to take into consideration is whether groups should be changed regularly or remain stable. Research has found advantages to maintaining stable groups (Blatchford *et al.* 2003: 165) as this gives the individuals longer to build up trust and respect for each other. However, this would naturally depend on the characteristics of the learners and the success of their group work. It is also suggested that learners be consulted in the composition of peer groups, although they should also be made aware of the possible advantages of working with others.

Another important point for consideration when forming groups is the proficiency of the individual members of a group, as this will influence interaction and learning opportunities. Gass and Varonis (1985) found that groups constituted by both high and low proficiency learners led to more miscommunication and more negotiation of meaning to resolve the resulting problems, and similar results can be seen in this study on occasions when one learner takes the role of language expert and scaffolds the learning of their less-able peers, for example, the role Silvia takes in excerpts 66 and 67. However, Yule and Macdonald (1990) found that in mixed proficiency pairs there was very little negotiation for meaning when the high proficiency learner was cast in the dominant role, as the low- proficiency learner's participation was very much reduced in this situation. In this study, we see a similar situation in excerpts 16-19 when Filomena takes on the role of the teacher and

dominates the interaction, largely side-lining the contributions of the others in the group. Similarly, Kowal and Swain (1994) showed that when the proficiency gap widens between participants, the less able student has fewer opportunities to participate as the weaker student is often excluded from the interaction. However Ohta (2000), on the contrary, found that more proficient learners aided their less able partners to cope with the task. Similarly in this study in excerpt 79 we can see how Bernardo, the stronger student helps Rute to maximise her output and more successfully perform the task.

These conflicting results serve to illustrate the complex nature of group formation in peer interaction and teachers should be trained on how to avoid the temptation to base such decisions on simple dichotomies such as more versus less proficient students. Clearly, students' personalities contribute to the relationships they form in class and determine how assertive, motivated and willing to communicate they are with others. Students often sit with friends in the classroom and these pairings can often be beneficial although some research has shown that learners are less likely to correct friends in task-based peer work for fear that their partner would see this as social positioning (Philp *et al* 2010).

It is therefore important that learners receive some training on the interpersonal skills necessary to make tasks work as intended. Many strategies which promote a positive social dimension have been identified in this study and teaching learners to use effective interpersonal communication methods such as listening to each other, engaging with each other, encouraging reticent students or involving all members in group decisions could improve the learning experience. Teachers should also be aware of pairings which are unproductive. One way to avoid lack of participation on the part of some is to give all learners in a group a specific role e.g. summariser, reporter, scribe, but the teacher should be prepared to reform groups which persistently fail to work well together.

In certain tasks such as error correction tasks, disagreement is an important part of the interaction. However, due to its face-threatening nature and the fact that disagreements are seen as dispreferred choices, they have proven to be problematic for some groups in this study. One solution could be to teach learners how to

politely disagree, using agreement prefaces such as ‘Yes, but’, or teaching mitigation strategies such as hedges or the use of modal verbs to help reduce negative affect in certain task types.

Another area which could be explored is that of ZITs. This study has shown that zones of interactional transition can be problematic in certain groups where a lack of a willingness to communicate leads to silence, both at the beginning and end of oral tasks. Teachers should become more aware of the potential for such behaviours at these transition points and be prepared to manage classes so that all learners start the task at the same time (using a countdown for example) and that extra work, for example further questions for discussion, are available for early finishers.

The work here has shown that some learners are reticent to enter into peer interaction as they believe it has no value for learning and for this reason is it important to alert learners to the potential for learning of peer interaction. Research in the area of mathematics (Webb 1989 cited by Klinger and Vaughn 2000: 72) found a relationship between achievement and the amount of explanation provided, with more effective learning taking place when explanations were provided to a peer who had made an error or asked for help. Moreover, the provider of the explanation also gained from verbalising the correction. Similarly, this study has shown that groups which create the most learning opportunities are those where the individual members scaffold each other’s learning by asking and answering questions, explaining, and co-constructing the discourse. A similar approach to that taken by Naughton (2006) could be implemented in class to make learners aware of learning opportunities, then give them training in how to use them. Learners could be asked to focus on a particularly strategy during interaction, for example, that of asking questions, prompting, using metalanguage when appropriate, explaining etc. These learning behaviours could also be conceptualised as goals to achieve during peer interaction and could serve as an increased motivational factor.

It is hoped that further work on the importance of the social nature of peer to peer oral interaction in the language classroom can throw more light on this fascinating but under researched area of language learning.

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APPENDIX 1.1 TERM 1, TASK 1, ERROR CORRECTION.

Here are 10 sentences on the work we've been doing recently. They all have a mistake. Work with your group and discuss what's wrong and how to correct the sentences, then rewrite them correctly.

1. I meet Mark for the first time 9 years ago.
2. We immediately felt in love
3. We didn't knew that the train was late
4. His life use to be simpler
5. Now I use to get up every day at 8 am
6. You must remember me to buy some milk
7. He learned me to use a computer
8. I'm interested to learning more English vocabulary
9. Eat fish keeps you healthy.
10. My dad gave me a lift because it was rain hard.

APPENDIX 1.2 TERM 1, TASK 2, DICTOGLOSS 1

I saw a really **interesting** programme on TV last night. It was a **documentary** about inventions. I didn't know that television **was invented** by a Scot in 1925, and I was **astonished** to learn that football **was first played by the Aztecs**.

TEACHER'S NOTES

Read the text twice at normal speed both times. The first time the students just listen, the second time they make notes about the key information – then given them about 10 minutes to work together and reconstruct the text. They need to write a text that is grammatically correct and contains all the information – they don't need to rewrite exactly what was said.

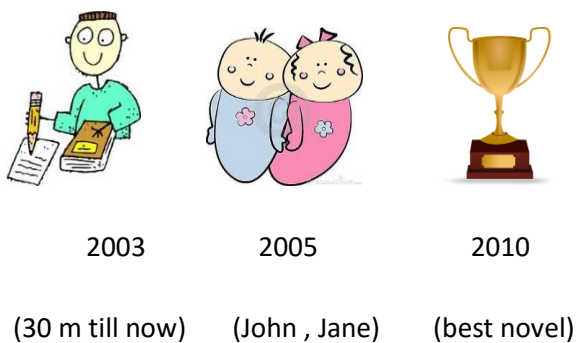
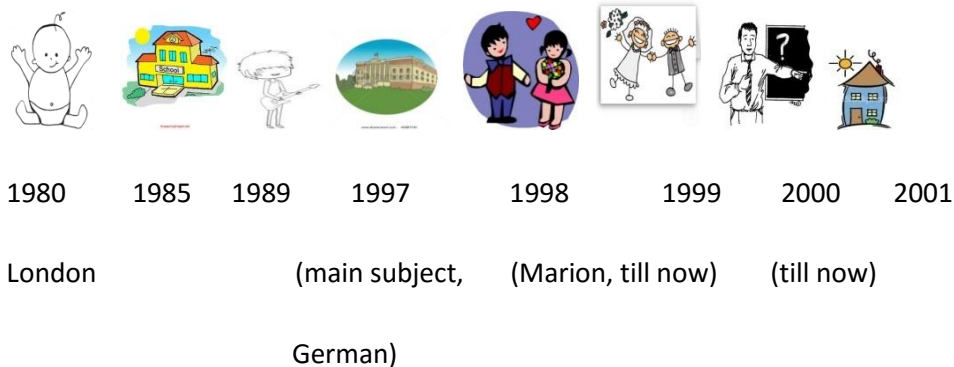
Go round and then get someone to read theirs - check if it more or less approximates your version. You could then show them the above version on the IWB if you want. You could draw attention to the phrases in bold above – these are the things being recycled and maybe elicit some other names of TV programmes, -ing adjectives, extreme adjectives etc.

APPENDIX 1.3 TERM 2, TASK 1, BILL'S TIMELINE



This is Bill. Here is some information about him. Look at his timeline and write about his life remembering to use appropriate verb tenses. Try not to refer to the information in your notes or student's book.

1. You are going to work in pairs or groups of 3. You need to discuss the timeline and decide on at least one sentence to write for each picture.
2. Write one version of the biography for the group. Try to join your sentences using linkers such as *then, later, when he was* ____, *after that, and*. You might need to use words like *for/since*.



There are some verbs in the box for you to use, if you like.

start	live	buy	change	sell	become	win	fall	leave	get	have
-------	------	-----	--------	------	--------	-----	------	-------	-----	------

APPENDIX 1.4 TERM 2, TASK 2, SOCIALISING DISCUSSION TASK

1

- Do you enjoy meeting new people?
- Where are good places in Lisbon to meet new people? What would be a favourite topic of conversation with a new person you've just met?
- Who was the last new person you met and where did you meet them?
- What's the first thing you notice when you meet someone?

2

- How often do you go to parties?
- Have you ever had a party in your house? What was the occasion? How many people came?
- Did you prepare the food/drinks yourself?
- What's the best party you've ever been to?

3

- How often do you visit museums?
- What do you think is the most interesting museum in Lisbon?
- What about other cities you've visited?
- Do you think all museums should be free?

4

- What for you are the best forms of socialising without spending any money?

5

- What social networking sites do you use?
- What do you think are the good and bad points of social networking sites like Facebook and twitter?
- Do you think people spend less time socialising face to face because of social networking sites?



APPENDIX 1.5 TERM 2, TASK 3, NATIONAL STEREOTYPES
DISCUSSION TASK

NATIONAL STEREOTYPES DISCUSSION TASK

1 The image of a businessman in a bowler hat with a newspaper and umbrella used to be a stereotype of an Englishman. Do you think this is still true? If not, what would you consider a typical Englishman to be today?

- What does he wear?
- What does he eat for dinner?
- What does he do in his free time?
- What's his name?
- Think of 3 adjectives to describe him.



2 Now think about the typical Portuguese man/woman.

- How could you describe him/her?
- What does the typical Portuguese man or woman wear, eat, do in their free time?
- Think of some adjectives to describe them.

Are national stereotypes a good thing or can they be dangerous?

APPENDIX 1.6 TERM 3, TASK 1, 'WHAT IF?' CORRECTION AND DISCUSSION TASK

Look at these sentences – some are correct and some have an error – can you correct the ones with an error?

- If you won a lot of money, you would move house?
- What you do if you didn't like the food your friend cooked for you?
- What country would you visit if you could travel anywhere in the world?
- If you needed to borrow some money, who would you ask?
- If your friend have a horrible haircut, would you tell him/her?

Now ask your partner the questions

APPENDIX 1.7 TERM 3, TASK 2, TRICKY SITUATIONS DISCUSSION TASK

Below are 3 situations. Read through, and with your partner decide what the people SHOULD HAVE DONE. Then compare your ideas with another pair.

1 Jane went out one evening and saw Henry, her best friend's boyfriend, with another girl. They appeared to be very close. She said nothing to her friend, who was devastated when she discovered her boyfriend had a secret love. What should she have done? Why?

- She should have told her friend
- She should have talked to Henry
- She should have talked to the other girl
- Your ideas?

2 Caroline and Jim lived below some noisy neighbours who had parties every Tuesday evening until 3 o'clock in the morning. They decided to complain one evening, but Jim was very angry, there was a fight and Jim's arm was broken. What should they have done to avoid this situation? Why?

- They should have phoned the police when the noise started
- They should have talked to the other neighbours in the building
- They could have gone to stay with friends every Tuesday
- Your ideas?

3 Anne contracted a builder to move her washing machine to a different part of the kitchen, but the builder damaged the machine and made a hole in the gas pipe during the work. The builder wanted Anne to pay for the repair, 105€, but she refused and the builder abandoned the job half finished. What should she have done? Why?

- She should have agreed to pay the full price
- She should have agreed to pay half
- She should have paid nothing and got a different builder
- Your ideas?

When you have decided with your partner what the people should have done, and why, tell another pair e.g. 'We think Jane should have..... because

APPENDIX 1.8 TERM 3, TASK 3, DICTOGLOSS 2

Preteach to go out, to break up, to get back together

In August 2000 Jennifer was going out with James, a computer science student. They got on very well but Jennifer didn't want a serious relationship and they broke up. Then she realized she had made a mistake and she was so upset that she couldn't concentrate on what she was doing and had a car accident. She wasn't badly injured but James came to visit her in hospital and they got back together. They got married 2 years later and now have a newly born baby girl. If she hadn't had an accident, they might never have seen one another again.

Read twice, slightly slower than normal speed – students listen first time. Second time students make notes of key points and then work together to reconstruct the text, making sure it contains the information and is grammatically correct (but doesn't need to be word for word the same as the text you dictated). Give them 10/15 minutes to rewrite the text in pairs/groups.

Students compare final texts. Get group correction of mistakes then compare to your version (on IWB)

APPENDIX 2.1 PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE

Part 1 Group cohesiveness Grupo coesão

The statements below attempt to describe some of your feelings about your current class. Please decide if you agree or disagree with the statements and tick (✓) ONE of the boxes according to how you feel.

O quadro seguinte apresenta algumas frases para descrever os seus emoções acerca da sua turma. Por favor decida se concorda ou discorda com as frases e assinale com um certo (✓) um dos quadrados de acordo com a sua percepção.

Statements	Your opinion Sua opinião				
	False Falso	Somewhat true Alguma verdade	Neutral	True Verdadeiro	Very True Muito verdadeiro
1. Compared to my previous language learning classes, I feel this class is better. Em comparação com as minhas anteriores aulas de aprendizagem da língua, sinto esta turma melhor.					
2. If I were in another class, I would want that class to have students very similar to the classmates I have now. Se eu estivesse noutra turma eu iria querer que ela tivesse alunos muito similares aos colegas que tenho agora.					
3. This class is composed of people who get on well. Esta turma é composta por pessoas que se dão bem.					
4. There are some people in this class who do not like each other. Há algumas pessoas nesta turma que não se dão bem umas com as outras.					
5. I am satisfied with my class. Estou satisfeita com a minha turma.					
6. I feel very comfortable working in this class. Sinto-me muito à vontade trabalhando nesta turma.					
7. If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class again. Se eu tivesse que escolher, queria aprender Inglês na mesma turma outra vez.					
8. My classmates don't seem to care about each other very much. Os meus colegas parece não se importarem muito uns com os outros.					
9. I know most of my classmates. Eu conheço a maior parte dos meus colegas.					
10. I get along well with my classmates. Dou-me bem com os meus colegas.					

Part 2 Classroom Behaviours Comportamentos na turma

Below are some statements about what you do in class. Please tick(✓) the column which best reflects what you think.

O quadro seguinte apresenta algumas frases sobre o que se faz na aula. Por favor assinale com um certo (✓) um dos quadrados de acordo com a sua percepção.

There are two **different** columns.

Há duas colunas diferentes

The one on the left asks you to what extent the group behaves this way. A da esquerda pergunta até que ponto o grupo se comporta desta maneira.				The one on the right asks you to what extent you yourself actually behave this way. A da direita pergunta até que ponto se comporta desta maneira.			
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Never Nunca	Sometimes Às vezes	Usually Normalmente	Always Sempre	Never Nunca	Sometimes Às vezes	Usually Normalmente	Always Sempre

To what extent does the group behave this way. Até que ponto o grupo se comporta desta maneira.				Statement	To what extent do you behave this way. Até que ponto você se comporta desta maneira.			
1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
				1. Come to class on time Chegar a tempo às aulas				
				2. Help each other with the work. Ajudar uns aos outros com os trabalhos.				
				3. Do homework on time. Fazer os trabalhos de casa a horas.				
				4. Make notes in class (e.g. on new words and expressions) Tomar apontamentos na aula (ex. Sobre novas palavras e expressões).				
				5. Be well prepared before the class (e.g. re-read notes from last lesson). Estar bem preparada antes das aulas (ex. reler apontamentos da última lição).				
				6. Fully participate in the class (e.g. answering the teacher's questions). Participar plenamente na aula (ex. responder as perguntas do professor).				
				7. Speak only English in the class all the time. Falar sempre em Inglês na aula.				
				8. Ask the teacher when there are questions or problems. Perguntar ao professor quando há dúvidas ou problemas.				
				9. Listen to what other people in class say. Ouvir o que as outras pessoas dizem na aula.				
				10 Listen to what the teacher says. Ouvir o que o professor diz.				
				11. Come to class regularly (e.g. 70% of classes). Vir as aulas com regularidade (ex. 70% das aulas).				
				12. Happily work with anyone else in the class. Trabalha bem com qualquer pessoa na aula.				

APPENDIX 2.2 INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Interactions in the Language Classroom

The objective of this research is to investigate the interactions amongst students and between students and teachers in language classes in Portugal. The information collected in CONFIDENTIAL AND ANONYMOUS and all questionnaires and information will be destroyed at the end of the research project.

This research is integrated in a Ph.D study programme in Foreign Language Teaching at the Universidade Nova de Lisboa and official approval for this research was given by Alison Sriparam, British Council, Portugal and Dr Carlos Ceia, Universidade Nova de Lisboa.

I would be grateful if you could respond as honestly as possible and in accord with your own personal opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. This questionnaire will take about 10 minutes to complete. Please do not hesitate to ask for help if you have any doubts.

Thank you for your cooperation,

Carolyn E. Leslie, June, 2013

Interacções na Aula de Inglês

O objectivo desta pesquisa é investigar as interacções na aula de Inglês entre os alunos e alunos e professor. A informação recolhida é CONFIDENCIAL E ANÓNIMA, ou seja, os inquiridos não são identificados e no final do processo de investigação, todos os questionários e informações serão destruídos.

Esta pesquisa está integrada num programa de estudo para o Grau de Doutoramento em Didáctica da Língua Estrangeira pela Universidade Nova de Lisboa, e a aprovação oficial para esta pesquisa foi dada por Alison Sriparam, do British Council, Lisboa e Dr. Carlos Ceia, Universidade Nova de Lisboa.

Agradeço que responda da forma mais honesta possível, e de acordo com a sua opinião pessoal. Não existem respostas certas ou erradas. O tempo de preenchimento deste questionário é de 10 minutos, e não hesite em pedir esclarecimentos, caso tenha dúvidas.

Obrigada pela sua colaboração,

Carolyn E. Leslie, Junho, 2013.

APPENDIX 2.3 PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE FEEDBACK FORM WITH RESPONSES

I would be extremely grateful if you could take a few minutes to comment on the questionnaire you have just completed. Thank you for your cooperation.

1. Where the instructions clear? If any were ambiguous, could you say which they were and why?

Does the question about previous language learning classes refer to previous classes at the British Council only? Could it refer to school classes?

2. Did you object to any of the questions? Why?

No

3 Do you feel any important topic was overlooked?

No

4 Any other comments?

No

APPENDIX 2.4 STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Part 1 Group cohesiveness Grupo coesão

The statements below attempt to describe some of your feelings about your current class. Please decide if you agree or disagree with the statements and tick (✓) ONE of the boxes according to how you feel.

O quadro seguinte apresenta algumas frases para descrever os seus emoções acerca da sua turma. Por favor decida se concorda ou discorda com as frases e assinale com um certo (✓) um dos quadrados de acordo com a sua percepção.

Statements	Your opinion/Sua opinião				
	False Falso	Somewhat true Alguma verdade	Neutral	True Verdadeiro	Very True Muito verdadeiro
1. If I were in another class, I would want that class to have students very similar to the classmates I have now. Se eu estivesse noutra turma eu iria querer que ela tivesse alunos muito similares aos colegas que tenho agora.					
2. This class is composed of people who get on well. Esta turma é composta por pessoas que se dão bem.					
3 I know the names of all my classmates Conheço os nomes de todos os colegas da aula					
4. I am satisfied with my class. Estou satisfeita com a minha turma.					
5. I feel very comfortable working in this class. Sinto-me muito à vontade trabalhando nesta turma					
6. If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class again. Se eu tivesse que escolher, queria aprender Inglês na mesma turma outra vez.					
7. My classmates don't seem to care about each other very much. Os meus colegas parece não se importarem muito uns com os outros					
8. I know most of my classmates. Eu conheço a maior parte dos meus colegas.					
9 I get along well with my classmates. Dou -me bem com os meus colegas					
10 There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with Há alguns colegas com quem eu prefiro não trabalhar.					
11 I feel anxious speaking English in this class. Sinto-me ansioso quando falo Inglês nesta aula.					

Part 2 Classroom Behaviours Comportamentos na turma

Below are some statements about what you do in class. Please tick(✓) the column which best reflects what you think.

O quadro seguinte apresenta algumas frases sobre o que se faz na aula. Por favor assinale com um certo (✓) um dos quadrados de acordo com a sua percepção.

There are two **different** columns.

Há duas colunas diferentes

The one on the left asks you to what extent the group behaves this way. A da esquerda pergunta até que ponto o grupo se comporta desta maneira.				The one on the right asks you to what extent you yourself actually behave this way. A da direita pergunta até que ponto se comporta desta maneira.			
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Never Nunca	Sometimes Às vezes	Usually Normalmente	Always Sempre	Never Nunca	Sometimes Às vezes	Usually Normalmente	Always Sempre

To what extent does the group behave this way. Até que ponto o grupo se comporta desta maneira.				Statement	To what extent do you behave this way. Até que ponto você se comporta desta maneira.			
1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
				1. Ask my colleagues for their opinion when we are discussing a topic. Perguntar aos colegas a opinião deles quando estamos a discutir um tópico.				
				2. Help each other with the work. Ajudar uns aos outros com os trabalhos.				
				3. Participate fully when working with colleagues. Participar plenamente trabalhando com colegas.				
				4. Correct classmates when they make a mistake Corrigir os colegas quando erram				
				5. Ask for clarification when we don't understand each other. Perguntar para esclarecerem quando não entendemos				
				6. Always try to answer the teacher's questions Tentar sempre responder às perguntas do professor.				
				7. Speak only English in the class all the time. Falar sempre em Inglês na aula.				
				8. Ask the teacher when there are questions or problems. Perguntar ao professor quando há dúvidas ou problemas.				
				9. Listen to what other people in class say. Ouvir o que as outras pessoas dizem na aula.				
				10 Listen to what the teacher says. Ouvir o que o professor diz.				
				11. Come to class regularly (e.g. 70% of classes). Vir as aulas com regularidade (ex. 70% das aulas).				
				12. Happily work with anyone else in the class. Trabalha bem com qualquer pessoa na aula.				

APPENDIX 2.5 TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Part 1 Group cohesiveness

The statements below attempt to describe some of your feelings about this class. Please decide if you agree or disagree with the statements and tick (✓) ONE of the boxes according to how you feel.

Statements	Your opinion				
	Not true	Somewhat true	Neutral	True	Very True
1. The group is tolerant of all its members.					
2. Some group members will not cooperate to perform tasks					
3. This class is composed of people who get on well.					
4. There are some people in this class who do not like each other.					
5. There is a supportive atmosphere in class.					
6. I feel very comfortable working with this class.					
7. If I had a choice, I would like to teach English to this class again.					
8. The individual students don't seem to care much about each other.					
9. The students all know each other					
10. The students seem to like each other.					

Part 2 Classroom Behaviours

Below are some statements about what the class, as a group, does. Please tick(✓) the column which best reflects what you think.

	Never	Sometimes	Usually	Always
1. Ask each other for their opinion when they are discussing topics				
2. Help each other with the work				
3. Participate fully when they work with colleagues				
4. Correct their classmates when they make a mistake				
5 Ask for clarification when they don't understand a classmate				
6. Fully participate in the class (e.g. answering the teacher's questions)				
7. Speak only English in the class all the time				
8. Ask you when there are questions or problems				
9. Listen to what other people in class say				
10 Listen to what you say				
11. Come to class regularly (e.g. 70% of classes)				
12. Happily work with anyone else in the class				

APPENDIX 2.6 SCORING FOR STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Part 1, Group Cohesiveness

Statements	Your opinion Sua opinião				
	False Falso	Somewhat true Alguma verdade	Neutral	True Verdadeiro	Very True Muito verdadeiro
1. If I were in another class, I would want that class to have students very similar to the classmates I have now. Se eu estivesse noutra turma eu iria querer que ela tivesse alunos muito similares aos colegas que tenho agora.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This class is composed of people who get on well. Esta turma é composta por pessoas que se dão bem.	1	2	3	4	5
3I know the names of all my classmates Conheço os nomes de todos os colegas da aula	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am satisfied with my class. Estou satisfeita com a minha turma.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel very comfortable working in this class. Sinto-me muito à vontade trabalhando nesta turma	1	2	3	4	5
6. If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class again. Se eu tivesse que escolher, queria aprender Inglês na mesma turma outra vez.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My classmates don't seem to care about each other very much. Os meus colegas parece não se importarem muito uns com os outros	5	4	3	2	1
8. I know most of my classmates. Eu conheço a maior parte dos meus colegas.	1	2	3	4	5
9 I get along well with my classmates. Dou -me bem com os meus colegas	1	2	3	4	5
10 There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with Há alguns colegas com quem eu prefiro não trabalhar.	5	4	3	2	1
11 I feel anxious speaking English in this class. Sinto-me ansioso quando falo Inglês nesta aula.	5	4	3	2	1

Part 2 Classroom behaviours

In Part 2 for all questions, the categories Never, Sometimes, Usually and Always correlated with scores of 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively.

APPENDIX 2.7 SCORING FOR TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Part 1, Group Cohesiveness

Statements	Your opinion				
	Not true	Somewhat true	Neutral	True	Very True
1. The group is tolerant of all its members.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Some group members will not cooperate to perform tasks	5	4	3	2	1
3. This class is composed of people who get on well.	1	2	3	4	5
4. There are some people in this class who do not like each other.	5	4	3	2	1
5. There is a supportive atmosphere in class.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel very comfortable working with this class.	1	2	3	4	5
7. If I had a choice, I would like to teach English this class again.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The individual students don't seem to care much about each other.	5	4	3	2	1
9. The students all know each other	1	2	3	4	5
10. The students seem to like each other.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2 Classroom behaviours

In Part 2 for all questions, the categories Never, Sometimes, Usually and Always correlated with scores of 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively.

APPENDIX 2.8 STUDENT SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Why are you learning English?
2. Do you think the students in this class work well together?
3. Do you know the other students in the class? Do you know everyone's name?
4. Do you work with everyone in class or mostly just the people at your table?
5. Would you say you get on with the other students in the class?
6. Do you generally feel positive neutral or negative about lessons?
7. Do you ever feel anxious or nervous or embarrassed?
8. Would you consider the atmosphere in this group to be generally positive, neutral or negative?
9. Do you think there are people in the group who don't want to get involved in oral tasks?
10. Would you say you get 100% involved in oral tasks, 50%, 70%?
11. Would you describe yourself as an active or passive learner?
12. Do you think the students in this class try to help each other if they have difficulties in expressing themselves orally? And you? How do you do this? Do you ever provide a word your partner can't remember or ask for their ideas/opinions if they don't say much in a discussion?
13. Do you feel comfortable about correcting your classmates if you think they have made a mistake?
14. What do you do if a colleague says something you don't understand?
15. And your teacher? Do you ask questions?
16. Do you think speaking to your colleagues in pairs or groups helps you learn English?
17. Do you think you can learn from your colleagues or only from the teacher?

APPENDIX 2.9 TEACHER SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Do you think the students in this class worked well together?
2. Do you think the atmosphere in this group was generally positive, neutral or negative?
3. Do you think they every felt anxious, nervous or embarrassed?
4. Do you think everyone in the group was 100% involved in the oral activities?
5. Do you think the students in the group were willing to help each other express themselves in oral tasks ?
6. Do you think students corrected each other during oral activities?
7. Do you think students asked you for clarification if they didn't understand?
8. Do you think students were happy to learn from each other?
9. Do you think a positive atmosphere is conducive to learning? Why?

APPENDIX 2.10 GUIDE TO RECORDINGS

Term	Task	Class	Recording	Participants
1	1 Error correction	1	1	Anna, Silvia, Rita
		2	2 3 4	Simão, Miguel, Madalena, Beatriz Bernardo, Filomena, Ricardo, Irene Carolina, Liliana, David, Rute
	2 Dictogloss 1	1	5	Beatriz, Manuela, Miguel
		2	6 7 8	- Filomena, Bernardo, Lourenço -
2	1 Bill's Timeline	1	9	Anna, Vanessa Anabela
		2	10 11 12	Miguel, Francisca, Fatima Carlos, Deolinda, Rute Bernardo, Mariana
	2 Socialising Discussion	1	13	Fatima, Neema, Neusa
		2	14 15 16	Miguel, Beatriz, André Deolinda, João Bernardo, Carlos, Otilia
	3 National Stereotypes Discussion Task	1	17	Francisca, Silvia, Neema
		2	18 19 20	Miguel, Diana, Beatriz Bernardo, Eva, Carlos Deolinda, Mariana, Sofia
3	1 'What if?' correction and discussion task	1	21	Neema, Iris
		2	22 23 24	Beatriz, Miguel João, Carlos Rute, Bernardo
	2 'Tricky situations' discussion task	1	25	Neema, Anabela, Iris, Silvia
		2	26 27 28	- Deolinda, Eva -
	3 Dictogloss 2	1	29	Diana, Carolina, Anna
		2	30 31 32	Beatriz, Miguel, Anabela, Neema Mariana, Bernardo, Carlos Olívia, Marta, Rute

APPENDIX 3.1 Attitudes towards Group Cohesiveness by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation (s.d) and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N) ,Term 1 .

	Mary class 1 (N= 10)		Mary class 2 (N=11)		Ronnie (N=8)		Colin (N=12)		Kate (N=13)		Anne (N=13)	
	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.
Attitudes												
1 If I were in another class, I would want that class to have students very similar to the classmates I have now	3.7	0.8	3.4	1.5	4.5	0.5	3.9	0.5	3.8	0.8	3.1	1.1
2 This class is composed of people who get on well	4.2	0.4	3.7	1.1	4.6	0.5	3.9	0.5	4.1	0.5	4.1	0.8
3 I know the names of all my classmates	3.1	1.3	3.1	1.4	3.7	1.5	3.6	1.2	2.8	1.2	2.0	1.0
4 I am satisfied with my class	4.1	0.9	4.0	0.9	4.4	0.5	3.8	1.0	4.1	1.0	2.9	1.2
5 I feel very comfortable working in this class	4.1	1.2	3.5	1.37	4.4	0.5	4.2	0.6	4.1	0.7	3.2	1.1
6 If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class again	3.9	1.2	3.5	1.4	4.2	0.7	4.2	0.7	3.9	0.9	3.2	1.1
7 My classmates don't seem to care about each other very much	4.5	0.8	3.9	1.3	4.7	0.7	3.3	1.1	3.9	0.9	4.1	1.0
8 I know most of my classmates	3.0	0.9	3.2	1.2	2.6	0.7	3.1	0.9	3.2	1.2	2.5	1.3
9 I get along well with my classmates	3.8	0.9	3.6	0.9	4.4	0.5	3.9	0.8	3.2	1.2	3.8	0.7
10 There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with	4.5	0.9	3.4	1.4	4.2	1.2	3.9	1.2	3.5	1.2	3.2	1.5
11 I feel anxious speaking English in this class	3.5	1.3	3.2	1.3	3.1	1.2	3.7	1.3	3.5	1.1	3.2	1.4

APPENDIX 3.2 Attitudes towards Group Cohesiveness by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation (s.d), and Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N), Term 3

	Mary class 1 (N=7)		Mary class 2 (N=11)		Ronnie (N=6)		Colin (N=11)		Kate (N=7)		Anne (N=11)	
	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.	m	s.d.
Attitudes												
1 If I were in another class, I would want that class to have students very similar to the classmates I have now	4.1	0.9	3.6	1.0	4.0	0.9	3.9	0.9	3.7	0.9	3.0	1.0
2 This class is composed of people who get on well	4.9	0.4	3.8	1.0	4.5	0.5	4.1	0.8	4.1	0.4	3.8	1.1
3 I know the names of all my classmates	4.6	0.5	3.4	1.2	3.8	1.0	4.1	0.9	2.9	1.5	2.0	0.6
4 I am satisfied with my class	4.9	0.4	3.7	1.2	4.3	0.5	4.4	0.9	4.1	0.7	2.5	0.7
5 I feel very comfortable working in this class	4.7	0.5	4.0	0.8	4.2	0.7	4.4	1.0	4.1	1.1	3.4	1.1
6 If I had a choice, I would want to learn English in the same class again	3.6	1.1	3.9	0.5	4.0	0.9	4.3	0.8	3.6	1.3	2.8	1.3
7 My classmates don't seem to care about each other very much	5.0	0	4.7	0.6	5.0	0	3.9	1.4	4.9	0.4	4.2	0.9
8 I know most of my classmates	3.7	0.7	3.6	0.8	3.5	1.6	4.2	0.7	2.9	0.9	2.2	1.2
9 I get along well with my classmates	4.3	0.5	3.9	1.0	3.8	0.7	4.4	0.9	4.1	0.7	3.9	0.8
10 There are some classmates I'd prefer not to work with	4.9	0.4	3.7	1.2	4.0	0.9	2.9	1.4	3.6	1.4	4.5	0.9
11 I feel anxious speaking English in this class	4.2	1.0	3.1	1.5	3.7	1.2	3.4	1.4	3.7	1.6	4.4	1.0

APPENDIX 3.3 Attitudes towards Group Cohesiveness for Teachers, Terms 1 and 3. C1 = Mary's class 1, C2 = Mary's class 2, R = Ronnie, C = Colin, K = Kate, A =Anne.

Attitudes	Term 1						Term 3					
	C1	C2	R	C	K	A	C1	C2	R	C	K	A
1 The group is tolerant of all its members	4	3	5	4	4	3	4	1	4	2	5	4
2 Some group members will not cooperate to perform tasks	5	5	5	3	2	5	5	4	4	3	5	4
3 The class is composed of people who get on well	5	4	4	4	3	2	5	3	4	4	4	3
4 There are some people in this class who do not like each other	5	4	5	4	5	2	5	4	5	2	4	3
5 There is a supportive atmosphere in class	4	5	4	4	2	3	4	2	4	4	4	4
6 I feel very comfortable working with this class	5	5	4	5	4	2	5	2	4	5	5	3
7 If I had the choice I would like to teach English to this class again	5	5	4	5	4	2	5	2	4	4	4	2
8 The individuals don't seem to care much about each other	5	5	5	5	3	3	5	3	5	5	3	5
9 The students all know each other	5	5	2	3	3	3	4	4	1	4	2	4
10 The students seem to like each other	5	4	4	4	3	2	4	3	4	4	2	3

APPENDIX 3.4 Classroom Behaviours by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation (s.d) , and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N) Term 1.

Classroom Behaviours	Class 1 (N=10)				Class 2 (N=11)				Ronnie (N=8)				Colin (N=12)				Kate (N= 13)				Anne (N=13)			
	Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You	
	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d
1 Ask my colleagues for their opinion when we are discussing a topic	2.8	0.6	3.2	0.6	2.7	0.6	2.8	0.6	3.2	0.7	3.2	0.7	3.2	0.9	3.1	0.8	3.1	0.6	2.9	0.6	2.7	0.6	3.0	0.7
2 Help each other with the work	3.4	0.7	3.0	0.8	2.6	0.8	3.5	0.7	3.6	0.7	3.7	0.5	3.2	0.7	3.2	0.7	3.1	0.5	2.8	0.8	3.0	0.7	3.1	0.8
3 Participate fully when working with colleagues	3.3	0.7	3.2	0.8	3.1	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.2	0.6	3.1	0.7	3.2	0.6	3.0	0.7	2.85	0.7	3.2	0.6
4 Correct classmates when they make a mistake	2.7	0.8	2.8	0.8	2.5	0.9	2.7	0.9	3.0	0.9	2.9	1.3	2.9	0.7	2.8	0.6	2.5	0.5	2.5	0.9	2.9	0.9	2.8	0.8
5 Ask for clarification when we don't understand each other	3.2	0.6	3.5	0.7	3.2	0.9	3.5	0.7	3.4	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.2	0.6	3.3	0.5	3.4	0.6	3.4	0.6	3.1	0.8	3.1	0.7
6 Fully participate in the class	3.5	0.5	3.4	0.7	3.1	0.8	3.5	0.7	3.5	0.8	3.6	0.5	3.3	0.7	3.5	0.7	3.3	0.7	3.1	0.9	3.1	0.5	3.2	0.6

APPENDIX 3.4 continued. Class Behaviours by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation (s.d) and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N) Term

1

Classroom Behaviours	Class 1 (N=10)				Class 2 (N=11)				Ronnie (N=8)				Colin (N=12)				Kate (N= 13)				Anne (N=13)			
	Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You	
	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d
7 Speak only English in the class all the time.	3.1	0.3	3.2	0.4	2.8	0.7	2.9	0.8	2.6	0.7	2.6	0.7	3.2	0.6	3.2	0.5	3.0	0.8	3.1	0.6	2.8	0.7	2.7	0.6
8Ask the teacher when there are questions or problems	3.4	0.7	3.5	0.7	3.2	0.6	3.5	0.8	3.6	0.5	3.6	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.1	0.5	3.3	0.6	3.1	0.8	3.1	0.7
9 Listen to what other people in class say	3.7	0.5	3.7	0.7	3.5	0.5	3.6	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.9	0.3	3.5	0.5	3.4	0.5	3.4	0.6	3.7	0.6	2.9	0.6	3.3	0.5
10 Listen to what the teacher says	3.9	0.3	4.0	0.0	3.4	0.8	3.9	0.3	4.0	0	4.0	0.0	3.6	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.6	0.5	3.8	0.4	3.2	0.6	3.6	0.6
11 Come to class regularly (70% of classes)	3.3	0.7	3.6	0.5	2.7	0.6	3.9	0.3	3.4	0.7	3.9	0.3	3.7	0.5	3.7	0.4	3.1	0.6	3.5	0.7	2.9	0.5	3.6	0.6
12 Happily work with anyone else in the class	3.6	0.5	3.5	0.7	3.1	0.7	3.5	0.7	3.5	0.8	3.6	0.7	3.5	0.7	3.4	0.7	3.1	0.6	3.4	0.6	3.1	0.8	3.1	0.7

APPENDIX 3.5 Classroom Behaviours by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation (s.d) , and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N) ,Term 3

320

Classroom Behaviours	Class 1 (N=7)				Class 2 (N=11)				Ronnie (N=6)				Colin (N=11)				Kate (N= 7)				Anne (N=11)			
	Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You	
	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d
1 Ask my colleagues for their opinion when we are discussing a topic	3.1	0.9	3.1	0.7	2.7	0.5	2.8	0.4	3.2	0.4	3.3	0.8	2.8	0.6	2.9	0.5	2.9	0.7	2.9	0.7	2.7	0.5	2.8	0.4
2 Help each other with the work	3.3	0.5	3.4	0.5	2.8	0.6	3.4	0.5	3.5	0.6	3.7	0.5	3.2	0.7	3.5	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.2	0.7	3.4	0.5
3 Participate fully when working with colleagues	3.9	0.4	3.9	0.4	2.5	0.5	3.3	0.6	3.7	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.4	0.7	3.4	0.7	3.3	0.7	3.9	0.4	2.8	0.6	3.3	0.6
4 Correct classmates when they make a mistake	2.7	0.7	2.6	0.5	2.4	0.5	2.4	0.7	3.2	0.9	3.3	1.0	2.9	0.5	2.7	0.5	2.4	0.5	3.0	0.6	2.6	0.7	2.8	0.7
5 Ask for clarification when we don't understand each other	3.3	0.9	3.9	0.4	2.6	0.7	3.0	0.8	3.7	0.5	3.3	0.5	3.2	0.4	3.4	0.5	3.6	0.5	3.4	0.5	2.8	0.6	3.4	0.7
6 Fully participate in the class	3.4	0.5	3.6	0.5	2.6	0.7	3.4	0.7	3.3	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.6	0.5	3.4	0.8	3.4	0.5	2.9	0.9	3.2	0.6

APPENDIX 3.5 continued. Class Behaviours by Group, with the Mean (m), the Standard Deviation (s.d), and the Number of Students on which the Means are Based (N), Term

3

321

Classroom Behaviours	Class 1 (N=7)				Class 2 (N=11)				Ronnie (N=6)				Colin (N=11)				Kate (N= 7)				Anne (N=11)			
	Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You		Your group		You	
	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d	m	s.d
7 Speak only English in the class all the time.	2.7	0.5	3.4	0.5	2.2	0.6	2.6	0.8	2.5	0.5	2.3	0.5	2.7	0.5	3.0	0.9	3.1	0.9	3.1	0.7	2.5	0.5	2.8	0.4
8 Ask the teacher when there are questions or problems	3.6	0.8	3.6	0.5	2.9	0.7	3.2	0.7	3.5	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.5	0.7	3.7	0.5	3.4	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.0	0.9	3.2	0.9
9 Listen to what other people in class say	3.7	0.5	3.9	0.4	2.6	0.5	3.2	0.6	3.7	0.5	3.5	0.8	3.5	0.5	3.8	0.4	3.7	0.5	4.0	0.0	3.2	0.6	3.2	0.6
10 Listen to what the teacher says	3.9	0.4	4.0	0.0	3.2	0.7	3.7	0.5	3.8	0.4	3.7	0.8	3.5	0.5	3.8	0.4	4.0	0.0	4.0	0.0	3.4	0.7	3.2	0.5
11 Come to class regularly (70% of classes)	2.9	0.4	3.7	0.5	3.2	0.6	3.8	0.4	2.8	0.7	3.8	0.4	3.6	0.5	3.9	0.3	2.9	0.7	3.9	0.4	3.1	0.7	3.7	0.5
12 Happily work with anyone else in the class	3.6	0.5	3.9	0.4	2.4	0.7	2.6	0.8	3.5	0.5	3.7	0.5	3.5	0.5	3.4	0.7	3.4	0.5	3.4	0.5	3.1	0.7	3.4	0.7

APPENDIX 3.6 Classroom Behaviours by Group and Teacher. Scores for Terms 1 and 3.

M1 = Mary class 1, M2 = Mary class 2, R = Ronnie, C= Colin, K = Kate, A = Anne

	Term 1						Term 3					
Classroom Behaviours	M1	M2	R	C	K	A	M1	M2	R	C	K	A
1 Ask my colleagues for their opinion when we are discussing a topic	3	3	3	4	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	2
2 Help each other with the work	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3 Participate fully when working with colleagues	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	4	3	4	3	3
4 Correct classmates when they make a mistake	3	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	2	2
5 Ask for clarification when we don't understand each other	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	4	3	2	2
6 Fully participate in the class	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3

APPENDIX 3.6 continued. Classroom Behaviours by Group and Teacher. Scores for Term 1 and Term 3.

M1 = Mary class 1, M2 = Mary class 2, R = Ronnie, C= Colin, K = Kate, A = Anne

Classroom Behaviours	Term 1						Term 3					
	M1	M2	R	C	K	A	M1	M2	R	C	K	A
7 Speak only English in the class all the time	4	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3
8 Ask you when there are questions or problems	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
9 Listen to what other people in class say	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3
10 Listen to what you say	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3
11 Come to class regularly (e.g. 70% of classes)	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
12 Happily work with anyone else in the class	3	4	4	3	2	3	4	2	3	3	3	2

APPENDIX 4.1 TRANSCRIPTION OF FINAL DICTOGLOSS RECONSTRUCTION TASK OF LEARNERS IN CLASS 1 (RECORDING 29) AND CLASS 2 (RECORDING 31)

Range of linkers

Errors of morphosyntax/lexis

Recording 29 Class 1 students

In August 2000 Jennifer and James went on a computer science student. She didn't want a serious relationship so she broke and she was so upset and she couldn't concentrate on what she was doing. She had a car accident. She was badly injured. James visit her in the hospital. But after they went to the hospital they get back together. Two years later she got married. If she hadn't had the accident she probably wouldn't saw James again.

Recording 31 Class 2 students

In August 2000 Jenifer and James, a computer science student, started going out. After a while she realised that she didn't want a serious relationship so she broke up with James. She started to feel upset and realised she made a mistake. Once/Once she couldn't concentrate she had a car accident. James came to visit her at the hospital and they got back together. Two years later they got married and had a child born from this relation. Finally she realised if she hadn't had an accident they wouldn't have got back together.

Original text

In August 2000 Jennifer was going out with James, a computer science student. They got on very well but Jennifer didn't want a serious relationship and they broke up. Then she realized she had made a mistake and she was so upset that she couldn't concentrate on what she was doing and had a car accident. She wasn't badly injured but James came to visit her in hospital and they got back together. They got married 2 years later and now have a newly born baby girl. If she hadn't had an accident, they might never have seen one another again.